THE FUTURE OF WORK IN NON-PROFIT AND RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS: CURRENT AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES AND CONCERNS

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Editorial: The Future of Work in Non-profit and Religious Organizations: Current and Future Perspectives and Concerns

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Editorial on the Research Topic

The Future of Work in Non-profit and Religious Organizations: Current and Future Perspectives and Concerns

Non-profits and religious organizations support the state's public services contributing to mitigate critical situations in developing countries, or to improving the welfare status in developed countries. Despite their unquestionable social role, little is known about the functioning of these organizations from a management point of view. In the past, the survival of these entities has been based on the identification and commitment displayed by some of their members: partners, donors, volunteers or members of religious associations, among others.

Recent studies have shown that working in such organizations is very demanding from an emotional point of view, to this we must add workers' low salaries, the instability of the job position and the extenuating work time. All of this leads to low levels of well-being and higher staff turnover rates.

The decreased admission of members in religious organizations together with the reduced capacity of the non-profit organizations to attract and maintain the employees might jeopardize the long-term survival of these entities. Despite this risk, there is a marked resistance to change in the sector that embodies, among other things, an aversion to anything that involves the incorporation of criteria concerning professional management. Indeed, it is believed that professionalism would create a change of style exclusively focused on increasing the productivity, leading, in worst cases, employees to question the principles motivating them to work in a non-profit or religious organization.

The challenge in this situation is for professionalization to be respectful toward the mission and charisma moreover to present an opportunity for the employees' personal growth. Furthermore, technological and digital improvements are expected due to the recent deployment of machines, robots, digital connectivity, and artificial intelligence in the workplace. Non-profit and religious organizations may suffer from technological development; the risk is to decrease the human side, and orientation characterizing these organizations.

In this context, the increasing rate of non-standard forms of employment has replaced the traditional productive organization, based on full-time and permanent employment, with a system based on flexible under-employment, plural, and decentralized work causing instability, non-protection and vulnerability of the employee. For example, these concerns are presented by the International Labor Organization's Future of Work Initiative, that calls for an in-depth examination of the future of work to provide decent and sustainable work opportunities for everyone. Promoting a sustainable and decent future of work is essential to focus on research to promote higher levels of work and society, decent jobs for employees, work for the organization and work production, and finally organized governance of work.

Accurately, this special issue is focused on the future of work in non-profit and religious organizations. Most of the 14 articles published in this special issue are empirical contributions involving 54 authors from different regions of the world, mainly from Europe and America. The published works approximate a wide range of entities (charitable organizations, non-profit hospitals, fraternities and brotherhoods, catholic schools...), addressing the topic of research from different areas and fields of knowledge, such as Management, Economics, Occupational & Organizational Psychology, law, Humanities and Philosophy, Sociology and Social Work and Ethics and Sustainability, among others.

The study of the same phenomenon from different prisms offers a variety of perspectives that undoubtedly enrich scientific knowledge on the subject. In this sense, the contributions of this special issue make an interdisciplinary approach that will improve the overall well-being of workers, their effectiveness, commitment and productivity. All this will help ensure The Future of Work in Non-Profit and Religious Organizations.

As a whole, the published manuscripts address four significant areas of interest to the academy. First, five articles focus on the performance of such organizations in order to ensure the long-term survival of such organizations. Descending to the micro-level, the second area of interest is the non-profit organization-client relationship, whether it is an immigrant, patient, student or any other beneficiary of the service provided by these organizations in society. Specifically, three articles highlight the importance of proactively managing this relationship as a critical factor in the success of these organizations in fulfilling their mission. Without moving away from the micro-level, the third area of interest is the different groups that collaborate in this type of entity (lay, religious, volunteer, employees...), analyzing different outcome variables that show what it means for them to work (in exchange for economic remuneration or without it) in an entity that puts social purposes before profit. The fourth and final area of interest is a call of attention to the managers of these entities, warning them of the need to exercise strong and committed leadership. In this sense, two of the published articles analyze the style of leadership in these organizations, betting on servant leadership as the most consistent with the mission of these entities.

IMPROVING PERFORMANCE IN NON-PROFIT AND RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS

As noted above, five manuscripts treat the performance of the non-profit and religious organization.

The article by Acosta-Prado et al. uses a health sector personnel working in Colombian non-profit hospitals (NPHs) to analyze certain human resources practices that can reinforce any regular organizational performance. Results obtained through Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) confirm the influence of human resource management on innovative performance, representing an excellent opportunity for NPHs.

The qualitative study conducted by López-Cabrera et al. analyzed four types of conflicts (task, process, status, and relationship conflicts) in a large non-profit organization. From the perspective of organizational psychology, the most relevant finding obtained by these authors is the significant difference between paid staff and volunteers in conflict perceptions, showing paid staff, overall, higher levels of conflicts than volunteers. Findings also show more substantial negative consequences for paid staff compared to volunteers.

The paper by Retolaza et al. discusses the use of social accounting to calculate the social value generated by religious-oriented organizations. Analyzing 16 educative centers of the diocese of Bilbao (Spain), the authors highlighted the utility of social accounting in three significant fields: (1) external communication mainly to the Basque government (who is the primary provider of funding for the centers) and concerning other stakeholders; (2) information for management and strategic planning; and (3) empowerment of stakeholders, specially collaborators.

In the fourth article, Buenadicha-Mateos et al. point out the importance of attracting and retaining the best employees in an increasingly competitive context, a topic that is still scarce in the voluntary sector. Thus, online recruitment is a growing trend. This study sheds light on the topic because it examines and compares the 100 best companies to work for, published by Fortune, and the 100 largest charities, reported by Forbes. The research of these authors concludes that benchmarking efforts can help increase the charities' attractiveness in the labor market shortly.

In a similar vein, the use of digital platforms in order to attract the most well-prepared and motivated young volunteers into the projects of non-profit organizations is the main objective of the fifth article. Saura et al. adopt the extended Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) to evaluate data from a sample of potential volunteers from non-profit organizations. Using a structural equation approach, they confirm that extended TAM is an appropriate model for the analysis of technological acceptance of social platforms that allow volunteers or other professionals to be recruited.

ORGANIZATION-CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIP

Three studies explore the client-organization relationship as a critical factor in success in non-profit entities.

First, Foxall et al. highlight differences in managerial work between business firms and non-profits exemplified by the charitable organization. Adopting as a frame of reference the theory of the marketing firm, researchers describes the essentials of the theory and its basis in consumer behavior analysis and outlines its unique position as the organization responsible for marketing transactions, based on objective exchange, competitive markets and prices, and the deployment of the entire marketing mix. Moreover, they discuss how the marketing firm differs from charities in terms of goal separation, market-based pricing and competition, the entrepreneurial (strategic) process, the pursuit of customer-oriented management, and organizational structure.

Second, Sánchez-Hernández et al. use a health religious organizations sample to focus their attention on the nurse-patient relationship and empirically explore a theoretical model that links nurses' suffering at work with personal's willingness to engage in a therapeutic and spiritual relationship with patients and the consequent effect on quality. One hundred two nurses were investigated through an analytical case-study based on Partial Least Squares (PLS) path modeling. The main conclusion of this research is the necessary inclusion of suffering, even in good places to work, as a critical indicator for better management, which highlights the need to implement better human management systems in these organizations.

Finally, Robina-Ramírez et al. obtain a sample of 214 biology and religion teachers from 118 Catholic schools from which they analyze the critical role that teachers play in their relationship with students in this type of center. In particular, they focus on the environmental competencies of teachers in order to investigate the environmental attributes that should be incorporated into religious schools to combine religious and environmental teaching. In line with the experiences of international programs for eco-schools, the results of this research confirm that environmental competencies must be developed in teachers to enable the greening of schools.

THE HUMAN FACTOR IN NON-PROFIT AND RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS

Up to four articles focus on different outcome variables related to the working conditions and well-being of people collaborating with these entities.

From the Malmo University of Sweden, Edvik et al. discuss the importance of work engagement and job satisfaction as an organizational response to changes in the environment. Using as a frame of reference the job demands and job resources model, and as a working methodology the regression analysis in a sample of 2,112 employees of the Church of Sweden, these authors demonstrate that employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change is critical to consider for understanding employee well-within being

religious organizations. In conclusion, the study suggests that organizations that are built upon strong values and institutionalized beliefs need to tread carefully in the process of adapting to conformal pressure for change. This, since the actions and choices of the organization, are important for employees' credence in the organization and, in turn, employee well-being.

Work engagement is also one of the principal research objects of Ortiz-Gómez et al.'s work. These authors stress the importance that it represents for religious organizations to serve the community while transmitting specific values according to the charism of the order. Using Partial Least Squares method, in a sample of nearly a thousand workers from a Catholic religious organization, the results of the study confirm that there is a direct relationship between the human values of the members, the level of authenticity of the members and their commitment to the organization, as well as a mediating effect of authenticity on the relationship between human engagement values and work.

Landing in the international boundary between the United States and Mexico, and building on theories of Planned Behavior and Reasoned Action, Suárez et al. investigate the relevance of volunteer commitment as an instrument for managing cross-border conflicts in the particular context of San Diego and Tijuana Area. These authors suggest that intentions to cooperate with non-government institutions are influenced directly by attitudinal values and indirectly by their beliefs related to social conflicts. By using a qualitative methodology based on interview data, Suárez et al. provide new insights into how organizational and relational elements impact sustainable volunteer management and point out the role played by attitudes toward non-government institutions demonstrating the relevance of volunteer commitment, transforming part of the positive toward attitude social problems into a significant intention to cooperation.

If voluntary activities enhance the integration of older people into society, their participation will help to generate economic resources and improve their welfare. It is the starting thesis of Gil-Lacruz et al.'s article. These authors analyze the well-being generated in older people by carrying out volunteering activities. To achieve their goals, they develop an empirical study using micro-data from the World Value Survey and macro-data from the statistics of the OECD. The results of his research suggest, on the one hand, that volunteering might improve every indicator of well-being except happiness, and on the other hand, that the impact on individual well-being depends on the type of volunteering activity that develops.

LEADING PEOPLE IN NON-PROFIT AND RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS

The special issue also includes two articles that emphasize the importance of leading very heterogeneous groups to bring their full potential to the service of the organization.

Professors Hernández-Perlines and Araya-Castillo contribution analyses the relationship between servant leadership, innovative capacity and performance in a sample of Third Sector entities. Using a dual methodology, both

quantitative (second-order structural equations, PLS-SEM) and qualitative comparative analysis (QCA), the authors of this article conclude that the servant leadership is the most consistent for the philosophy of such organizations, positively influencing the performance of these entities.

The religious fraternities and brotherhoods of Seville, Spain, are among the principal agents of the social aid carried out in that city. It is the research object of Blanco et al.'s work. These authors aimed to verify, through a revised version of the Rivera and Santos questionnaire (2015), if the leader-server characteristics, usually apply to a natural person, can also be identified in such corporations. In addition to this methodological objective, the resulting product was used to identify the shared characteristics that make the fraternities and brotherhoods of Seville different from other private agents fighting against poverty.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it should be noted that the work carried out by 54 authors who have worked on a joint sample of thousands of members has highlighted the need for proactive management of non-profit and religious organizations. These entities are based on service leadership and differentiated according to the particularities, desires, needs and expectations of the different groups of people working for the effectiveness and efficiency of these entities. If this is joined by an effort to measure the value these organizations bring to society, which will undoubtedly make them gain in transparency and legitimacy, the long-term survival of the non-profit and religious organization is guaranteed.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors listed have made a substantial, direct and intellectual contribution to the work, and approved it for publication.

Well-Being Lessons for Improving Charities' Online Recruitment

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In an increasingly competitive context, attracting and retaining the best employees are a real preoccupation and a big challenge for organizations. Online recruitment (OR) is a growing trend, and corporate websites are an important instrument for talent attraction, but academic research on this topic is still scarce, especially in the voluntary sector. To shed light on the topic, this study examines and compares the 100 best companies to work for, published by Fortune, and the 100 largest charities, reported by Forbes. The comparative study focuses the attention and quantifies the web section devoted to careers, concretely information related to goods practices affecting the workers well-being. The results indicated, as essential in the OR process of charities, to understand the relevance of their web content because that affects the intentions of potential applicants. The work concludes that benchmarking efforts can be helpful for increasing the charities' attractiveness in the labor market in the near future.

Keywords: charities, future of work, non-profit organizations, online recruitment, voluntary sector

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, it is very well known that the future of work is a general hot topic in the socioeconomic arena (Balliester and Elsheikhi, 2018) that is being shaped by, at least, two powerful forces: digitalization and the role of talent (Manpower Group, 2017). On the one hand, the adoption of artificial intelligence in the workplace is changing the work force relations. This issue is still relatively misunderstood (Mital and Pennathur, 2004) and, probably because of that, a bit scary (McClure, 2018; Wolnicki and Piasecki, 2019). However, and related to human resources management (HRM), the positive role of technology has also been highlighted in, for instance, improving recruitment processes, and helping correct skills mismatches (Manyika et al., 2015). On the other hand, and looking for scale effects, the growing global competition is generating the integration of societies and economies. This current trend derives on the expansion of work and a widening wage inequality (Frey and Osborne, 2017) intensifying the competition for talent (Cappelli, 2000; McCauley and Wakefield, 2006; Pfeffer, 2010; Docquier and Machado, 2016).

In this context, and around the world, it has been observed that the voluntary sector is growing because it is increasingly offering services previously provided by the public sector (Defourny, 2001; Nickson et al., 2008). Considering that the quality of the services provided partially depends on their staff, the HRM is progressively claimed to play a determinant role in enhancing the efficiency of the sector (Ridder et al., 2012).

Few people would question that recruitment is a key strategic domain in HRM that add value to organizations. At the moment, online recruitment (OR) is a growing trend, specially designed

for Millennials that will make up over a third of the global workforce by 2020 (ManpowerGroup, 2016), but academic research on this topic is still scarce.

Talent management, defined as the process through which organizations meet their needs for talent in strategic positions (Cappelli and Keller, 2014), is a big challenge for organizations in the twenty-first century (Ashton and Morton, 2005). Both recruitment in general and OR in particular have become a key factor in the so-called war for talent (Bostjancic and Slana, 2018). In addition, when planning a firm's talent attraction strategy, the primary intent must be to become an employer of choice, and a great place to work at (Pandita and Ray, 2018).

The voluntary sector, also denoted as not-for-profit sector, third sector, or social economy, is constituted by different kinds of organizations that are not public and do not fall into the state or market categories (Corry, 2010), such as non-governmental organizations, charities, self-help groups, social enterprises, networks, or clubs, among others. Reviewing previous studies, academic literature on the topic suggests that HRM in the voluntary sector has traditionally lacked a refined approach (Lloyd, 1993; Cunningham, 1999; Kellock Hay et al., 2001; Parry et al., 2005; Akingbola, 2006; Ridder and McCandless, 2010). In addition, a number of difficulties exist for recruitment in the voluntary sector because of inadequate career progression, precarious job security, or poor wages (Cunningham, 2005).

However, in an increasingly competitive context, attracting and retaining the best employees are a real preoccupation and a big challenge for the voluntary sector (Nickson et al., 2008; Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). Recognizing that recruitment is a challenge for the sector, the research question is, what should be learned from the for-profit sector? To answer the question, the study focused on corporate webs as crucial contemporary means for attracting and retaining talent. In line with Keeman et al. (2017), given that well-being is important for organizational success, we put the attention on information related to the workers well-being. Following Giorgi et al. (2016), employee well-being is considered an umbrella concept including various services and benefits offered to employees with the aim of fostering their working conditions and professional growth such as interventions regarding allowances, housing, transportation, medical insurance, or wellness coverage (Schmitz and Schrader, 2015).

The purpose was to examine what practices coming up from the for-profit sector could be also applied in recruitment in the voluntary sector. The objective was to compare what kind of information disclosure related to workers well-being is provided in corporate webs in both sectors, with a sample conformed by the best organizations in each sector, as will be exposed later.

Although there is a lack of consensus on what exactly conforms the voluntary sector, Blackmore (2004) referred to non-profit organizations with an independent governance structure and set up for promoting a shared interest. In line with Parry et al. (2005), in this research, we focus on organizations involved with charity activities, such as education, relief of the poor, the advancement of religion, and other services considered to benefit the community. Our comparative study refines the understanding of the role of well-being practices in attracting

new talent in both lucrative and voluntary sector. Our research also has implications for practitioners because the results may convince human resources (HR) managers to improve their recruitment strategies by reinforcing the emphasis on well-being in webpages to attract the new generations entering the labor market.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Online Recruitment

The online recruitment, also known as e-recruitment, is the practice whereby web-based technology is used as a means of attracting and hiring personnel (Ghazzawi and Accoumeh, 2014). Recently, OR has been defined as "the use of communication technologies such as websites and social media to find and attract potential job applicants, to keep them interested in the organization during the selection processes, and to influence their job choice decisions" (Chapman and Gödöllei, 2017, p. 213).

Despite the fact that OR is still being considered a relatively new process in HRM, it is in fact an important source of recruitment (Ouirdi et al., 2016; Rosoiu and Popescu, 2016), and the number of jobseekers using this recruitment method is increasing (Petre et al., 2016).

Academic literature associates OR with both economic (e.g., cost reduction) and human resource system advantages (e.g., applicants' resumes can be stored and organized in digital databases) (Din et al., 2015; Vidros et al., 2016). Another important advantage is that it could also improve the image that the organization communicates to candidates using systems that provide automatic feedback (Galanaki, 2002). In the same way, we can enumerate some disadvantages that the literature points out, like the risk of receiving a large number of unsuitable applicants or a higher number of applications that the organization could be not technologically prepared to manage (Barber, 2006). Finally, it is important to regard the amount of investment and its financial cost to both implement and manage an efficient technological system capable to complete the required OR process (Petre et al., 2016).

There has been little investigation about whether OR methods are better suited for particular types of organizations. In addition, corporate websites are an important instrument for OR, which requires specific studies. However, there is also little understanding of the properties and effectiveness of this technology, especially in the voluntary sector. This work is therefore intended to make contributions to the scarce literature on the topic.

The Role of Web Pages

The corporate website is currently one of the cornerstones of firms' communication strategies, being the fundamental instrument for information dissemination. Through corporate websites, organizations spread information related to the organization itself and also related to its products and services, as an important communication outlet for brands. Corporate websites have emerged as essential channels for distributing information to stakeholders (customers, suppliers, investors,

partners, and employees among others) (Iaia et al., 2019). Simultaneously, stakeholders can also use new media for gathering information from the organization and build fruitful relationships with them (Sriramesh et al., 2013). Taking into account the complexity of stakeholders for a charity, the right development and administration of corporates websites have revealed as particularly important for these organizations (Goatman and Lewis, 2007).

Broadly, voluntary organizations have classically been considered as early adopters of new technology (Hackler and Saxton, 2007). For instance, Barnes and Mattson (2010) showed that non-profit organizations were more active than for profits in their use of social media tools such as blogs, podcasts, or Twitter. On the contrary, and related to HRM, when comparing small business and non-profit organizations, Witzig et al. (2012) demonstrated that small businesses appear to have greater adoption and usage rates of the professional networking site LinkedIn.

Voluntary organizations can use their websites to improve their visibility to the community, crowdsource info to resolve problems or collect votes to enlighten project priorities, fundraise, crowdfund their actions, and recruitment (Kirk et al., 2016). The importance of websites as a communication tool is even more critical in non-profits than in for-profit organizations because the task of engaging external stakeholders warrants non-profits' ongoing existence (Hoefer and Twis, 2018). As the Internet continues to grow, voluntary organizations are starting to build and develop better relations with their stakeholders, and they are also changing how they communicate, basically thinking that message dissemination is no longer sufficient (Greenberg and MacAulay, 2009). However, and even with the influence of social media, the non-profits' audience still uses their websites (McMahon et al., 2015; Kirk and Abrahams, 2017).

Considering the above, charities must reinforce their websites for attracting talent as part of their OR strategies. In this context, and according to Collings and Mellahi (2009), organizations must follow three steps to have an employee attraction strategy: employer branding, becoming an employer of choice, and creating a recognized great place to work. With these steps, the talent attraction strategy will be able to be successful (Swailes, 2016). In this context, physical and psychological well-being in the workplace should be a good point to make a company more appealing, and corporate websites should be a good means to show a healthy work environment, conducive to learning, performing, and socializing (Edwards, 2009; Pandita and Ray, 2018).

Physical and Psychological Well-Being in the Workplace

According to a Positive Psychology approach, the well-being of people, groups, and organizations must be promoted (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Henry, 2005; Di Fabio, 2017). Wellness in the workplace has been defined as "the integration of many dimensions, including emotional, intellectual, physical, spiritual, and social, that expands one's potential to live and work effectively and to make a significant contribution to society"

(Corbin and Lindsey, 1994, p.233). Employers have an important role in providing workplace practices that protect employee's physical and psychological well-being.

An effective workplace strategy must simultaneously address the social, physical, and technical components of the work environment (Ellison Schriefer, 2005). Even acknowledging the wide diversity of compensations that organizations can offer to their workers, such as coverage of different medical assistance services for them and their families, for instance, these types of benefits are more related to insurance policies of health than to the promotion tools of well-being at work. Good practices in comprehensive workplace wellness programs generally include supportive physical and psychological environments.

Given the relative scarce knowledge on the topic, and array of potential benefits of wellness programs, it is necessary to approach and to investigate these programs further and deeper (Sabharwal et al., 2019). For instance, the workplace can provide an environment of social support with opportunities for direct communication with employees to support and encourage healthy lifestyle choices. Organizations have the possibility to develop wellness programs, consisting of employee fitness and massages activities providing assistance to employees with expenses. The aim is improving and maintaining employees' state of physical fitness (Ryan et al., 2019). According to Madsen (2003), this kind of programs are an example of Education and Lifestyle Programs (ELP) within the wellness programs. In addition, the cafeteria programs (CP) can be a very suitable tool for healthy eating, wellness, and the promotion of social relationships at work (Wanjek, 2005; Dawson et al., 2006). WCP means that the company is providing and, partially or totally, supporting a cafeteria service (beverages and/or food).

Another important aspect related to work well-being is the satisfaction with the work commute. Olsson et al. (2013) demonstrated that it has a substantial influence on the general happiness of employees. Long work journeys in congested car traffic jams cause residual stress in the workplace (Novaco et al., 1990) and are associated with negative feelings during the workday (Kahneman et al., 2004). The existence of employee transport programs (ETP) means that firms offer transport benefits such as company cars, pass on public transportation, travel, and parking benefits to employees. It should be considered that the fact that the organization offers the company's cars or travel and parking benefits generally makes the employees less sensitive to the real costs of daily commuting. In addition, transport benefits can discourage employees to move their residence because the employees' expenses on commuting are reduced (Van Ommeren et al., 2006).

Moving to more intrinsic motivators related to well-being in the workplace, according to Madsen (2003), employee assistance programs (EAP) would be a good example. EAPs are a job-based programs operating within a work organization with the purposes of identifying troubled employees. These programs serve to motivate employees to solve their troubles and provide access to counseling or treatment for those who need these services (Sonnenstuhl and Trice, 2018). These programs assist employees with behavioral health issues, personal concerns, and work-related problems to change of behavior. The study of

Nunes et al. (2018) provides empirical evidence that users of EAP tend to reduce their absenteeism at a faster pace than non-EAP users experiencing similar challenges to maintain productivity.

In the same vain, the employee recognition programs (ERP) are a way to acknowledge an employee's outstanding performance and also motivate improvements (Luthans, 2000). These programs, aimed at reinforcing courageous behavior at work (Ali and Ahmed, 2009), use rewards to acknowledge employees for special contributions or exceptional efforts above the expectations stated in an individual's job description (Hager et al., 2017). Beyond the effect on a specific individual, these programs can potentially provide a motivational effect beyond individual beneficiaries (Li et al., 2016). It is expected that the formal recognition of a team member will not only lead to positive changes in the individual but also to the collective performance of teammates.

Finally, and also related to intrinsic motivation and well-being, and directly connected to recruitment, the modern employee referral programs (ERFP) are remarkable. They serve to value employees who have suggested jobseekers to cover openings in the company. It is in fact an internal recruitment method, considered as an informal source (Breaugh and Starke, 2000), and employed by organizations to identify potential candidates from their existing employees' social networks (Van Hoye, 2013). An ERFP encourages a company's existing employees to select and recruit the suitable candidates from their social networks (Powell, 2009). ERFP involves more than bringing new employees into the workplace. It brings in particular coworkers, individuals known by insiders and likely to have strong social ties (Granovetter, 1973). Friebel et al. (2019) showed that ERFPs can have substantial benefits beyond generating referrals. The most supported mechanism is that workers value being involved in hiring. It is also important to highlight that there is a relationship among ERFP, rotation, and performance (Pieper et al., 2019).

RESEARCH DESIGN

Sample

This study used the last Forbes' "The Largest 100 U.S. Charities" list. It is a very well-known compendium of the top charitable organizations that Forbes publishes annually based on the amount of private support received by charities in the latest fiscal reporting period (Forbes, 2019). The list of for-profit organizations was gleaned from "The Fortune 100," the 100 best companies to work for, a list of companies that are ranked by Fortune magazine (Fortune, 2019). It is remarkable that other academic works have previously considered the same or similar rankings (Moore et al., 2002; Bernardi et al., 2006; Witzig et al., 2012).

Method and Procedure

There are some studies, in different contexts, that point out several website elements to attract the attention of the jobseekers such as usability, design, innovation, or the content of the information (Selden and Orenstein, 2011; Ehrhart et al., 2012; Allen D.G. et al., 2013). According to the signaling theory (Spence, 1973), the information provided on websites about the job and the organization may be used as informative signals by prospective applicants in determining their fit and attraction to the position (Gregory et al., 2013). The most basic requirement of successful OR is the information design and content provided by employers. This is an important matter because the information given by employers would influence job applicants in the initial stage of job application (Moghaddam et al., 2015), so that OR would help to assess and fit the best job applicants in organizations due to the fact that jobseekers are able to gather more and relevant information about companies (Chang and Chin, 2018). Considering the above, in our study, we focused the attention on the information.

A comparative study between the best place to work and charities was performed, focusing the attention and quantifying the web section devoted to careers and concrete information related to goods practices affecting the workers well-being. We used the qualitative method and the content analysis for collecting data from the corporate websites in a deductive approach. Initially, the Uniform Resource Locators for the 100 Best Place to Work and 100 charities corporate websites were identified. Researchers checked if websites had a recruiting web and explored whether they published the benefits to employees. Given that 97 organizations were not providing information related to our research purpose, they were removed from the study. Once the 103 sites to be deeply analyzed were identified, a three-step coding process was followed.

First, and according to the previous literature review, the measures that favor physical well-being in the workplace were fitness and massages, cafeterias, and transport (ELP, CP, and ETP, respectively). The measures that favor the psychological well-being of the employees were EAP, recognition programs, and referral programs (denoted as EAP, ERP, and ERFP, respectively). Later, the initial four websites from the list were coded independently by each of the four coders exploring the measures directed to the physical and psychological well-being. Given the number of websites, the variety of types of organization as goals and sectors, and the need to ensure reliability between coders, this step was done as a training that would ensure that all of the authors followed a similar procedure and would filter possible misunderstandings. In this step, coders met to compare their coding and discuss when there were coding differences. Once total agreement was achieved between coders, the agreed coding was used for the rest of the websites. As the last step for coding, the best and the charities websites were randomly divided between the coders. Data were collected in the form of individual actions related to well-being, in which the emphasis was placed on an in-depth understanding and description of the actions found and not only on determining frequencies.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data gathered served for a twofold purpose. First, it is a descriptive analysis to characterize both groups, best and charities, in relation to well-being practices to attract talent in their websites. Second, data served to create a weighted index

for benchmarking purposes, using as weights the Millennials' well-being preferences at work.

The description of the areas that were coded and examples of what counted in each category is shown in **Table 1**. Additional examples for a better comprehension are provided in **Annex 1**.

Descriptive statistics and mean difference test are reported in **Table 2**. Overall, the present sample is only ~50% of the initial sample of 200 organizations. Concretely, only 44% of charities and 59% of companies had information on their webpages related to work well-being as a tool for attracting and retaining talent. The difference between means for the groups charities–best was significant for three aspects of well-being (ELP = 2.316, $p < 0.001$; CP = 2.06, $p < 0.001$; ETP = 3.135, $p < 0.001$). Organizations considered the best place to work showed higher means for ELP and CP. On the contrary, ETP showed higher mean in charities.

Given the different aspects included in well-being programs, and the fact that not all of them will be equally appreciated for job seekers, a weighted index was created in order to compare the organizations:

$$Index = \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_i x V_i$$

where B_i is the benefit offered, and V_i is the weight provided by jobseekers. In our study, we considered Millennials, the cohort with birth years ranging from the early 1980s to 2003, as the emerging work force at the moment (Payment, 2008; Sandeen, 2008). In fact, the first Millennial college graduates entered the workforce around 2004, and they will continue entering the labor market until 2022 (Hershatter and Epstein, 2010). Their distinctive relationship with technology has been recognized,

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TABLE 1 | Coding physical and psychological well-being.

Area/Code	Description	Example best	Example charities
Education and lifestyle (ELP)	Company assistance with expenses related to improving and maintaining employees' state of physical fitness	Genentech. Fitness: employees have access to B34, also known as the "Hub," our free, on-campus fitness center. Genentech employees at other locations can be reimbursed for individual membership at local health clubs	Population Services International: Love rock climbing? Or yoga? PSI will reimburse you for health and fitness expenses so you can get out and be active
Cafeteria (CP)	Assistance in the form of a smaller or larger amount or provision by the company of the cafeteria service (beverages and/or food) for employees	Salesforce. Enjoy bottomless gourmet snacks and beverages in the employee social lounges on every floor	Mayo Clinic: You can also choose from a broad variety of other benefits for Mayo Clinic employees including: Employee Cafeterias
Transport (ETP)	Assistance in the form of a smaller or larger amount or provision by the company of the transport service (commute and/or parking) for employees	Quicken Loans Parking and Transportation Keep your car safe and secure with free parking and convenient shuttle services	Mercy Corps contributes to an annual pass on public transportation. Bike storage, lockers and showers at Portland Headquarters
Assistance (EAP)	Instruments which organizations provide for their employees to deal with complicated work and family situations which have a negative impact on their quality of life	Texas Health Resources Wellness Employee Assistance Program: All employees can utilize our voluntary, confidential program. You and your dependents have access to unlimited telephone counseling and up to six face-to-face visits with a counselor per issue, per year	World Wildlife Fund Employee Assistance Program: Provides confidential short-term counseling services for employees and their families in a variety of areas including stress management; legal or financial issues; alcohol and drug abuse; and information on elder care, family, and education resources
Recognition (ERP)	Programs designed for the organization to explicitly show interest in and appreciation for good workers	Navy Federal Credit Union Recognizing Excellence We are proud to acknowledge our employees for their contributions to our organization by including award for: Superior performance Years of service Contributions on projects of impact Generating new ideas to improve our organization	JDRF International Values our staff members. That is why we offer competitive salaries and generous benefits. Include generous paid time off, (...) and recognition and tenure programs
Referrals (ERFP)	Programs designed for the organization to positively value employees who have suggested candidates to cover openings in the company who have subsequently turned out to be suitable for the post	Camden Property Trust. Employee Referral Program. Camden appreciates employees who do a great job referring people who share our values and commitment to be the best. As a thank you, employees are eligible for a referral bonus after the new hire's first 6 months with Camden	Feeding America staff have the opportunity to help bring new talent into vacancies through our employee referral program. Successful referrals result in a taxable bonus

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TABLE 2 | Descriptive results.

	Charities			Best			Mean difference test		Total		
	Sum (N = 44)	Mean (standard error) (N = 44)	%	Sum (N = 59)	Mean (standard error) (N = 59)	%	Mean difference	t value (p)	Sum (N = 103)	Mean (standard error) (N = 103)	%
ELP	12	**0.27 (0.451)**	27	29	**0.49 (0.504)**	49	0.219	**2.316* (0.000)**	41	0.40 (0.492)	40
CP	3	**0.07 (0.255)**	7	12	**0.20 (0.406)**	20	0.135	**2.06* (0.000)**	15	0.15 (0.354)	15
ETP	19	**0.43 (0.501)**	43	9	**0.15 (0.363)**	15	−0.279	**3.135* (0.000)**	28	0.27 (0.447)	27
EAP	19	**0.43 (0.501)**	43	25	**0.42 (0.498)**	42	−0.008	−0.08 (0.872)	44	0.43 (0.497)	43
ERP	4	**0.09 (0.291)**	9	10	**0.17 (0.378)**	17	0.079	1.192 (0.019)	14	0.14 (0.344)	14
ERFP	3	**0.07 (0.255)**	7	3	**0.05 (0.222)**	5	−0.017	−0.361 (0.463)	6	0.06 (0.235)	6
N valid		44			59					103	

Values in bold show significant difference.

and, consequently, it is relevant for the purpose of this study to know their preferences regarding well-being programs as potential jobseekers online.

To calculate the index, we developed an *ad hoc* self-administered questionnaire in Google Forms for a convenience sample of Millennials conformed by finalist students at the university to which the authors of this study belong. The questionnaire distributed to students included the six factors considered in this study – ELP, CP, ETP, EAP, ERP, and ERFP – with a simple explanation and several examples for guaranteeing the student's comprehension. A 5-point Likert scale of importance was used, where 1 was "not very important for me" and 5 was "very important for me" when choosing my future job. The sample was selected considering the finalist students closest to their first job seek. To ensure diversity in profiles and the non-existence of biases in the convenience sample, previously, we instructed the participant students about well-being at work, explaining also the meaning of different kinds of benefits.

A total of 131 finalist completed the survey. The average age of the participants was 20 years, 42% men and 58% women. Once data were collected and analyzed, for an easier interpretation, the index was standardized (ZIndex). Thus, a score of 0 would indicate that the organization is in the average, the positive values would indicate a level of well-being better than the average, and negative values would indicate that these companies are below the standard. Finally, the ranking of organizations that have achieved a better score in the index is shown in **Table 3**.

The findings of the study showed that the organizations of the sample, although they are considered top organizations – the largest charities and the best places to work for – still reported moderate levels of work well-being information in their webpages. Given the importance of well-being in OR for attracting talent, this aspect should be improved in both groups.

Related to the different programs to promote well-being at work, statistically significant differences exclusively occur in tools related to physical well-being and not in programs devoted to psychological well-being. It should be noted that both the promotion of physical activity and coffee shops (ELP and CP, respectively) have a significantly higher use in the Best than in the Charities group. However, the tools to facilitate commute,

travel, or provision by the organization of the transport service to employees (ETP) is significantly better considered in Charities. Some interesting examples come from the Best group, such as an innovative travel solution for breastfeeding moms at SAP America INC: "Milkstork is a breast milk delivery service for business traveling moms. Nursing moms can use overnight express shipping or easy toting of breast milk home to baby when they are on the road."

The results also show that the position of each one in their respective rankings, Best or Charity, is not related to being champion in promoting well-being at work in their websites. According to the performed content analysis, and the subsequent

TABLE 3 | Top 10 index well-being ranking.

Group*	Position in the original rank	Organization	ZIndex	Category
1	64	World Wildlife Fund	2.3267	Environment/Animal
0	41	Scripps Health	2.0956	Health care
1	14	Goodwill Industries International	2.0648	Domestic needs
1	61	Combined Jewish Philanthropies	2.0648	Domestic needs
1	73	JDRF International	1.5581	Health care
0	36	David Weekley Homes	1.3903	Construction
0	42	Navy Federal Credit Union	1.3903	Financial services
1	44	Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center	1.3595	Health care
1	80	Smithsonian Institution	1.3595	Travel & leisure
0	50	Burns & Mcdonnell	1.3595	Professional services

, charities; 0, best companies to work for.

FIGURE 1 | Charities over and below average Zindex.
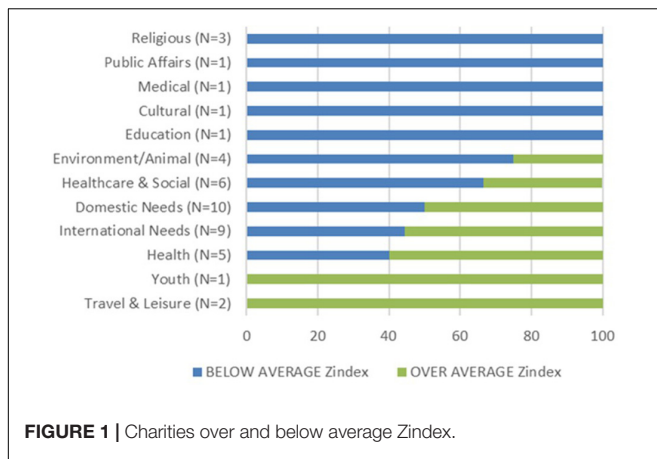
Millennials' opinion, undoubtedly, the winner of the ranking was WWF, which was placed over the average, in number 64, in the charities list. It is also remarkable that a charity is on the top, ahead of for-profit companies, considered the best places to work for. This reflects the potential of any non-profit organization in attracting talent through OR by disseminating well-being at work online. Statements such as, "At WWF, we work every day to make sure our world is and will continue to be a healthy and positive place to live in" or "We see the workplace as one small part of that greater world, and so it's very important to us that our work environment is equally healthy and positive," are good examples for attracting talent online, by showing their employee well-being orientation in the webpage. Even the support that WWF gives to its employees goes ahead their work life, as it is shown in this last statement, "We strive to give our employees the kinds of benefits they need to support them in their work and home lives."

Considering most preferred well-being programs, our ranking shows in which sectors charities were stronger: health, social, and domestic needs. However, and considering that the analyzed charities belong to 12 different sectors, **Figure 1** shows how the representation of five of them was totally below the average. We want to highlight that the religious sector was one of them. Only two sectors were located totally over the average: youth and travel and leisure. The case of the environment/animal sector is remarkable, where only one organization is above the average in the index: the WWF, which is also the organization that, from all the analyzed organizations (whether charities or not), achieved the best positioning.

CONCLUSION

Given the lack of research on HRM on the voluntary sector, this study sheds light on what could be learned by charities from the best in managing talent in the for-profit sector. We have done so by observing what they were reporting on their webpages, with special attention to the well-being practices whereby organizations become employers of choice. Despite the voluntary organizations' adoption of technology and social media, the research shows that their networking site purposes and HRM efforts are still not directed toward OR.

According to the results obtained in comparing best places to work and charities, we can say that the best places to work are the most advanced in the topic under study considering the number of organizations showing well-being programs as part of their OR strategy. No clear differences have been found between the two groups with regard to psychological well-being programs among employees, but charities must improve with regard physical well-being. Although ETP is better considered in charities, ELP, and CP are more developed in the best places to work. Charities could reinforce these programs because they can give opportunities for growth on the job, allowing employees capabilities development and their growth as people (McCauley and Wakefield, 2006). We can appreciate the role that coffee shops play to make the employee life easier, facilitating both their reconciliation with personal life and their socialization within the company.

The employee referral programs is still underused in both groups and must be reinforce. The ERFP programs, when fair, competitive, equitable, and recognize the value of employee contributions, make the organization more attractive. The ERFP that can allow charities having meaningful social interactions and form strong networks at the workplace that last beyond the current place of employment also makes for a more attractive organization (Powell, 2009).

One charity has revealed as well-being champion in the study; it was WWF. Charities must reinforce their websites to attract talent as part of their OR strategies, and benchmarking efforts could be helpful in increasing the charities' attractiveness in the labor market in the near future. It will be essential, in the OR process of charities, to understand the relevance of their web content because that will affect the intentions of potential applicants. Thus, assuming that the best employees want to work for the best organizations, charities needed an excellent employer image and reputation to be successful in the war of talent, which is not possible without being recognized for delivering quality services, behaving ethically, and doing a good HRM (Edwards, 2009). In this sense, in line with Pandita and Ray (2018), we have shown that well-being at work is a good point to make charity more appealing for Millennial jobseekers online.

To conclude, this work contributes to the academic literature on the future of work on voluntary sector in different ways. First, our findings are consistent with the research defending the role of OR in the war for talent (Ashton and Morton, 2005; Manyika et al., 2015; Bostjancic and Slana, 2018) and those suggesting the need for professionalization of HRM to increase efficiency (Nickson et al., 2008; Ridder et al., 2012). Our second contribution is for practitioners because some practical implications emerge from the study. Our findings can be used by researchers and HR managers in charities or external professional services providing support to them to attract and retain the best human capital in the near future. Benchmarking efforts can be helpful to increase the charities' attractiveness in the labor market starting from examining the work conditions of workers in non-lucrative organizations and designing improvement programs following the example of the well-being champions.

Acknowledging internet and webpages as a major communications medium welcomed by content analysis

researchers (Weare and Lin, 2000), the present study has some limitations. Reliability and validity of any content analytic research must be born in mind because the study is cross-sectional, based on secondary information self-reported by the organizations of the sample in their webpages. Complementing well-being at work as a strategic issue for charities, we highlight the need to study work-life balance programs to help charities to attract and retain talent (Cappelli, 2000; Hill et al., 2008; Allen T.D. et al., 2013). The findings of the present study can be extended to future comparative analyses in other non-profit organizations. In addition, other HRM practices are susceptible to be explored for OR purposes apart from the well-being such as, for instance, work–life balance programs.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

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ETHICS STATEMENT

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors listed have made a substantial, direct, and intellectual contribution to the work and approved it for publication.

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Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

ANNEX 1 | Quotations about physical and psychological well-being.

Education and lifestyle (ELP)

- Salesforce (Best): "Relax your way with stress relief via our meditation rooms"
- UJA/Federation of New York (Charity): "(. . .) and for a small cost you can take part in on-site yoga and exercise classes at our Manhattan office. Wellness matters to us"

Cafeteria (CP)

- Quicken Loans (Best): "We want you to be happy, and being happy means being well-fed (in our opinion). Enjoy free cappuccinos, slushies, popcorn, and other tasty titbits all day every day in all locations"
- Task Force for Global Health (Charity): "All Task Force employees are Emory University employees which includes a competitive benefits package: (. . .) provides our employees access to restaurants, coffee shops (. . .) within walking distance of our campus"

Transport (ETP)

- Genentech (Best): "gRide, Genentech's employee transportation program, helps you get to and from work stress-free. Save time and money while supporting the environment"
- Smithsonian Institution (Charity): Pretax Commuter Benefit Program/Transit Subsidy Program: "The Smithsonian Transit Subsidy Program provides up to the current maximum per month for mass transit costs incurred while commuting to and from an employee's work duty station. The Pretax Parking Program allows employees to use Pretax dollars to pay for eligible parking expenses while at work. The Commuter Bicycle Reimbursement Program provides employees with reimbursement for reasonable expenses incurred for the purchase of a bicycle or bicycle maintenance, repair, and storage if the bicycle is regularly used for travel between the employee's home and place of employment"

Assistance (EAP)

- Capital One Financial Corporation (Best): "Capital One's Employee Assistance Program offers face-to-face or telephone counseling and provider referrals. The program also provides information and services for a wide range of needs, such as moving, coping with change or even finding a pet sitter"
- Feeding America (Charity): "Feeding America has counseling professionals available to assist employees and their families with work and life issues. The program is designed to provide immediate confidential counseling services and referrals when necessary"

Recognition (ERP)

- Camden Property Trust (Best): "An Apartment Community Excellence (ACE) cares about costumers and colleagues so much they go beyond simply doing the right thing. We love celebrating people like that. Employees who exemplify Camden's values are honored at the annual ACE Awards banquet, hosted by CEO wearing a Camden maintenance shirt to show his appreciation for frontline employees"
- Compassion International (Charity): Performance and recognition program "We actively support and intentionally recognize the achievements of our team." Milestone Recognition, Objective Development and Monitoring. Anniversary travel options:

    –5 years: Central America and the Caribbean

    –10 years: South America

    –15 years: Africa

    –20 years: Asia

Referrals (ERFP)

- Baird (Best): "Additional Benefits: (. . .) Employee Referral Bonus"
- Combined Jewish Philanthropies (Charity): "Other Benefits: (. . .) $500 employee referral bonus"

Benefits of Older Volunteering on Wellbeing: An International Comparison

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Healthier aging implies lower health service expenditure and the possibility for individuals to make a longer and more valuable contribution to society. Lifestyles, including volunteering, affect our health. The policy implications of the present study are that it aims to broaden the state of knowledge and be useful to public decision-makers: if voluntary activities enhance the integration of older people into society, their participation will help to generate economic resources and improve their own welfare; if, however, health and participation do not show positive synergies, then policymakers must act independently in each of these fields. In this work, we focus on the societies of Chile, Mexico, and Spain because they have significantly aging populations and share common traits but also exhibit important differences. The empirical study employs micro-data from the World Value Survey (1994–1998, 2005–2009, and 2010–2014) and macro-data from the statistics of the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development). Micro- and macro-data are merged by national and temporal identifiers. Our main results provide empirical evidence that volunteering might improve every indicator of wellbeing except happiness. Different kinds of activities have different impacts on individual wellbeing. For example, volunteering in activities related to social awareness is positive for male life satisfaction, whereas volunteering in activities related to religious issues is positive for male life satisfaction but also female happiness. In general, voluntary activities have a stronger impact on male wellbeing than female wellbeing.

Keywords: volunteering, non-profit organizations, aging, lifestyles, wellbeing, health

INTRODUCTION

One of our major public health challenges is to achieve healthy aging: if the necessary measures are not taken, the reversal of the population pyramid will have a huge impact on the economic, social development, and healthcare systems (WHO, 2012). Quality of life depends on multiple factors such as access to and use of education and health services, biological processes, and environmental impact but also on individual behaviors and socioeconomic characteristics (Urzúa et al., 2011; Salvador-Carulla et al., 2014). It is necessary to promote health throughout the lifecycle so that people may enjoy the best possible wellbeing in old age (Pinquart and Sörensen, 2000; Brett et al., 2012).

Lifestyles that include physical inactivity, a high-fat diet, or tobacco and alcohol consumption have frequently been studied by the scientific community as behaviors that influence the state of health in older adults (Vagetti et al., 2015). It seems that retired and senior volunteers are more protected from the hazards of retirement, physical decline, and inactivity than people of the same age who do not perform volunteer work (Fischer and Schaffer, 1993; Wilson and Musick, 1999). The main aim of this paper is to study the social determinants of the wellbeing of older adults, with particular emphasis on volunteering. The study of the link between volunteering and subjective wellbeing is not new, but only a few studies have covered a broader range of such activities performed specifically by older adults (Ferring and Boll, 2010). In addition, while the positive correlation between volunteering and wellbeing is widely documented, there are many unanswered questions concerning omitted variables, bias, self-selection, and reverse causality (Stukas et al., 2016).

The main contribution of this article is to provide an international analysis of the correlations of three indicators of wellbeing with four categories of voluntarism. We repeat estimations by sub-samples of men and women in order to account for gender differences.

Existing research has typically adopted a global measure of volunteering without differentiating between different volunteering activities (Cheng and Chan, 2018). It is important to control for different types of voluntary activities, because, for example, other-oriented volunteers may experience greater benefits to their health, as they get higher satisfaction from the volunteering than self-oriented volunteers (Stukas et al., 2016). In our analysis, as well as the variable that informs us whether the individual is a volunteer, other variables examine voluntary activities classified as religious, social awareness, professional and political, and/or education and leisure. Whereas the first two types of volunteering might have intrinsic motivations, the last two might be characterized by extrinsic motivations (Sardinha, 2010).

Regarding wellbeing, we have measured older adults' wellbeing with self-reported values of health, happiness, and life satisfaction. Life satisfaction and happiness are not only important indicators of wellbeing; they also have a strong effect on an individual's self-reported state of health (Ruiz-Aranda et al., 2014). Nevertheless, we consider it pertinent to include three indicators of wellbeing because volunteering might determine each wellbeing domain in a different way (Binder, 2015). For instance, being a volunteer in social awareness activities might have a positive impact on life satisfaction but a negative effect on happiness. Lastly, complementing traditional objective indicators of quality of life (such as economic indicators) with indicators of subjective wellbeing (thus, people's evaluations and feelings about their lives) will provide policymakers with more relevant information for political decision-making and public program evaluation (Diener et al., 2008).

Concerning the international dimension, this article focuses on Chile, Mexico, and Spain for two main reasons:

(i) Spanish society and Latin American societies are aging rapidly, and elderly people are an important population group. Spain and Chile are in an advanced state of aging, with a natural population growth[1] of 0.1 and 0.9%, respectively (the rate of natural population growth is the birth rate minus the death rate, expressed as a percentage). Mexico is also in a full aging stage with a rate of 1.4% (Population Reference Bureau, 2014). In this context, welfare systems have to support a larger population that does not financially contribute, or at least its contributions are not valued in the national accounts. Although unpaid voluntary work is often ignored in national accounts, the economic contribution of volunteers is important, and it is therefore necessary to quantify it and make it visible.

(ii) In addition to the common impact of globalization, Spain and Latin American countries share similarities (for example, their health care systems and cultural backgrounds) that facilitate comparison. A recent study based on the healthcare costs and inflation (among other indices) of 51 countries put the healthcare systems of Mexico, Spain, and Chile in 12th, 14th, and 17th positions, respectively (Bloomberg, 2014). Life expectancy is higher in Spain (82 years) than in Chile (79 years) and Mexico (77 years), but it is increasing in Chile and Mexico and falling in Spain. The percentage of the GDP allocated to healthcare is similar in the three countries; the nominal value is much greater in Spain ($2.808) than in Chile ($1.103) and Mexico ($618).

In the last 15 years, both Chile and Mexico have invested in public healthcare in order to cover a greater section of the population. Chilean healthcare is close to universal, although health indicators still vary greatly across socioeconomic groups, reflecting economic inequality (Bunout et al., 2012). Low-income populations are mainly covered by the public sector, while high-income populations generally turn to the private sector (Vargas and Poblete, 2008; Missoni and Solimano, 2010). In Mexico, there has been a major legislative reform that is increasing healthcare funding by 1% of the 2003 gross domestic product over 7 years to provide universal health insurance. Results indicate significant progress in public healthcare (Frenk et al., 2009). In this context, the quality of life of older adults is becoming a new research topic in relation to healthy and active aging (Wong et al., 2010).

In contrast, after suffering a severe economic crisis, the Spanish government has made severecuts to its social and healthcare services: universal health coverage has ended, and changes have been made to health insurance, benefits, and funding (Gallo and Gené-Badía, 2013).

This article does not aim to be a cross-cultural study where the main point is to address cultural differences (Ilesanmi, 2009), though we do expect to identify national differences and similarities. Given that sub-samples by country might differ at the individual level (micro-data: surveys) but also in information from primary sources (macro-data: economic indicators), the policy implications of our results will benefit from the introduction of national economic statistics on public expenditures and average wages.

In this situation, we carry out research on older adults with two dimensions: on the one hand, an analysis of the socioeconomic

determinants of volunteering, and on the other, a study of the link between wellbeing and volunteering activities. Gender and cultural differences are expected, because, in spite of sharing common backgrounds, Mexico, Chile, and Spain have different socioeconomic contexts.

Literature Review

Subjective wellbeing refers to an evaluation of an individual's life from their own perspective, which contrasts with evaluations made from the point of view of external observers (including researchers and policymakers), which are based on objective criteria (Ferring and Boll, 2010). Even if we only focus on subjective wellbeing, it can be assessed with measures of distinct concepts such as satisfaction with life, happiness, quality of life, and life fulfillment (Bartels and Boomsma, 2009). In addition, not only is how to conceptualize subjective wellbeing a key issue for health researchers but so also is how to introduce it into empirical strategies. The literature regarding subjective wellbeing treats it as an effect, as the result of personal and environmental variables, but also as a predictor, mediator, and moderator of other outcomes (Ferring and Boll, 2010).

In this article, we relate the wellbeing of senior volunteers with their volunteering. Voluntary work provides a wide range of benefits to the volunteer but also to the social group, community, and society where this behavior takes place. It has been shown that the volunteers themselves can share in the positive effects of their actions (Taylor, 2004; Ronel, 2006; Amendola et al., 2011; Binder and Freytag, 2013). Given the positive influence of civil and community associational activities, policy-makers should promote the development and consolidation of high levels of social capital (Sabatini, 2008). The design of strategies to encourage volunteering among older people requires prior knowledge of the characteristics of the older population. Volunteering needs to be perceived as an altruistic activity that also benefits the volunteers (Fiorillo and Sabatini, 2011). There is empirical evidence that retired and senior volunteering has a positive effect on all the stakeholders: the voluntary organizations (NGOs), the people they serve, and the volunteers (Mannino et al., 2011).

Studies have shown that volunteers report a better state of health and wellbeing than non-volunteers (Stephan, 1991; Moen et al., 1992; Sabin, 1993; Rogers, 1996; Musick et al., 1999; Oman et al., 1999; Borgonovi, 2008) and that they even have a longer life expectancy (Harlow and Cantor, 1996; Okun et al., 2010; Burr et al., 2011; Fothergill et al., 2011). Recent research suggests that participating in volunteer activities during leisure time positively reinforces health and happiness (Post, 2005; Guven, 2011; Harvey, 2011). A longitudinal study for retired men and women revealed that the frequency of volunteering, as well as future intentions to perform such activities, predicted higher positive affect in the feeling of ability (Pushkar et al., 2010). One of the scarce studies with panel data found positive evidence for the moderating influence of volunteering on the relationship between negative self-esteem and wellbeing (Russell et al., 2019). The results of these articles suggest that volunteering might act as a safeguard for seniors.

Nevertheless, older people vary greatly in their health, financial resources, and social networks and should not be seen as a homogenous group. Senior volunteers should only contribute in the way in which they feel comfortable, and no expectations beyond their capabilities should be placed on them by organizations (Stephens et al., 2015). Under this premise, even for older adults with multiple chronic diseases, participating in volunteer activities seems to improve their self-reported state of health (Barron et al., 2009).

The intrinsic motivations for volunteering are usually taken as a starting point for identifying volunteer profiles. The motivation to the volunteer may be relevant for inferring individual characteristics that encourage specific behaviors. Some personality traits (for example, extraversion) influence volunteering decisions and life satisfaction (Cocca-Bates and Neal- Boylan, 2011; Kwok et al., 2013). Motivations are social constructs with important gender differences. Women score higher on traits, motivations, and values that predict informal help-care (family and friends). Men have more resources (income, education, and social capital), which compensates for their lower level of motivation. Therefore, gender gaps in the institutional helping behaviors of volunteering and charitable giving are small (Einolf, 2011).

Among other factors, the sense of belonging to a wider community plays a key role in older adults' decisions on volunteering (Sarason, 1986; Pozzi et al., 2014). Retired and senior volunteering could be highly beneficial for societies with an aging population; participating in voluntary activities can empower older people, mitigating the difficulties of retirement, physical decline, and inactivity. Older adult volunteering can prevent social isolation (a major risk factor for mortality among the elderly) and help maintain and even improve mental health (House et al., 1988; Ahern and Hendryx, 2008; Chen, 2013).

The majority of retired and senior volunteers participate because they have been asked, although a minority actively seeks voluntary opportunities (Chen and Morrow-Howell, 2015). Seniors moving into retirement choose volunteering as a way to participate in meaningful activities while maintaining their personal beliefs and social ties. Change predisposition and self-transcendence are values that could be involved in this behavior by elders (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). However, the factors that influence how seniors choose to volunteer in a community are not well understood. Undoubtedly, knowing the determinants of volunteering involvement will help the recruitment of senior volunteers (Heist et al., 2019).

Social relationships are important, but when analyzing their instrumental value, it is essential to determine whether such relationships are perceived as 'satisfactory' or not. Processes and networks of mutual assistance, dissemination of information relating to health, and promotion of healthy behaviors only develop in contexts of high-quality relationships (Fiorillo and Sabatini, 2011). For example, different types of volunteering activities require different volunteer profiles. Volunteering in a professional organization is not the same as in a religious group (Gil-Lacruz and Marcuello, 2013). Understanding the different kinds of voluntary activities might be especially relevant when analyzing the impact of volunteering on older adults' wellbeing.

Wellbeing is profoundly affected by who we are and where we live (Doyal, 2000). We have to take the issue of health diversity very seriously (Wei et al., 2006), especially when advocating effective international policies on equity and human rights. The impact of social relationships and support networks on wellbeing depends on a variety of demographic and environmental factors such as age, employment, residence (urban or rural), and genetic resilience (Moss, 2002). Volunteering is associated with a social gradient, with disadvantaged groups less likely to volunteer. Given the potential benefits of volunteering for all stakeholders, volunteering should be considered as a public health strategy to tackle social exclusion and health inequalities (South et al., 2016).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The World Values Survey (WVS; World Values Survey Association, 2017) is a powerful resource for the study of the socioeconomic determinants of wellbeing. At this time, there are seven available waves, but, for this study, we used three: for the periods 1994–1998, 2005–2009, and 2010–2014. The main reason why we limited the empirical analysis to these three waves was to ensure that the questions included in the questionnaires were comparable over time: the three aforementioned waves contain data for Chile, Mexico, and Spain. This research is based on older adults from 61 to 80 years old. Our sample is composed of 1,699 observations, of which 24% correspond to Chile (798), 48% to Mexico (901), and the remaining 28% to Spain (476).

The macro variables have been taken from OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) health statistics. We have taken into account national wage rates and public expenditure on health, old age, and other similar issues. International comparisons are facilitated by measuring the variables in per capita terms, adjusted to purchasing power parity, and given in US dollars.

The data used for this research was obtained from public databases available on the internet[1] and from pre-existing publications[2].

Measures

We have included the following explanatory variables: sex (*Men* and *Women*), age in four groups (*Age: 61–65*, *Age: 66–70*, *Age: 71–75*, and *Age: 76–80*), marital status (*Married*, *Single*, *Divorced*, and *Widow/Widower*), labor situation (*Retired*, *Housewife*, *Unemployed*, and *Working*), highest educational level achieved (*Primary Studies*: typically the first stage of formal education, coming after preschool and before secondary education, *Secondary Studies*: considered the second and final phase of basic education and is the stage before tertiary education, and *Tertiary Studies*: the educational level including universities as well as trade schools and colleges), number of children living in the same household (*Number of Children*), and level of income (*Low Income*: population tertile with the lowest income level in the corresponding country, *Middle Income*: population

tertile with the second-lowest income level, and *High Income*: population tertile with the highest income level).

Most empirical studies on the subjective wellbeing of older adults have relied on self-reports obtained in questionnaires or interviews (Ferring and Boll, 2010). As indicators of the wellbeing of older adults in these countries, we considered self-reported health, happiness, and life satisfaction on a scale of 1 (excellent) to 5 (very poor). We defined three dummy variables for the categories: '1' denotes that the individual has excellent or very good levels and '0' indicates otherwise.

Because most of these variables are dummy variables (1/0), their means as percentages (multiplying by 100) give us their corresponding participant distribution. For example, the mean of *GoodHealth* is 0.44, which means that 44% of the participants reported good health. **Table 1** shows that the total sample is equally distributed between men (47%) and women (53%), with small national variations for the percentage of women in Chile (57%), Mexico (49%), and Spain (55%). There is an over-representation of the younger cohorts (from 61 to 65 years old), and this is more significant in Chile (37%) and Mexico (44%). The majority of the senior citizens are married (65%), and this is especially true in Spain (73%). There are more widows and widowers in Chile (30%). There are many more men (66%) who are retired than women (36%), and more Spaniards (67%) are retired than Chileans (51%) or Mexicans (29%). There are more male seniors (25%) working than female seniors (9%), and older Chileans (23%) and Mexicans (29%) are working than Spaniards (8%). Not surprisingly, many more women (53%) are homemakers than men (1%). Most of the retired and senior citizens have primary studies or no studies at all (78%); Chileans (64%) and Mexicans (71%) have better levels of education than Spaniards (88%). Income levels by tertiles are provided by the WVS. Taking into account that our observations correspond to a sub-sample of the whole data, older adults reported worse economic conditions than the general population: 52% of them reported low income, 43% middle income, and only 5% high income.

Figure 1 shows the levels of health, happiness, and life satisfaction of the older adults by country of residence. Only half of elderly Spaniards believe they have a good state of health, followed by Mexicans (44%) and Chileans (36%). Nevertheless, levels of happiness are high: the vast majority of older Mexicans (88%), Spaniards (85%), and Chileans (76%) say that they are happy or very happy. The biggest geographical gap was found with regards to life satisfaction: almost 90% of Mexicans give a very high value to their level of life satisfaction, but this figure is only 65% in Chile and 55% in Spain. Gender differences show that elderly women from Mexico and Spain report a worse state of health but a higher level of life satisfaction than men, but the reverse is true for the older adults in Chile.

The WVS includes data on voluntary participation in 11 different volunteering activities. Keeping all these categories would have implied considering 11 dummy variables, which would have prolonged the extension of the tables, with less powerful results (some categories have low participation rates). According to Sardinha (2010), the different types of volunteering activities included by the WVS can be distributed into four

[1] http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/wvs.jsp
[2] http://www.oecd.org/els/health-systems/health-data.htm

TABLE 1 | Variables (means by general category, gender, and country).

	World value survey					
	Total %	Women %	Men %	Chile %	Mexico %	Spain %
GoodHealth	44	40	49	36	44	53
Happiness	81	77	85	76	88	85
LifeSatisfaction	63	59	67	65	87	55
UnpaidWork	40	42	39	41	61	22
UnpaidSocialAwareness	9	9	10	5	19	5
UnpaidProfessional	8	6	10	3	20	3
UnpaidEducationLeisure	10	7	13	8	15	7
UnpaidReligion	29	35	23	34	45	12
Men	47	–	100	43	51	45
Women	53	100	–	57	49	55
Age: 61–65	36	36	36	37	44	35
Age: 66–70	31	30	31	33	28	29
Age: 71–75	20	19	22	18	21	20
Age: 76–80	13	15	11	12	7	16
Married	65	54	77	56	61	73
Single	6	7	4	7	6	5
Divorced	5	6	4	7	9	3
Widow/widower	24	33	15	30	24	19
Retired	52	36	66	51	29	67
Housewife	28	53	1	26	29	24
Unemployed	4	2	8	1	13	2
Working	16	9	25	23	29	8
Primary Studies	78	81	75	64	71	88
Secondary Studies	16	15	17	30	18	8
Tertiary Studies	6	4	8	6	11	3
Number of Children	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.3	4.6	2.6
Low Income	52	54	49	44	59	50
Middle Income	43	42	45	50	30	48
High Income	5	4	6	6	11	2
Number of observations:	1,699	901	798	408	815	476

	OECD health data		
	Chile	Mexico	Spain
Public Health Expenditure	434	360	1,596
Public Old Age Expenditure	495	163	2,110
Other Public Expenditure	556	416	2,473
National Wage	15,347	13,168	26,648

We have also included Regional Dummy Variables (Spain, Mexico, and Chile) and Time Dummy Variables (Wave: 1994–1998, Wave: 2005–2009, and Wave: 2010– 2014). Data from the corresponding National Surveys, Years: Chile (1996, 2006, and 2011), Mexico (1995/96, 2005, and 2012), and Spain (1995, 2007, and 2011).

categories: (1) Social awareness: activities related to human rights or environmental and animal conservation; (2) Professional and Political: activities related to trade unions, political parties, and professional associations; (3) Education and Leisure: activities related to education, culture, youth work, sports, or leisure; (4) Religion: activities in churches or religious organizations. The rewards of volunteering depend on the volunteers' motivation, which might be basically classified as intrinsic motivation and

FIGURE 1 | Health and wellbeing indicators (Wave: 2010–2014).

extrinsic motivation (Meier and Stutzer, 2004). Volunteering in the fields of social awareness and religion might be motivated by a desire to help others (intrinsic); the motivation for volunteering in professional and leisure activities might be more personal, involving self-interest (extrinsic). **Figure 2** shows participation rates of different volunteering activities by gender in the sample.

Retired and senior Mexicans are the most likely to volunteer (61%), followed by Chileans (41%) and Spaniards (22%). The most common category area for voluntary work is religion, followed by professional and political activities, social awareness activities, and education and leisure activities. Mexicans report the highest rates for volunteering in the different categories. Older women are

FIGURE 2 | Volunteers: general percentage and by categories (Wave: 2010–2014).
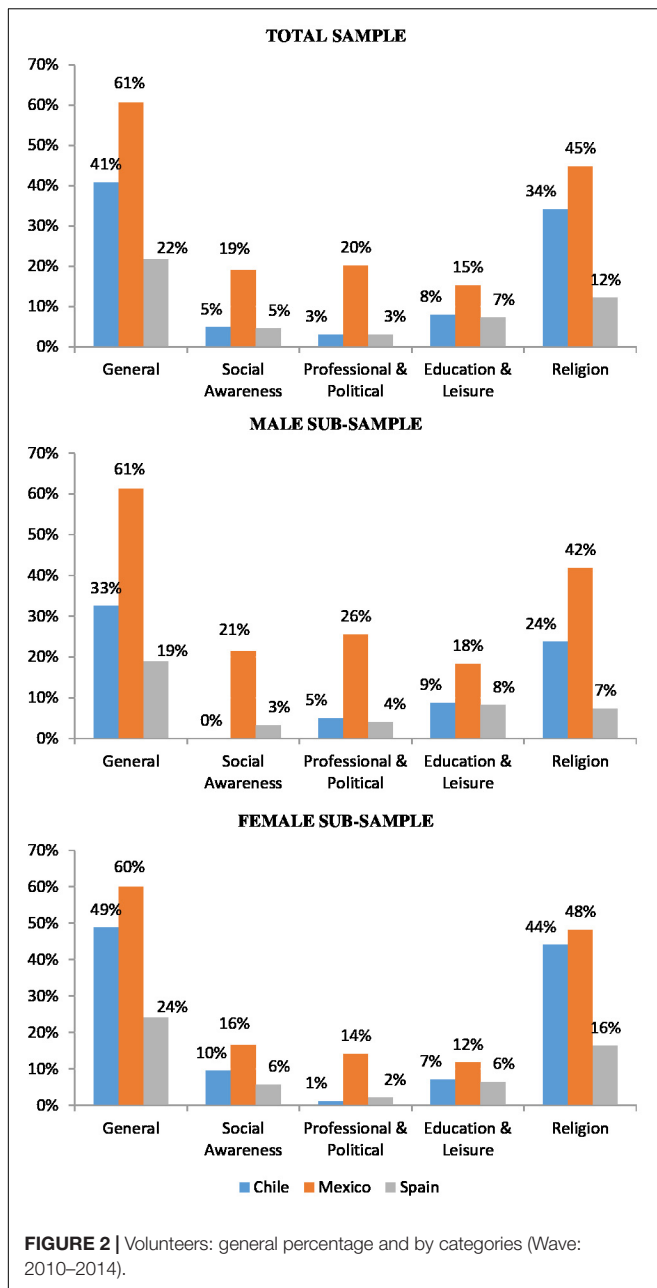
more likely to volunteer in activities related to religion, whilst older men are more likely to volunteer in activities related to education and leisure and on professional and political issues.

Procedure

As the main aim of this study was to analyze the determinants of the wellbeing of retired and older adults, we used an empirical framework that estimated qualitative dependent variables (1: yes; 0: otherwise). Estimation techniques depend on the nature of the data used (cross-section) and the aims (estimated probabilities). We focused on Logit models, reporting results in terms of elasticities. Our empirical framework is similar

to that used in previous econometric studies that employ cross-sectional data to identify the causal effects of health behaviors (Gil-Lacruz et al., 2015; Estrada-Fernandez et al., 2017):

$$H_{ji} = V_{ji}\delta_j + X_{ji}\beta_j + M_{ji}\lambda_j + C_{ji}\alpha_j + u_{ji} \qquad (1)$$

H is the self-perceived indicator of wellbeing. V indicates whether the individual is involved in voluntary activity. X is a vector of sociodemographic characteristics (age, gender, civil status, number of children, employment, educative level, and economic status). M are macro variables (average national salary and public expenditure on health, old age, and other issues). Macro variables are introduced in Napierian logarithms. They are relevant due to the information they provide, and they also reduce unobserved heterogeneity caused by national backgrounds. The estimated parameters of geographical dummy variables are high in magnitude but not especially relevant in terms of statistical significance. After controlling for a relevant set of explanatory variables, we have not found a relevant country variation, even when implementing a multilevel analysis to check whether there is a hierarchical structure at the country level. C are contextual variables (country of residence and survey year), and u is an error term whose mean is equal to zero. The sub-index i identifies the interviewed individuals, and the sub-index j takes the value 1 for Good Health, 2 for Happiness, and 3 for Life Satisfaction.

We have considered three independent models: in Model 1, we did not include voluntary activity in order to evaluate the robustness of the parameters of the other explanatory variables; in Model 2, we considered voluntary activity in one category (*UnpaidWork*); in Model 3, we considered four types of voluntary activities (*UnpaidSocialAwareness*, *UnpaidProfessional*, *UnpaidEducationLeisure*, and *UnpaidReligion*).

We were aware of potential endogeneity problems and carried out the Schmith-Blundell exogeneity test; we found no empirical evidence of strong endogeneity problems. Given the fact that the magnitude of the estimated parameters of voluntary activities was not especially high and that the rest of the estimated parameters remained robust through the models, we decided to keep the empirical strategy as simple as possible.

Estimations were repeated by gender subsamples to check whether gender gaps were based on differences in the composition of explanatory variables or on diverse reactions to similar stimuli.

To analyze the social determinants of wellbeing among older adults, we focus on the following hypotheses:

> H1: There is a positive association between volunteering and wellbeing.

> H2: The association between volunteering and wellbeing depends on the type of volunteering activity.

> H3: Gender is an important explanatory factor. Besides, sub-samples of men and women help to understand gender differences on wellbeing, so gender gaps might be based on different individual characteristics (endowment effects) and/or on the different impacts of these characteristics (coefficient effects).

H4: Country dummy variables remain as important determinants for wellbeing after controlling for a wide set of variables.

RESULTS

This section is devoted to the determinants of three indicators of wellbeing (health, happiness, and life satisfaction). The numbers in parentheses represent the estimated coefficients of the elasticities. The term elasticity (dy/dx) refers to a measure of the dependent variable's sensitivity to a change in an explanatory variable. For the individual significance of parameters, we add stars to the estimated coefficients, thus, *** reflects a significance level of 1% (p-value $\leq$ 0.01), ** a significance of 5% (0.01 < p-value $\leq$ 0.05), and * a significance of 10% (0.05 < p-value $\leq$ 0.1). For global goodness of fit, we take into account the pseudo-R2, which summarizes the proportion of variance in the dependent variable associated with the explanatory variables (a larger pseudo-R^2 value indicates that more of the variation is explained by the model, to a maximum of 1) and estimated probabilities of dependent variables (the closer the estimated value is to the real, the better).

The results of Model 1 in **Table 2** reveal that women perceive their state of health (dy/dx: −0.078**) as worse than do men (variable of reference) and they are also less happy (dy/dx: −0.046*). People aged from 61 to 65 are less satisfied with life (dy/dx: −0.058*) than individuals aged from 66 to 70 years old (variable of reference). Being single (dy/dx: −0.123***), divorced (dy/dx: −0.168***), or a widow/widower (dy/dx: –0.114***) has a negative effect on the level of happiness versus being married (variable of reference); being divorced (dy/dx: −0.147***) or a widow/widower (dy/dx: −0.080***) has a negative effect on the level of life satisfaction. Older people that are unemployed (dy/dx: 0.141**) or working (dy/dx: 0.066*) perceive themselves as healthier than people that have retired (variable of reference). Higher levels of education are associated with better health (dy/dx: 0.122*** and 0.180*** for secondary studies and tertiary studies versus primary studies, which is the reference variable), greater happiness (dy/dx: 0.096*** and 0.119* for secondary studies and tertiary studies), and improved life satisfaction (dy/dx: 0.075** and 0.156** for secondary studies and tertiary studies). Higher levels of income are also associated with better health (dy/dx: 0.118*** and 0.197*** for middle income and high income versus low income, which is the reference variable), greater happiness (dy/dx: 0.092*** for middle income), and improved life satisfaction (dy/dx: 0.115*** for middle income).

Turning to the macro variables, a higher average national salary is associated with better levels of health (dy/dx: 0.674*) and life satisfaction (dy/dx: 1.124***). The degree of public expenditure on health does not have a positive impact on the indicators of wellbeing (dy/dx: −0.864* for good health and dy/dx: −0.898* for life satisfaction), but public expenditure on issues concerning old age increases levels of health (dy/dx: 0.182***) and happiness (dy/dx: 0.125***).

When controlled for socioeconomic determinants, Spaniards (the reference variable) are more likely to have a good state of health than Mexicans (dy/dx: −0.607*) or Chileans (dy/dx: −0.756**); however, Mexicans (dy/dx: 0.503**) are more likely to be happy than Spaniards. Levels of happiness (dy/dx: −0.274* for Wave: 2010–2014 versus Wave: 1994–1998, which is the reference variable) and life satisfaction (dy/dx: −0.350** and −0.390** for Wave: 2010–2014 and Wave: 2005–2009) become lower over time.

Model 2 and Model 3 included variables related to voluntary activities. Although both models share the explanatory variables of Model 1, their estimations were carried out independently. The estimated parameters of the socioeconomic determinants of Model 1 remained robust so, to avoid repeating the same results and to facilitate comparisons between Model 2 and Model 3, we present the most characteristic results of both models in a single table. The same comment is valid for **Tables 3**, **5**. Regarding the particular information in **Table 3**, being a volunteer improves perceived health (dy/dx: 0.062**) and life satisfaction (dy/dx: 0.052**). Being a volunteer in activities related to social awareness has a negative impact on happiness (dy/dx: −0.103***); religion-based voluntary activity improves life satisfaction (dy/dx: 0.061**).

Results by gender reveal that age has a stronger impact on women than on men (three significative and relevant estimated coefficients for women versus one for men). Younger women enjoy better health (dy/dx: 0.077*) but are the less satisfied with life (dy/dx: 0.061**); women aged from 66 to 70 years old are the happiest (dy/dx: −0.073* for women aged from 71 to 80 years old). Men aged from 71 to 75 years old are happier (dy/dx: 0.073*) than men from 66 to 70 years old. Female happiness is more strongly affected by civil status than male happiness (three significative and relevant estimated coefficients for women versus one for men). Unemployed women report better health (dy/dx: 0.326**) than retired women; unemployed men are more satisfied with life (dy/dx: 0.160*) than those that are retired. Male workers have better health (dy/dx: 0.089*) than retired men. Education has a stronger impact on women's health (dy/dx: 0.186*** and 0.224** for secondary studies and tertiary studies) than on men's health (dy/dx: 0.179** for tertiary studies), while the opposite is true for happiness (dy/dx: 0.120*** and 0.161** for secondary studies and tertiary studies for men). Income level has a stronger impact on women's self-reported health (dy/dx: 0.128*** and 0.295*** for middle income and high income) than on men's health (dy/dx: 0.110*** for middle income). Men and women with a medium-level income are happier (dy/dx: 0.109*** for middle income for women and dy/dx: 0.069** for middle income for men) and more satisfied with life (dy/dx: 0.101*** for middle income for women and dy/dx: 0.123*** for middle income for men) than people with a low income. The average national salary has a high and positive impact on female life satisfaction (dy/dx: 1.420**). Public expenditure on old age issues improves men's opinions of their own health (dy/dx: 0.231***) and happiness (dy/dx: 0.129**) and women's happiness (dy/dx: 0.340**).

Voluntary activity improves men's wellbeing (dy/dx: 0.100**, 0.064**, and 0.093** for good health, happiness, and life satisfaction), but decreases women's levels of happiness (dy/dx: −0.068**). Being a volunteer in activities related to social awareness is positive for the happiness of both genders

TABLE 2 | Estimations of wellbeing indicators: Model 1 (Logit: dy/dx).

	Good health	Happiness	Life satisfaction
Men[a]	–	–	–
Women	−0.078**	−0.046*	−0.029
Age: 61–65	0.042	−0.018	−0.058*
Age: 66–70	–	–	–
Age: 71–75	0.013	−0.008	−0.023
Age: 76–80	−0.037	0.003	0.023
Married[a]	–	–	–
Single	0.043	−0.123***	0.034
Divorced	−0.013	−0.168***	−0.147***
Widow/widower	−0.029	−0.114***	−0.080***
Retired[a]	–	–	–
Housewife	0.041	0.002	0.011
Unemployed	0.141**	0.017	0.075
Working	0.066*	0.018	0.049
Primary Studies[a]	–	–	–
Secondary Studies	0.122***	0.096***	0.075**
Tertiary Studies	0.180***	0.119*	0.156**
Number of Children	−0.012*	−0.003	0.006
Low Income[a]	–	–	–
Middle Income	0.118***	0.092***	0.115***
High Income	0.197***	0.077	0.118*
Ln(Public Health Expenditure)	−0.864*	−0.478	−0.898*
Ln(Public Old Age Expenditure)	0.182***	0.125***	0.036
Ln(Other Public Expenditure)	−0.073	0.329**	0.118
Ln(National Wage)	0.674*	0.385	1.124***
Spain[a]	–	–	–
Mexico	−0.607*	0.503**	0.080
Chile	−0.756**	0.169	−0.268
Wave: 1994–1998[a]	–	–	–
Wave: 2005–2009	−0.071	−0.196	−0.350**
Wave: 2010–2014	−0.031	−0.274*	−0.390**
Pseudo R^2	6%	13%	10%
Estimated probability	46%	81%	63%

[a]*Reference variable. ***, **, and * indicate that the explanatory variables are significant at 1, 5, and 10%.*

(dy/dx: 0.095* and 0.097** for women and men) and life satisfaction for men (dy/dx: 0.198**). Volunteering in activities related to religious issues is positive for female happiness (dy/dx: 0.052*) and male life satisfaction (dy/dx: 0.139***). Meanwhile, it is shown in **Table 3** that social awareness volunteering has a negative impact on happiness, while the estimated coefficients in **Table 4** report a positive correlation. This change of sign is caused by the introduction of macro variables. For example, in **Table 5**, we have controlled results taking into account national public expenditures on old age, and we observe that higher expenditures have a positive impact on happiness. People volunteer because they want to feel useful but also because they want to improve situations that they might consider undesirable. To a large degree, volunteerism behaves as an alternative agent for the government. As one goal of public expenditure on social issues is to amend precarious situations, the introduction of these variables reinforces the fact that volunteering is engaged in for the

TABLE 3 | Estimations of wellbeing indicators: Model 2 and Model 3 (Logit: dy/dx).

	Good health	Happiness	Life satisfaction
Model 2[a]			
UnpaidWork	0.062**	−0.007	0.052**
Pseudo R^2	7%	13%	10%
Estimated probability	46%	81%	63%
Endogeneity: Instrument (national percentage affiliated to NGOs)			
Schmith-Bundell exogeneity test	No problem	No problem	No problem
Model 3[a]			
UnpaidSocialAwareness	0.011	−0.103***	0.080
UnpaidProfessional	0.021	0.001	0.012
UnpaidEducationLeisure	0.042	0.056	0.010
UnpaidReligion	0.037	−0.005	0.061**
Pseudo R^2	6%	13%	11%
Estimated probability	46%	81%	63%
Endogeneity: Instrument (national percentages affiliated to NGOs for each category)			
Schmith-Bundell exogeneity test	No problem	No problem	No problem

[a]*We have included explanatory variables of Model 1. Estimated coefficients are robust, so we have omitted their transcription. Results are available on request to authors. *** and **, indicate that the explanatory variables are significant at 1 and 5%.*

pleasure of doing it. Lastly, the impact of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations is the sum of two excluding categories (intrinsic motivation: social awareness and religion; extrinsic motivation: professional and leisure activities). We have not calculated them because the lack of confidence level for certain categories gives greater volatility to their estimated results.

DISCUSSION

The primary aim of this work was to provide an approximation to the determinants of wellbeing among the older adults of Spain and Latin America. Our results suggest that socioeconomic characteristics (especially income and level of education) are important predictors of wellbeing. Public policies to reduce poverty by improving training and work expectations are therefore recommended. Gender analysis reveals that women would especially benefit from these types of initiatives.

Volunteering seems to improve life satisfaction and health but not happiness (H1). Being a volunteer in activities related to social awareness has a negative impact on happiness, whereas religion-based voluntary activity seems to improve life satisfaction (H2). While economic factors have a stronger impact on female wellbeing than on male wellbeing, voluntary activities have a stronger impact on male wellbeing than female wellbeing (H3). Lastly, when controlled for socioeconomic determinants, Spaniards are more likely to have a good state of health than Mexicans and Chileans, but Mexicans are more likely to be happy than Spaniards. These results remain only for women when repeating estimations by gender (H4).

Observational evidence suggests that volunteering can benefit health and life expectancy, even though the causal mechanisms

TABLE 4 | Estimations of wellbeing indicators: Model 1 by gender (Logit: dy/dx).

	Women			Men		
	Good health	Happiness	Life satisfaction	Good health	Happiness	Life satisfaction
Age: 61–65	0.077*	−0.045	−0.076*	0.011	0.007	−0.049
Age: 66–70[a]	–	–	–	–	–	–
Age: 71–75	−0.024	−0.073*	−0.018	0.043	0.073*	−0.029
Age: 76–80	−0.057	−0.022	0.011	0.005	0.027	0.032
Married[a]	–	–	–	–	–	–
Single	0.003	−0.173***	0.070	0.098	−0.089	−0.022
Divorced	−0.040	−0.225***	−0.141*	−0.019	−0.120***	−0.165**
Widow/widower	−0.026	−0.177***	−0.090**	0.009	−0.035	−0.068
Retired[a]	–	–	–	–	–	–
Housewife	0.040	−0.027	0.008	0.362	(omitted)	(omitted)
Unemployed	0.326**	−0.136	−0.149	0.110	0.072	0.160*
Working	0.073	0.007	0.074	0.089*	0.026	0.037
Primary Studies[a]	–	–	–	–	–	–
Secondary Studies	0.186***	0.071	0.117**	0.074	0.120***	0.035
Tertiary Studies	0.224**	0.081	0.155	0.179**	0.161**	0.173**
Number of Children	−0.011	−0.012	0.005	−0.010	0.003	0.006
Low Income[a]	–	–	–	–	–	–
Middle Income	0.128***	0.109***	0.101***	0.110***	0.069**	0.123***
High Income	0.295***	0.075	0.134	0.162*	0.072	0.086
Ln(Public Health Expenditure)	−0.619	−0.300	−1.109	−0.868	−0.493	−0.511
Ln(Public Old Age Expenditure)	0.087	0.133**	0.018	0.231***	0.129**	0.049
Ln(Other Public Expenditure)	−0.433	0.329	0.271	0.000	0.340**	−0.043
Ln(National Wage)	0.786	0.264	1.420**	0.497	0.326	0.627
Spain[a]	–	–	–	–	–	–
Mexico	−1.069**	0.758**	0.217	−0.491	0.404	0.014
Chile	−1.051**	0.336	−0.172	−0.722	0.144	−0.264
Wave: 1994–1998[a]	–	–	–	–	–	–
Wave: 2005–2009	−0.141	−0.148	−0.516**	0.075	−0.213	−0.119
Wave: 2010–2014	0.006	−0.228	−0.542**	0.047	−0.303	−0.180
Pseudo R^2	8%	15%	10%	6%	12%	10%
Estimated probability	43%	80%	62%	58%	85%	65%

[a]Reference variable. ***, **, and * indicate that the explanatory variables are significant at 1, 5, and 10%.

TABLE 5 | Estimations of wellbeing indicators: Model 2 and Model 3 by gender (Logit: dy/dx).

	Women			Men		
	Good health	Happiness	Life satisfaction	Good health	Happiness	Life satisfaction
Model 2						
UnpaidWork	0.024	−0.068**	0.011	0.100**	0.064**	0.093**
Pseudo R^2	8%	15%	10%	7%	13%	11%
Estimated probability	44%	80%	62%	58%	85%	65%
Model 3						
UnpaidSocialAwareness	−0.052	0.095*	0.001	0.046	0.097**	0.198**
UnpaidProfessional	0.101	0.092	0.075	0.003	0.062	0.015
UnpaidEducationLeisure	0.047	0.075	0.082	0.052	0.037	−0.034
UnpaidReligion	0.002	0.052*	0.008	0.071	0.052	0.139***
Pseudo R^2	8%	16%	10%	7%	14%	12%
Estimated probability	44%	80%	62%	58%	85%	65%

[a]We have included explanatory variables of Model 1. Estimated coefficients are robust, so we have omitted their transcription. Results are available on request to authors.
***, **, and * indicate that the explanatory variables are significant at 1, 5, and 10%.

remain unclear. This information could be used in the design of a political agenda that promotes health and wellbeing (Jenkinson et al., 2013).

Despite the fact that participation in voluntary activities generates a range of benefits for all those involved, awareness of volunteering options is still limited. There are probably many older adults who do not volunteer as they simply do not know that opportunities exist. Given the synergy that arises from social cooperation and wellbeing, volunteerism should be given much more attention and consideration; it should be recognized as a key element in the development of social cohesion and given much more visibility in society (Deloitte Consulting, 2012). Barriers, such as limited economic resources or mobility problems, should be removed to facilitate and encourage the participation of our older generations in both formal and informal voluntary projects (Martinez et al., 2011; Pozzi et al., 2014).

Even though estimated parameters of country dummy variables are in the argumentation line of descriptive statistics about wellbeing by country, there is no doubt that controlling estimations by explanatory factors reduces the importance of national gaps. The low number of countries and survey waves does not allow us to generalize our results. Increasing the number of countries and socioeconomic variables will give us more information about whether national differences remain. Social participation of older people is the result of personal decisions, but it is influenced by other factors and barriers that we should take into account (Majón-Valpuesta et al., 2016).

From a technical perspective, the cross-sectional design might include causal inferences (thus, whether voluntary activities have an effect on subjective wellbeing or vice versa, or whether some third variable—such as living conditions or personality traits—has an effect on both). Longitudinal and multilevel models could also enrich the methodological design of this research (Ferring and Boll, 2010).

From a psychological perspective, one limitation of this research is the lack of open questions addressed at understanding the self-evaluation of the volunteer experience (Morrow-Howell, 2010). Open questions about volunteering would have clarified whether volunteering improves wellbeing and happiness because this behavior is a source of pleasure (hedonistic hypothesis: Ryan and Deci, 2001), or a source of fulfillment (eudemonic hypothesis: McMahan and Renken, 2011) or both (Diener, 2006, 2009).

The link between volunteering and wellbeing is complex and requires further research. Future studies should include the frequency and length of social activities (Takeuchi et al., 2013), reasons for volunteering in each category (Pi et al., 2014),

attitudes toward volunteering (Pettigrew et al., 2015), and the organizational perspective (Ishikawa et al., 2016).

According to the literature review, volunteering shows positive psychosocial effects in fields such as social connectedness and social networks, commitment in social activities, and social meaning of life that stimulate protective mechanisms in mental and physical health (Thoits and Hewitt, 2001; Seligman, 2002; Kaneda et al., 2011; Fiorillo and Nappo, 2014; Coll-Planas et al., 2017). Social participation through volunteering allows older people to contribute to the common good, enhancing social improvements and ensuring continuity among generations. Volunteering should be encouraging throughout the individual lifecycle to promote wellbeing in old age. Organizations should be able to provide opportunities that allow volunteers to satisfy their primary motivations because, by doing so, benefits will potentially increase for all (Cornelis et al., 2013).

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Publicly available datasets were analyzed in this study. This data can be found here: micro-data from the World Value Survey (1994–1998; 2005–2009, and 2010–2014).

ETHICS STATEMENT

Ethics for this protocol was not required, as all of the data analyzed was obtained from existing publications.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MS-G, AG-L, and MG-L contributed to the conception and design of the study and wrote sections of the manuscript. AG-L organized the database and performed the statistical analysis. MS-G and AG-L wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed to the manuscript revision and read and approved the submitted version.

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Managing Cross-Border Conflicts Through Volunteer Commitment: A Comparative Study Between Religious and Non-profit Organizations in the San Diego–Tijuana Area

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San Diego and Tijuana configure two big cities that have faced each other across the international boundary between United States and Mexico for over 180 years. Within this context, the relationship emerging at the border can be characterized under different categories of individual, social, economic, and political situations connecting each side. Additionally, in recent years, the literature on cross-border conflicts has extensively focused on volunteers as informal agents helping children and other groups of population, but relatively little research has addressed the practical and managerial work and implications of the volunteers themselves. As actors of cross-border communities, volunteers play a relevant role in effective short-term migrants' settlement, but it is also observed that the profile of volunteers in religious organizations differs from those belonging to non-profit institutions. Grounded on the theories of Planned Behavior and Reasoned Action suggesting that intentions to cooperate with non-government institutions are influenced directly by attitudinal values and indirectly by their beliefs related to social conflicts, this paper analyzes the nature of volunteer commitment in religious and non-profit organizations (NPOs) providing information about managerial practices for newly arrived migrants. The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relevance of volunteer commitment as an instrument for managing cross-border conflicts in the particular context of San Diego and Tijuana Area. Based on research using interview data collected from beneficiaries by volunteers, institutional representatives, and documentary references, this manuscript highlights a psychological and individual-centric perspective of volunteer commitment, but it also explores a collective communicative action expanding the range of relevant voices in decisions about volunteering. Moreover, this study provides new insights into how organizational and relational elements impact sustainable volunteer management and points out the

role played by attitudes toward non-government institutions such as religious and NPOs demonstrating the relevance of volunteer commitment, transforming part of the positive attitude toward social problems into a significant intention to cooperation. Understanding the importance of the organization's images in order to attract volunteers, these results show that commitment may become a key determinant of the volunteers' identity linked to strategies devoted to organizational activities.

INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades, the proliferation of cross-border conflicts and the relevance of multilevel humanitarian actions have witnessed a great growth around the world (Bastida et al., 2008; González, 2014; Abdul, 2015; Gustavo, 2015; Suh et al., 2017; Silva, 2019). These phenomena represent more than just important repercussions in the manner in which the mass media, managers, and directors in non-profit organizations (NPOs) put volunteering into context and are open to interpretation focused on the availability of evidences on political, economic, and social effects of migrants (Taylor, 2007; Metz et al., 2017; McAllum, 2018; Hövermann and Messner, 2019; Lu et al., 2019).

From a comprehensive perspective on management in NPOs, the Organizational Behavior discipline became compulsory, exploring the relevance of Human Resources (HR) practices on intentions, attitudes, and behavioral outcomes of volunteers. Several practitioners and scholars have evidenced different questions and insights into how NPOs can promote positive and sustainable attitudes, intentions to collaborate, and behaviors on volunteers and, as a consequence, have an advantage in their development and long-term retention (Sparrow, 2001; Alatrista and Arrowsmith, 2004; Ariza-Montes et al., 2015; Rhodes et al., 2015; Şlusarciuc, 2015; Alfes et al., 2017; Bartram et al., 2017). However, conceptualizations and measurements of some terms are very difficult to reach in that discipline. For this reason, developing conceptual, theoretical, and empirical frameworks oriented to commitment, it is very relevant as a comprehensive starting point regarding the existing Business Management literature.

There is an important focus on the operational side perspective in terms of the "managerial decisions" on the role played by leaders and directors in NPOs. Managers acting as gatekeepers who are in charge of recruitment, retention, and continuous motivation of HR in their organizations are becoming critical for their success and survival. Moreover, they have to take into account carefully what managerial changes need to be done in a calculated manner to raise the organizational performance, volunteer satisfaction, and obviously its loyalty (Bendapudi et al., 1996; Ridder and McCandless, 2010; Brudney and Meijs, 2014; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018).

However, little investigation has been done to date related to managerial decisions in order to be more responsible to retention of staffs across voluntary organizations (Hernández, 2008; Ohana and Meyer, 2016; Shandra, 2017). These managers'

opinions are not only based on "attitudinal" factors, but rather on "normative" attributes related to feelings and sentiments of obligation and gratitude, which have come to be linked to activities that promote long-lasting behaviors (Wymer and Starnes, 2001; Spruyt et al., 2018; Lindley, 2019). Nowadays, the highly turbulent social context forces managers in NPOs to facilitate the volunteer commitment and identify the aspects that impulse the retention of NPO employees (McCormick and Donohue, 2016). Managerial decisions in NPOs try to be quite structured in order to implement actions and policies based on a formalized, systematic, and strategic approach implementing techniques to positively contribute to volunteer satisfaction and build sustainable communities among management practitioners, governments and communities across different contexts (Ariza-Montes et al., 2015; Metz et al., 2017; Watts, 2018; Lindley, 2019).

As most theoretical and empirical studies in NPOs are related to the nature of practices undertaken and links between volunteers and NPOs, this paper deals with an original topic describing volunteer commitment and behavior with practices enhancing volunteers' performance in the behaviors they act, their role, and the effectiveness of the NPOs in managing cross-border conflicts (Wymer and Starnes, 2001; Abdul, 2015; Metz et al., 2017). The purpose of this manuscript is to extend comprehensive frameworks, drawing particularly on terms linked to the literature on organizational behavior and management practices pertaining to NPOs. The conceptualization that we have described in this research is related to disciplines such as non-profit and HR management, sociology, psychology, and organizational behavior, but draws particularly on the literature of the theory of planned behavior and reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Alves et al., 2015; Bloemraad and Terriquez, 2016). Additionally, we present a conceptualization of commitment grounded on Becker's (1960) theory, cognitive dissonance theory of Festinger (1957), and the social exchange theory due to the relevance of political demands oriented to ensure a minimum level of civil rights for a social group and consequently the role these actions play in transforming individual's opinions.

The main challenge for NPOs is on human or community development, but Social and Nonprofit Marketing and Organizational Behavior emerged for similar reasons (Zarzuela and Antón, 2015). Both disciplines are frequently in search of actions for effective and relevant changes in organizations and institutions including NPOs. In this work, a wide temporal

representation of cross-spatial nature was conducted at NPOs in the San Diego–Tijuana Area, within the framework of an international research project focused in health NPOs. The final aim of this research is oriented to assess the influence of different valued combinations of attitudinal and normative-focused attributes on implications of volunteer commitment and behavior, considering some particularities of cross-border areas.

This research is rooted in a behavioral framework based on theories described by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980). According to the theoretical approach of Planned Behavior, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) pointed out that intentions affect behaviors. MacMillan et al. (2005) and Lee et al. (2014) point out that two main terms of this theoretical framework – perceived behavioral control and attitudes – influence behaviors. This manuscript is particularly guided by attitudinal and normative values based on the social exchange theory that include several elements such as gratitude and moral obligation (Miles and Vaisey, 2015; Whitehead and Stroope, 2015). In terms of practical implications, this manuscript is focused on empirical evidences demonstrating how NPOs can promote intentions and sustainable behaviors on volunteers facilitating the managerial processes through which HR practices exert their influence (Sheppard et al., 1988; Stirling et al., 2011; Miles and Vaisey, 2015; Rhodes et al., 2015).

The outline of this manuscript is as follows. First, a review of the literature on topics, conceptual framework and research agenda is conducted. Second, a methodological design and procedure of research and results are described. Third, an additional section is devoted to discussion, and finally, contributions, conclusions, implications, limitations, and further research are presented in these pages.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Several authors point out that volunteering is a relevant behavior configured by four features distinguishing it from other social actions (Allen and Meyer, 1990, 1996; Van Vuuren et al., 2008): (1) it is a planned behavior; (2) it is a long-term behavior; (3) it is a non-obligatory helping behavior; and (4) it takes place within an institution. According to Stazyk et al. (2011), theories of Planned Behavior and Reasoned Action's theoretical and conceptual framework are typically selected when investigating volunteer commitment, satisfaction, intentions to stay, and behaviors, mostly among employees and volunteers but also in management contexts. In particular, Theory of Planned Behavior (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Burnkrant and Page, 1982) has been applied frequently in volunteering research to analyze intentions to stay among volunteers of NPOs, particular attitudes reflecting a person's belief about a behavior (Ariza-Montes et al., 2015; Hansen and Kjeldsen, 2017), volunteer retention and loyalty (Yavas and Riecken, 1997), intentions to stay (Ranganathan and Henley, 2008; Van Vuuren et al., 2008), subjective norms reflecting beliefs of others in terms of particular behaviors (Cohen, 2011), perceived behavioral control as a determinant variable of the intention to cooperate

with the organization (Kim and Lee, 2007; Ranganathan and Henley, 2008), and person's past experience, opportunities, resources, and barriers to performing behaviors (Lee et al., 2014; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018).

While this theoretical framework has been applied in business and management contexts, such studies are scarce in the cross-border literature. The Theory of Planned Behavior is based on the hypothesis that human beings act rationally, make systematic and frequent use of information, and consider the further implications of their actions before engaging in a specific behavior; that is, the stronger a person's intention to perform a behavior, the more likely that person will perform a particular behavior. For instance, some of the specific management contexts of application related to this conceptual framework in NPOs consider the following: nurses' intentions and behaviors to care (Van Vuuren et al., 2008); preferences for pollution reduction of managers (Amos, 1982; Alatrista and Arrowsmith, 2004); younger ones' intentions and behaviors (Briggs et al., 2007; Zarzuela and Antón, 2015; Chordiya et al., 2017); unethical and fraudulent financial behavior (Van Vuuren et al., 2008; Gupta, 2017); sports events (Lee et al., 2014); knowledge-sharing perceptions, behaviors, and actions of managers (Kim and Lee, 2007); and employee decisions about using new technologies (MacMillan et al., 2005).

Additionally, drawing on the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), several authors point out that an awareness of social conflicts, attitudes toward such problems, and NPOs' environment interact to characterize the process of social commitment (Zarzuela and Antón, 2015). From this theoretical perspective, a greater awareness of social conflicts and problems causes a positive attitude toward them and consequently it will engender a greater likelihood of volunteers in terms of a social commitment.

Despite the extensive research, interest in this topic remains because of individuals and volunteers simply do not respond to new marketing actions and strategies in the same way when it comes to NPOs. Moreover, it appears that no studies have used this approach to investigate volunteers' commitments and behaviors in the context of cross-border conflicts. For this research, the conceptual framework, here, exposed seems more relevant for situations where individuals do not perceive themselves as having absolute control over their behaviors (Ramlee et al., 2016), as might occur in volunteering and volunteers' intentions as a specific form of helping activities in political and social conflicts (Sparrow, 2001; McFarland and Thomas, 2006; Henderson and Sowa, 2019; Instituto Nacional de Migración [INM], 2019; Silva, 2019).

Attitudinal Commitment and Volunteer Behavior

In Business Management and Social Marketing studies, the relevance of the volunteer commitment has been evidenced by several researchers as an important indicator for success in the NPOs. In the specific context of social marketing strategies, a NGO represents "the particular 'citizens' way of expressing their perceptions by forming groups which seek altruistic,

social and caring goals, benefiting those who are, excluded, underprivileged, and marginalized from society." Similarly, volunteer commitment is defined as "a link with the organization that involves either behavior or attitude" (Beerli et al., 2004; Dawley et al., 2005; Amos and Weathington, 2008). For instance, González and Guillén (2008) and Grant et al. (2008) evaluated several dimensions and attributes that compose the topic of volunteer commitment and motivate the volunteer satisfaction and its behavior.

Relevant aspects such as individual's identification with the value system of the organization and internalization of attitudes increasingly became challenges for volunteers and NPOs. In this particular case, the concept of internalization involves more than loyalty, it implies a proactive relationship with the institution as a manner to serve one's own interests. This is the justification why managers have to communicate available information in NPOs and their websites in order to develop a plan for recruiting or involving volunteers (Jaros et al., 1993; Harrison et al., 2017; Jaros, 2017).

In Organizational Behavior literature, commitment is characterized as an emotional (that is, affective), ethical, and rational phenomenon (Boezeman and Ellemers, 2008; Alfes et al., 2017). Considering the different interpretations, the nature of the bonds, and the main differences among contexts of analysis, all the authors agree that this term is well defined as a "link between the organization and the individual that involves either attitude or behavior" (Juaneda et al., 2017). Consequently, volunteer commitment is conceptualized as a range of perspectives from the emotional to the instrumental dimension, reflecting different components of and therefore scales of measurement (Malhotra, 2005; Jaros, 2017; Juaneda et al., 2017). Moreover, commitment is an emotional and affective response of the individual as a consequence of a global evaluation of all the attributes that determine the volunteer helping behavior; that is, commitment is a signal of the individual favorable affection to the ONG (Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley, 2002). From an extensive perspective, committed volunteers and staffs in NPOs can stay longer interacting with users through the positive experiences or generating particular opinions to the others.

Although in the field of management of volunteers, the best HR practices do not consider volunteer satisfaction and its commitment, several authors point out that both constructs have a relevant effect on behavior (Ariza-Montes et al., 2015; McCormick and Donohue, 2016). That is, different attitudinal aspects (identification and internalization, for example: Juaneda et al., 2017) are frequently used to increase the volunteer commitment in NPOs, and as a consequence, they cause high levels of satisfaction, intentions to stay, and participation. For instance, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and Malhotra (2005) characterized attitudinal attributes of volunteer commitment showing the relevance of constructs such as social norms, intentions, and motivations. Furthermore, identification and internalization can generate positive feelings when the volunteer wants to remain in the organization; this is especially relevant given the socio-emotional need, motivation, favorable experiences, and voluntary contributions in terms of time, expertise, and energy (Ohana and Meyer, 2016;

Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Available research and the literature review on this topic show that the organization's affective bonds represent a higher level of commitment in a particular context of scarce resources and can solve the problem faced by managers in NPOs of how to motivate employees committed without offering them the highest salaries (Ohana and Meyer, 2016). Additionally, perceived emotional benefits can generate higher levels of involvement, engagement and helping behaviors for employees and volunteers (Meyer et al., 2004; Valéau et al., 2013; Benevene et al., 2018).

To sum up, in this first characterization of commitment, attitudinal values are perceived as impacting volunteer helping behavior. When serving a cause or specific social mission satisfies the expectations of volunteers and employees, their helping behaviors is likely to increase (Briggs et al., 2007; Vecina et al., 2012). The review of the literature on commitment carried out in the context of this work allows one to analyze the most relevant attributes impacting on the volunteer helping behavior in NPOs in the workplace, in order to promote and capitalize affective commitment as input to volunteer behavior. Several specific hypotheses were developed for exploring the issue discussed previously.

Both the theory of Reasoned Action and seminal literature in volunteering suggest the need to differentiate between attitude toward behavior and also attitude toward organizations. According to several authors, attitude toward social problems become more general than attitude toward NGOs (Briggs et al., 2007; Wilson, 2012), highlighting that both types of attitude are relevant indicators of behavior as evidenced by research in nonprofit and social marketing. Moreover, NPOs can create a positive image to get individuals' social commitment and helping behavior (Meyer and Allen, 1984, 1991; Mayer and Schoorman, 1992; Meyer et al., 1993; Briggs et al., 2007; Wilson, 2012).

Normative Commitment and Volunteer Behavior

In the context of NPOs (including permanent programs and crisis actions), gratitude and moral obligation evidenced by volunteers are evidenced as two relevant factors in the information search process for recruitment and volunteers' intention to stay and cooperate with the organization (Porter et al., 1974; Pearce, 1993; Briggs et al., 2007). In addition, for managers in NPOs, these normative judgments reinforce the behaviors of those who follow these moral principles, rules and norms (Malhotra, 2005; Juaneda et al., 2017).

Regarding the normative features involved in volunteer commitment and helping behavior, several authors point out that, when volunteers are committed, they feel compelled to stay connected with the institution. From this conceptual approach, different attributes such as gratitude and moral obligation characterizing commitment can promote its preference; as a result, these moral conceptualizations are relevant in NPOs considering the individuals' opinions about political demands and social pressure oriented to ensure a minimum level of rights for a particular group or society in general. Thus, pertaining to one of these NPOs is a public signal of certain

convictions (Neuberg et al., 1997; Alatrista and Arrowsmith, 2004). According to Becker (1960) and Blau (1964), social exchange theory is of significant relevance: a number of studies have defined gratitude as a sense of obligation to NPO due to the feelings of receiving more than what has been given by the individual.

Additionally, according to the cognitive dissonance theory of Festinger (1957), the consideration of moral obligation related to volunteer commitment identify the tendency of individuals committed to participate on a social project in order to avoid contradictions on his/her line of action that was already begun. That is, in terms of this desire for a great internal consistency in volunteers, beliefs and attitudes of individuals may not only impact on their behaviors, but also they are a result of it. This proposition defends that attitudes are private and relatively malleable. By contrast, behaviors are more irrevocable and public (Ohana and Meyer, 2016; Juaneda et al., 2017).

The final outcome of volunteer commitment is in behavioral terms, meaning that volunteers link to a particular NPO in the expectation that they will contribute to find positive experiences in collective contexts and achieve organizational goals and where social ties and moral obligations become relevant (Miles and Upenieks, 2018). Thus, it is supposed that these normative aspects will have a positive impact on the volunteer helping behavior when NPOs are managing humanitarian actions and social conflicts.

As well as in the Social Marketing discipline, there is no doubt that without donors and volunteers devoting effort, time, and funds, NPOs could not survive: in the social exchange theory, it is necessary to assess the normative values in order to considerer its relevance on volunteer helping behavior in the development of their promotional and humanitarian tasks (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Reed and Selbee, 2000; Reed et al., 2007; Miles and Upenieks, 2018). Therefore, it seems reasonable to consider that a high level of "normative bonds," that is, the greater importance of the gratitude and moral obligation aspects in order to motivate their feelings, the higher level of volunteer commitment in their helping behaviors. From this perspective, according to Jaros (2017) and Juaneda et al. (2017), several normative features such as gratitude, individual's sense of moral obligation toward the NPO, and obviously perceived social problems reveal higher scores on commitment influencing volunteer helping behaviors.

In research on Social Marketing and Organizational Behavior, only few authors have conducted investigation related to the relationship between these conceptualizations. Taking into account the high level of available information shown by the perceived positive features of commitment to capture the interest of volunteers, the abovementioned literature review allows us to consider our research proposal based on features related to achieve a given volunteer helping behavior.

Research Proposal and Hypotheses

According to several investigations in which the relationship among attitudinal and normative attributes related to commitment, intention to stay in the organization, and volunteer helping behavior in NPOs is identified (e.g., Valéau et al., 2013; Juaneda et al., 2017), the review of the literature allows us to establish two substantive hypotheses, HA and HB respectively:

HA: The individual's attitudinal attributes configuring commitment toward NPOs will lead to a higher volunteer helping behavior.
HB: The individual's normative attributes configuring commitment toward NPOs will lead to a higher volunteer helping behavior.

In order to operationalize our research proposal derived from this integrative theoretical framework, we present the following auxiliary hypotheses related to HA and HB:

H1: The individual's identification with the value system of the organization will have a direct effect on the volunteer helping behavior.
H2: The individual's internalization of the value system of the organization will have a direct effect on the volunteer helping behavior.
H3: The individual's attitude toward NPOs will have a direct effect on the volunteer helping behavior.
H4: The individual's sense of gratitude toward the NPO will have a direct effect on the volunteer helping behavior.
H5: The individual's sense of moral obligation toward the NPO will have a direct effect on the volunteer helping behavior.
H6: The individual's attitude toward social problems will have a direct effect on the volunteer helping behavior.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

In order to evaluate the evidence of the relationship between volunteer commitment and helping behavior, this research was applied on beneficiaries in religious and civil NPOs that, for a long time, facilitate health located in the San Diego–Tijuana area. According to Metz et al. (2017), it becomes relevant to know why it is important to beneficiaries. In contrast to the economic value of volunteering to the volunteers and communities, to date, little is known about theses value to migrants and beneficiaries.

Two specific aspects of the methodological process should be mentioned in this research regarding:

1. the participants, and
2. the instrument, detailed procedure and scope of this research.

Participants

Regarding the participants in this research, in order to study the proposal between the concepts, here, described, this investigation was tested in migrant shelters located in the San Diego–Tijuana area, named Otay Mesa and San Ysidro Port of Entry.

Our research was applied in the following religious institutions: the Centro Madre Assunta and Casa de los Migrantes. Both religious institutions were the first in Tijuana to establish a method of providing dignified assistance to children and women who are migrating from Central and

Southern Mexico or have been displaced after deportation from the United States. As civil institutions, YMCA and Módulo Fronterizo Tijuana were considered for this research. In particular, this research was carried out in migrant shelters in Tijuana run by civil society organizations and institutions such as Protestant and Catholic churches (INEGI, 2017).

According to the comparative design of this research between religious and civil organizations, the total number of participants was 1535, proportionally stratified by type of NPO as a sampling procedure (random quota sampling); migrants were asked to evaluate the volunteer commitment and helping behavior in the shelters. In order to collect a diverse data set, the participants were contacted from a range of shelters that offered volunteering experiences and situations at different locations, as a form of triangulation to increase validity. This comparative design includes similarities and differences, which can provide a conceptual basis as well as a practical implication at each NPO in particular.

The participants were contacted from a census in each shelter; in order to appreciate the importance of the volunteer commitment, a simple random sampling method was used as a selection procedure for the sampling units. According to the literature on this topic (Bentler and Bonett, 1980; Wisner et al., 2005; Valéau et al., 2013; Doucet and Lee, 2015; Tekingündüz et al., 2017; Engel, 2018), previous managers and volunteers with experience and knowledge in NPOs were contacted in order to evaluate if our instrument was adequate to these objectives (that is, face validity).

The instrument (questionnaire) was pre-tested in a sample of convenience among beneficiaries with similar characteristics to the final target, on which the questionnaire was applied. The particular scale on volunteer commitment was derived from the aforementioned literature (Schlegelmilch and Tynan, 1989; Malhotra, 2005; Sargeant et al., 2006; Doucet and Lee, 2015; Metz et al., 2017).

Instrument, Data Collection, and Scope of Study

Regarding the detailed sources of information and the procedure for this research, respondents were asked to fill in a questionnaire (data collection procedure) with the following information:

> Part I: "Volunteer helping behavior,"
> Part II: "Attitudinal and normative-focused commitment," and
> Part III: "Identification data of the respondent."

In this research, the main variables (Parts I and II) were collected in the questionnaire with a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 10 (strongly agree).

Items in the scale on volunteer commitment were defined as a structured questionnaire of closed questions, with support in the results of the qualitative methodology applying interviews in a preliminary test, and derived from the particular context where it was the fieldwork.

According to the aforementioned literature on volunteer commitment, we used a reduced adaptation of the Juaneda et al. (2017) scale in terms of main dimensions for three reasons: (1) it resulted in a highly operative measure including only a very small number of attitudinal and normative features; (2) it presented appropriate psychometric properties from the literature point of view; and (3) the scope of application was very similar (religious and civil institutions as NPOs). Additionally, we included attitude toward NPOs and social problems according to Zarzuela and Antón (2015) scale. This adapted scale considered volunteer commitment composing the characteristics reported in the previous literature, i.e., attitudinal (individual's identification and internalization of the value system of the organization, attitude toward NPOs) and normative features (gratitude, moral obligations toward the NPO, and individual's attitude toward social problems: see details in the **Supplementary Material**).

This research used Briggs et al.'s (2007) approach to analyze the impact of commitment in NPOs on the two relationships proposed in this manuscript: (1) between attitudinal values and volunteer helping behavior, and (2) between normative values and volunteer helping behavior. In addition, a criterion of simplicity was used to consider responses on commitment into categories (a high or low two-level for perceptions) based on our descriptive analysis.

Related to the data collection procedure, the longitudinal fieldwork was conducted in the San Diego–Tijuana area by Doctors of the World–Médecins du Monde (MdM), a movement of activists who provide care, bear witness, and support social change in Tijuana from 2006 through diverse medical programs and evidence-based initiatives, enabling migrants to access health.

In 2017, Mexican authorities declared a "humanitarian crisis" for several reasons in response to the large number of migrants in Tijuana, also known as the Central American migrant caravans. Previously, Amnesty International reported that between 2007 and 2012, several Central American countries had the highest average homicide rates in the world and Pueblo Sin Fronteras noted that such caravans began arriving several years earlier (Silva, 2019).

Tijuana is recognized as the most important border city in Mexico and a complex dynamics have shaped it not only in a demographic sense but also in social, economic, and cultural terms (Mendoza, 2017; Silva, 2019). In 2015, this city was the third most densely populated municipality in Mexico (INEGI, 2017). Since 2016, the migratory pattern evidences Haitians, Mexican displaced and detained by U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) while crossing the border, and Central Americans arriving by caravans.

Table 1 shows the specific methodological procedure by documentary references and interviews for designing the questionnaire used in this research. Additionally, a quantitative methodology was applied to collect the final data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to the methodological process described in this manuscript, **Table 2** shows the profile (descriptive analysis)

TABLE 1 | Methodology of this research.

Analysis	Methods	Techniques
• Documentary, face validity	• Literature review, qualitative research	• Bibliographic analysis, in-depth interviews
• Reliability, construct validity	• Quantitative research (analysis of overall reliability and initial factor validity)	• Descriptive statistics • Cronbach's alpha • Item-total correlation • Factor analysis
• Relationship between variables	• Quantitative research	• ANOVA model, descriptive analysis and *t* test

TABLE 2 | Descriptive statistics.

	Number of participants by type of NPOs		Total (percentage)
	Religious institutions	Civil NPOs	
Gender			
• Male	609 (39.67%)	772 (50.3%)	1381 (89.97%)
• Female	144 (9.38%)	10 (0.65%)	154 (10.03%)
Migratory status			
• Repatriation	264 (17.20%)	83 (5.41%)	347 (22.61%)
• Deportation	283 (18.44%)	226 (14.72%)	509 (33.16%)
		473 (30.81%)	
• In transit/ transmigrant/ other	206 (13.42%)		679 (44.24%)
Total	753 (49.05%)	782 (50.95%)	1535 (100%)

of the participants who answered this questionnaire. In this analysis, it is possible to note the differences and similarities between males and females, 89.97 and 10.03%, respectively, as well as the high proportion of repatriated and deported migrants (55.77% in total).

The version of the final questionnaire was an instrument consisting of different variables that measured volunteer commitment with items distributed randomly. Beneficiaries filled the questionnaire and this instrument with items was plotted in random order for self-administration by item sequentially. After the pre-test, the items were represented in 10 Likert terms because not many neutral responses were found.

The final questionnaire was administered in the different shelters by interviewers with physical presence. The instrument was sequentially applied in order to avoid biases, to validate the stability of the solutions obtained in each step, and to generalize the results beyond the sample ones obtained (Hair et al., 2010). Finally, the same instrument was applied in the two types of institutions, both religious and civil NPOs.

The statistical analysis started with the empirical identification of the variables. According to the reduced adaptation of the Zarzuela and Antón (2015) and Juaneda et al. (2017) scales, internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) was analyzed and the item-total correlation was evaluated. The overall reliability of the

scale showed an adequate coefficient alpha and the analysis of the item-total correlation for all variables ranged from 0.734 to 0.865. Additionally, according to Hair et al. (2010) an exploratory factor analysis of principal components with Varimax rotation was applied on the data.

Data Analysis and Discussion

In order to test the hypotheses H1 to H6, volunteer helping behavior was used for further analysis in terms of one item, which measured individually this construct. Regarding the hypotheses H1 to H3, the ANOVA model was applied and significant differences were found regarding the individual's internalization of the value system of the organization (**Table 3**: see Sign. p values < 0.05). In terms of the interaction effect among variables on behavior, no statistically significant differences were found (Sign. p value > 0.05).

In this research, the results showed that volunteer helping behavior was influenced by the individual's internalization of the value system of the organization, related to the attitudinal values (that is, hypotheses H1 to H3). Moreover, it was not allowed to appreciate a significant relationship on the helping behavior in terms of interaction.

Given the exploratory character of this manuscript, the results of this work pointed out that these individual opinions and perceptions of beneficiaries on volunteer commitment are the basis of helping behavior in NPOs. Our findings of this analysis confirmed that volunteers in NPOs recognize the value system of the organization; they are also more likely to facilitate their decisions on what their institutions offer to beneficiaries.

Additionally, when a volunteer reflects a helping behavior supported by internal values and goals linked to those adopted by the organization, internalization implies an active manner to serve one's own interests. This argument suggests that there is an interest in facilitating integration under the idea that the shelter

TABLE 3 | Hypothesis regarding the effect of attitudinal features on volunteer helping behavior (H1–H3).

Source of variation	Degrees of freedom	Root mean square	*F*	Sign
Identification	1	0.485	0.211	0.646
Internalization	1	13.516	5.893	0.016
Attitude toward NPOs	1	2.900	1.264	0.262
Identification × internalization	1	1.190	0.519	0.472
Identification × attitude toward NPOs	1	7.018	3.060	0.081
Internalization × attitude toward NPOs	1	1.673	0.729	0.394
Identification × internalization × attitude toward NPOs	1	0.910	0.397	0.529

will continue as a place of lodging for migrants, and beneficiaries are likely to be satisfied (Juaneda et al., 2017; Silva, 2019).

By contrast to the literature review of the conceptual framework abovementioned in previous pages, the individual's identification of the value system of the institution and individual's attitude toward NPOs are important only for certain respondents in this work; that is, only H2 was accepted (see the results in **Table 3**).

Table 4 describes the statistical analysis of hypotheses H4 to H6 and the interaction effect among the normative attributes toward the NPO and social problems.

Similarly, in order to evaluate the contribution of normative aspects to the variance in volunteer helping behavior according to the beneficiaries' perceptions, the results of this ANOVA model highlighted that these attributes have a direct effect in terms of the individual's sense of moral obligation toward the NPO (Sign. p value < 0.05), but no significant effect of interaction was founded (Sign. p value > 0.05).

Results show that beneficiaries perceive that helping behaviors in shelters diminish the social, economic, and psychological costs providing opportunities to regularize their status. Furthermore, according to the academic literature on volunteer commitment, NPOs provide accommodation, food, and clothing but shelter organizations play an important role as communities of reception for beneficiaries, linking migrants to residents and providing emotional and spiritual support (Tekingündüz et al., 2017; Silva, 2019). In summary, hypotheses H4 to H6 were tested and only H5 was accepted.

Table 5 presents descriptive statistics for the variables of volunteer commitment. As a clear evidence, the detailed analysis

TABLE 4 | Hypothesis related to the effect of normative features on volunteer helping behavior (H4–H6).

Source of variation	Degrees of freedom	Root mean square	*F*	Sign
Gratitude toward the NPO	1	1.438	0.650	0.420
Moral obligation toward the NPO	1	66.241	29.941	0.000
Attitude toward social problems	1	0.317	0.143	0.705
Gratitude × moral obligation	1	0.584	0.264	0.607
Gratitude × attitude toward social problems	1	0.298	0.135	0.714
Moral obligation × attitude toward social problems	1	0.791	0.358	0.550
Gratitude × moral obligation × attitude toward social problems	1	0.013	0.006	0.940

TABLE 5 | Descriptive statistics on volunteer helping behavior.

	Religious institutions	Civil NPOs	Values	
			Min	Max
Attitudinal commitment				
Identification	8.45	8.16	5	10
Internalization	9.30	8.18	5	10
Attitude toward NPOs	8.14	8.70	1	10
Normative commitment				
Gratitude	9.17	8.58	5	10
Moral obligation	9.77	8.18	7	10
Attitude toward social problems	8.63	8.88	5	10

reveals high scores in the "individual's internalization of the value system of the organization" in religious institutions (value: 9.30) and "moral obligation" in civil NPOs (value: 9.77). Also, "attitude toward social problems" was one of the best valued items in both type of institutions.

The result of this analysis provided additional evidences and our findings suggest that statistical differences on most of the variables could be found. For evaluating the relevance of further information concerning volunteering, the effect of volunteer commitment was measured using the helping behavior as the dependent variable. **Table 6** shows group-mean values; additionally, a t test analysis by type of institutions, that is religious versus civil NPOs, and gender of the respondent was conducted.

The results suggest that statistical differences were found, with significantly lower values for civil NPOs than the religious ones. This result is according to the review of the literature (Ranganathan and Henley, 2008; Van Vuuren et al., 2008; Abdul, 2015; Ohana and Meyer, 2016; Metz et al., 2017; Tekingündüz et al., 2017; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018; Silva, 2019).

The findings reported in this study confirm that Centro Madre Assunta and Casa de los Migrantes were evaluated differently according to the information given (see **Table 6**). Similar evidences have been reported in several studies (Briggs et al., 2007; Ranganathan and Henley, 2008; Ohana and Meyer, 2016; INEGI, 2017; Metz et al., 2017; Silva, 2019). In terms of gender, our results evidenced that statistical differences between males and females were found (Ariza-Montes et al., 2015).

The main reason for this differentiated consideration is that previous studies have found that migrants intermingle in civil shelters, but in religious institutions, beneficiaries find ways to relate to each other, creating a singular environment to belong to any particular faith. In an extended perspective, in the religious shelters, managers see migrants as beneficiaries to engage in ministry in both a humanistic and religious sense.

In the San Diego–Tijuana area, religious NPOs include Catholic institutions, Protestant, as well as Baptist–Pentecostal churches playing a relevant role as communities of reception, linking migrants to long-term residents, providing emotional support and creating bonds among beneficiaries, volunteers, and shelter coordinators that persist after migrants' departure

TABLE 6 | *t* test, means (M), and standard deviation (SD) on volunteer helping behavior.

	M/SD	Type of NPOs				Gender			
		Religious institutions	Civil NPOs	*t*	Sign.	Male	Female	*t*	Sign
Helping behavior	6.41/1.83	7.64	5.22	13.774	0.000	6.54	5.24	5.085	0.000

(Brudney and Meijs, 2014; Ohana and Meyer, 2016; INEGI, 2017; Silva, 2019).

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Relevant findings grounded in theoretical and empirical implications are required about the relevance of being alert to the feelings and needs and of volunteers in NPOs. Although many research aspects have to be considered in the volunteers' decisions to cooperate with NPOs, this paper is focused on descriptions on their behaviors when they are participating in crisis actions such as cross-border conflicts.

There is some evidence that HR management can be improved through appropriate practices. Social interventions of NPOs have resulted in significant gains and improved volunteer commitment and helping behaviors worldwide, and as a result, these actions have increased satisfaction of beneficiaries, managers, and volunteers in shelters.

To sum up, this research has analyzed the effects of attitudinal and normative features of the volunteer commitment on helping behavior. Regarding the six hypotheses presented in this paper, the individual's attitudes and normative-focused values are evidenced as relevant factors to determine the helping behavior of the volunteers in NPOs from the beneficiaries' perspective. That is, the individual's internalization with the value system of the NPO and the sense of moral obligation are key indicators for evaluating the volunteer helping behavior, showing a relevant signal for managers in HR management practices.

In terms of the main theoretical contributions and practical implications that emerge from this study, our results reveal that internalization and moral obligation significantly influence the volunteer helping behavior. Regarding the NPOs, affective and normative features are very relevant aspects to be taken into account for managers. These aspects are also best valued for beneficiaries; for this reason, current conditions pose a challenge for the NPOs in order to integrate repatriated or deported migrants deciding to stay or settle permanently in a city such as Tijuana. Each of these particularities for migrants implies a set of specific needs with respect to social services, employment, and medical attention.

From a theoretical approach, there are not many studies that describe the particular relationships described, here, mainly because of the unequal presence of cross-border conflicts around the world. Considering implications for practitioners, these findings are relevant for institutional representatives and managers in NPOs, taking into account not only the costs and benefits of implementing diverse HR practices but also aspects related to improve perceptions and experiences in NPOs when chiefs and managers are promoting their shelters. Thus, attitudinal features and a sense of moral obligation are aspects and factors whose combination facilitates to improve the level of service of the NPOs. Moreover, managers in NPOs should take into account the characteristics of beneficiaries when they are assisting migrants. Empirical results evidence that successful institutions have expanded their services to adjust to these new realities related to immigration, not only when formulating a plan to address the problem.

In this study, different combinations of attributes of volunteer commitment are considered; for this reason, it is possible that directors of the religious and civil establishments are oriented by social, utilitarian, and ethical criteria regarding the level of importance in attitudinal and normative concern when recruiting staff in NPOs.

Furthermore, it is interesting to consider also other types of personal services offered in NPOs such as those related to social, legal services, or assistance for employment, for example. In this work, a relevant aspect to be considered is that only migrants in face-to-face, that is, personal interviews and traditional shelters have participated in this research project. We did not test specific factors and variables such as ethnic extraction, religious beliefs, modes of operation in NPOs, or categories; for this reason, conclusions and implications should be only adapted in personal experiences promoting volunteering in NPOs. It will be relevant and interesting to further research related to environments with different profiles of beneficiaries (deported migrants, repatriated, transmigrants) or testing moderator and mediator effects.

To sum up, this work is particularly focused on a limited number of variables for each dimension of the volunteer commitment: attitudinal and normative-focused values. In essence, the main limitation of this research is both descriptive and exploratory in nature, particularly derived from the method used that does not predict the behavior itself. In this research, an important aspect to be considered is that we did not test specific variables predicting behaviors; in this sense, conclusions should be taken into account when the intention of conduct is not manifested in the action (conduct performed). Given that we include data from different shelters and institutions, further research considering moderating impacts with multi-group analysis will be of interest.

Finally, it is also evidenced that mass media and social networks provide a rapid, direct, and involved way to transmit

any available information to beneficiaries; this consideration is a key factor for volunteering because they affect the way in which beneficiaries perceive the successful actions of NPOs. Additionally, further lines of research would highlight on the manner in which volunteers are deep acting and learning in their workplace; this is also of great value for managers in NPOs in order to improve their actions in the uncertain current environment.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

ETHICS STATEMENT

Ethical review and approval was not required for the study on human participants in accordance with the local legislation and institutional requirements. Written informed consent from the participant was not required to participate in this study in accordance with the national legislation and the institutional requirements.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors listed have made a substantial, direct, and intellectual contribution to this research. LC designed the study, wrote the manuscript, and analyzed the data. JV assisted in writing of the manuscript. MJ contributed by designing the study and collecting data, and reviewed the results and discussion. MR assisted in the writing and reviewed the entire manuscript.

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The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02978/full#supplementary-material

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Human Values and Work Engagement: The Mediating Role of Authenticity Among Workers in a Spanish Religious Organization

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Nowadays religious organizations play a leading role in the third sector, contributing to maintaining the welfare state in a large number of countries in sectors such as health, education or social services, among others. These organizations provide a service to their users, aiming to transmit the predominant values in their mission statement and simultaneously promote both authenticity and work engagement in their employees. Indeed, the purpose of this article is to evaluate the link between human values and work engagement, as well as the mediating role of authenticity in this relationship. To this end, 938 workers of a Catholic religious organization, which constitutes a relatively unexplored context, is employed. To test the research model and hypotheses, this investigation uses PLS (Partial Least Squares). It covers two notable research gaps. First, the results confirm the direct links between human values, authenticity and work engagement within the context of religious organizations. Second, they provide evidence of the mediating role exercised by authenticity in the relationship between human values and work engagement.

Keywords: human values, authenticity, work engagement, religious organizations, corporate governance, mediating effect, partial least squares

INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades, the study of religious organizations has become increasingly important. These institutions are currently major players within specific areas of the third sector (e.g., education, healthcare and social work), which is essential to maintain a welfare state. In fact, the size of the non-profit entities within the whole of the global economy remains growing and they represent nowadays a significant component of the European economic and social context (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). These institutions also provide many relevant benefits that are difficult to quantify, such as the local impacts of voluntary work, employment opportunities for some collectives that have been traditionally disadvantaged in terms of labor, and local services (Ayensa, 2011).

Faith-based organizations represent a pluralistic and unique work environment where religious and secular people coexist while working together. The last collective entails a specific degree of heterogeneity that ranges from workers who strongly identify with the institutional objectives to professionals little committed to the organizational goals (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). The purpose of these institutions lies more in the way they conduct their activity, transmitting their character and charisma, than in the quantity of work they perform. Finding workers who share the predominant values and mission of the organization is a challenge that these entities must face.

Non-profit organizations have been accused of a lack of professionalism in their human capital in comparison with for-profit companies (Dobrai and Farkas, 2010). For instance, these institutions have less capacity to attract and retain talented workers due to their low level of competitiveness in the market. They are usually able to incorporate only those employees who are not highly motivated by monetary compensation. Bacchiega and Borzaga (2003), among others, assume that this issue constitutes a main risk for their long-term survival. All of the above matters reveal the importance of taking action to increase employees' work engagement, in order to find and maintain authentic workers who share the values of the organization. Moreover, it is important to highlight that spirituality is directly connected to employee engagement (Roof, 2015). Most of the workers in the third and social sectors, especially those from religious institutions, are usually influenced by their ideological backgrounds, such as service vocation, empathy with a series of values, and personal self-actualization (Elson, 2006). This fact makes relevant the necessity of research in human values, where there is a very large investigation gap (Adams, 2016), determining which of them lead workers to be more engaged in these entities.

Religious institutions seem an appropriate context for examining these particular links, because human values are directly related to the personal vocation of their religious employees, and therefore, to authenticity and work engagement in their quotidian job. According to Bickerton et al. (2014), spiritual resources promote the meaning of the jobs and of the perceived capability to fulfill them with success. Consequently, the work engagement of this group, as well as authenticity, must increase through the daily work. This relationship is a main and important point to study, as the wellbeing of the workers also depends on the degree of authenticity that the work environment allows them to show (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). Therefore, given the described unique features of non-profit religious organizations, it is fundamental to understand how their members feel and act for their long-term survival.

Moreover, although some studies could provide valuable insights to understand how the individual links between personal values, authenticity and work engagement operate, research on non-profit faith-based organizations is virtually non-existent, which emphasizes the significance of this investigation. The personal and professional lives of employees in non-profit religious institutions present a larger overlap between them than in other environments (Ménard and Brunet, 2011; Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). According to these authors, these entities constitute a unique context in which to examine the alignment of human values with professional life.

Based on the above context, this article aims to assess the predictive role of human values on authenticity and work engagement, as well as the mediation exercised by authenticity over the relationship between human values and work engagement. To achieve this purpose, the study is carried out in an extensive international Catholic institution whose social labor is centered on the social work sector and the education sector.

The structure of the paper is as follows. In "Theoretical background and research hypotheses" a revision of the most appropriate literature, as well as the hypotheses and research model, are presented. The "Materials and methods" section details the followed methodology. The "Results" section displays the most significant achieved results. In the "Discussion," the most relevant empirical outcomes are discussed. The article ends by summarizing the principal conclusions, as well as implications and limitations.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

To establish the hypotheses of this research, the framework of this paper reviews in the following paragraphs the theoretical concepts of human values, work engagement and authenticity, as well as the direct and indirect relationships between them.

Human Values

Values are conceptualized as cognitive representations of universal needs (Schwartz, 1992). Schwartz's (1992) Theory of Human Values indicates that members of almost all cultures, when they relate to values as guiding principles, implicitly identify ten types of basic human values. Schwartz's (2006) study indicates that these universal motivational values act together based on a hierarchy of priorities, distinguishing each individual from others and characterizing each person. Values are beliefs that refer to desirable goals and that drive action. These features separate values from related concepts, such as norms or attitudes. Values also guide people in the evaluation of actions, individuals, policies and events. Schwartz (2006) explains that the relative importance of values leads attitudes and behaviors, because human values involve the perceptions of what is good and desirable (such as humility, justice, or success) (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018a).

Schwartz's(1992, 1994) Theory of Human Values groups ten basic values into four higher-order constructs, constituting two large bipolar dimensions. The first one is *self-transcendence* (universalism and benevolence) versus *self-enhancement* (achievement and power), and the second one is *openness to change* (hedonism, self-direction and stimulation) versus *conservation* (conformity, security and tradition).

On the one hand, self-enhancement or individualism concerns the individual interests of each person and the maximization of his or her potential, while self-transcendence, also known as collectivism, makes reference to a greater concern for the wellbeing of others. On the other hand, the construct of openness to change inspires movement and living new experiences, while conservation motivates individuals to maintain their actual situation in terms of resistance to anything that involves change.

This research considers that values play a main role among employees of religious organizations, where the human values and the personal profile of each individual can condition the interaction between professional and personal roles, ultimately affecting the workers' experience of authenticity and therefore their work engagement.

Work Engagement

The positive connection between work and life in different organizational contexts is demonstrated. The benefits of work engagement are not reduced to the work area but also include the personal areas of life, improving the quality of life outside the workplace, as in what healthcare refers to as good social functioning, such as enriching family relationships (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2008; Culbertson et al., 2012; Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2014).

Work engagement refers to the positive and continuous emotional affective state of workers. Schaufeli et al. (2002) affirm that it is defined by *absorption*, *dedication* and *vigor*. Absorption means being completely focus on and happily immersed in the job, so that time appears to go quickly. On the other hand, dedication leads to experience a sense of involvement, inspiration, enthusiasm, challenge, meaning and pride. Last, vigor is synonymous with being devoted to work, with energy, pleasure and effort despite difficulties.

The argument of Halbesleben (2010) that engaged workers are more probable to accomplish their tasks than those with a lower degree of work engagement, it is even stronger among employees that have faith in God, as spiritual beliefs reinforce their meaning in the workplace (Park, 2012). This is because religious and spiritual aspects can influence how individuals interpret the occurrences of their daily lives or the way they structure their pursuits, and their general sense of wellbeing and life satisfaction (Emmons, 1999; Lewis and Cruise, 2006). Indeed, a longitudinal study of Christian religious employees (cross-cultural missionaries, clergy, chaplains, and others employed within faith-based institutions) proved that the link with God causes more work engagement than in other collectives (Bickerton et al., 2014).

Authenticity

Every day, there are increasing numbers of employees who question the meaning of work and how their jobs fit with the other roles in their lives (Hartung, 2009). Scholars from an extensive range of disciplines have drawn attention to the intensifying search of authenticity in developed societies (Liedtka, 2008; Grandey et al., 2012; Van den Bosch and Taris, 2014a). This matter has become increasingly important, as being authentic is beneficial for individuals and collectives, which contributes to generating healthier entities. Many are the psychopathologies that are created in individuals when they are forced to perform behaviors contrary to their nature (de Carvalho et al., 2015).

Authenticity mainly refers to acting in congruence with one's self, beliefs and core values (Harter, 2002; Ménard and Brunet, 2011; de Carvalho et al., 2015); some humanistic theorists call it respect of one's needs and values or self-respect (Erikson, 1959; Maslow, 1976). On the other hand, self-determination theories understand authenticity as self-initiated behaviors in line with the inherent basic psychological needs of competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Sheldon and Kasser, 1995; Deci and Ryan, 2000, 1995). According to these latter theories, two dimensions compose authenticity: cognitive and behavioral (Goldman and Kernis, 2002). The cognitive dimension involves the knowledge

and appraisal of the self (Deci and Ryan, 2000), while the behavioral dimension refers to one's true self and acting sincerely in the interactions and relations (Goldman and Kernis, 2002; Kernis and Goldman, 2006). Therefore, authenticity has a long record in philosophy and psychology (Van den Bosch and Taris, 2014a); however, it has received limited attention in scientific research, specifically in the business literature, until very recently, mostly due to there being scarce reliable measures of this concept (Sheldon, 2004; Wood et al., 2008). There is also a particular dimension of spirituality in this term, where one's authenticity is living in tune with one's soul or God, not only with one's belief system or values (Burks and Robbins, 2012).

This research takes Roger's (1961) definition as a point of reference. This author considers that authenticity is centered on the person. It is an attitude that allows the whole functioning of individuals. Authenticity can be explained by a three-dimensional structure (Wood et al., 2008), which is nowadays the most approved theory among scientific researchers (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). The three-dimensional model of authenticity developed by Wood et al. (2008) is shaped by *authentic living, accepting external influence* and self-alienation. First, authentic living means being loyal to oneself and behaving by one's beliefs and values. Second, accepting external influence is understood as complying with the expectations of others; this means in what grade an individual is affected by other people's thoughts and actions. Finally, self-alienation concerns a state in which a person experiences incongruence between who he or she is and a particular experience; applied to the workplace, self-alienation would be not knowing who one is at work. Therefore, authenticity achieves its maximum level through the combination of a low degree of self-alienation and accepting external influence and a large level of authentic living.

The three-dimensional model of authenticity is very appropriate for studies in the work area (Goldman and Kernis, 2002; Ilies et al., 2005). It is demonstrated that authenticity generates a wide range of positive effects among workers as they find a meaningful job (Ménard and Brunet, 2011; Reich et al., 2013). However, there is a growing need for empirical investigation of authenticity in the workplace (Knoll et al., 2015). Moreover, a large proportion of the current measures consider authenticity to be a stable state instead of relating it to a context (Metin et al., 2016). As far as we know, the concept of authenticity has been studied in different environments, but what human values lead employees to be authentic in their everyday work, and how being authentic contributes to work engagement, among employees of faith-based organizations, have not been examined.

Direct Relationship Between Human Values and Work Engagement

Human values play an essential role in determining how personality is manifested in behavior (Cropanzano et al., 1992), and an indisputable reality is that human values hold a principal position in institutions with a strong social mission, such as faith-based entities. In addition, as explained before, there is a positive direct relationship between work engagement and spiritual resources, as the link with God generates more

work engagement in religious workers than in other groups of people (Bickerton et al., 2014). Among these religious and social employees (both with a pronounced social perspective), collectivism (self-transcendence) prevails over individualism (self-enhancement) (Kim, 2012; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018a). Therefore, self-transcendence (benevolence and universalism) should lead workers of faith-based organizations to be more engaged in their work. Although the relationship between self-transcendent values and work engagement has not been extensively explored, some studies of nurses have investigated this relationship. These research demonstrate that there is a significant positive correlation between self-transcendence (understood by Frankl (1992) as the ability of individuals to discover meaning in their lives by being directed toward something or someone other than themselves, a concept quite similar to Schwartz's dimension of self-transcendence) and work engagement (Palmer et al., 2010; Tomic and Tomic, 2010; García-Sierra et al., 2015).

Moreover, these groups of religious and social workers are also characterized by features such as tradition, humility, obedience and social order. Furthermore, some of these groups include nuns or other members of religious orders with a high average age (which is usual in Europe) that are used to having stability and order while providing their service to the community (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018a), which places conservation over openness to change in the context of Schwartz's values. Thus, conservation (understood as tradition, conformity and security by Schwartz's Theory of Human Values) should motivate work engagement in workers of religious organizations. In fact, some authors (Arciniega and González, 2006) affirm that continuance commitment is an intrinsic value of conservation, as this pole of the dimension comprises values related to security and conformity.

Therefore, these statements lead to the following two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Self-transcendence is positively related to work engagement among workers of religious organizations.

Hypothesis 2: Conservation is positively related to work engagement among workers of religious organizations.

Assessing the Mediation Role of Authenticity (Indirect Relationship Between Human Values and Work Engagement)

As explained before, human values hold the main role in determining manifested behavior. In addition, Harter's (2002) definition of authenticity helps to clarify the relationship between human values and authenticity, as he affirms that the last concept involves that both, feelings and thoughts, must be congruent with actions, leading to authentic behaviors. McCarthy (2015) consider that human beings' authenticity depends on the consistent pursuit of self-transcendence. He defends that people have a natural capacity for self-transcendence and are universally called to authenticity. McGhee and Grant (2008) consider that spiritual (which entails for him self-transcendence) people seek

to live an authentic life. They act spiritually, living selflessly and meaningfully while striving to actualize their ultimate concern, and building authentic relationships with others (Bhaskar, 2013). The studies that examine the relationship between human values and authenticity in daily work are very scarce, and we have not identified any studies conducted in the context of faith-based entities.

Due to this lack of studies, to analyze this relationship, this research focuses on the concept of authentic leadership, as spirituality (understood as self-transcendence, self-sacrifice, and a feeling of meaning and purpose) promotes authentic leadership (Klenke, 2007). First, it is important to note that altruism is an essential aspect of authentic leadership (Gardner et al., 2005). Different studies support that focusing on the needs of others, as the final goal, and the recognition of "compassion," lead to a positive view of altruistic behavior (Worchel et al., 1988; Batson, 1998). Kanungo and Mendonca (1996) also discuss altruism and its manifested leadership behaviors of cooperation, helping, charity, and motivating others. These researchers argue that altruistic behavior is fundamental for leaders, as they require being receptive to others and showing an interest in the welfare of the institution and its workers, gaining their trust and commitment. These leaders also need to ensure that the vision and the strategy that they are going to implement are in line with the perspectives of others, as well as with their needs and aspirations for collective achievements.

From this point of view, focusing on authentic leadership, Michie and Gooty (2005) discuss the difference between authentic and inauthentic leaders. These authors, together with Howell and Avolio (1992) and Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), point out that only socialized transformational leaders, concerned with the common good, are considered authentic leaders. Leaders with strong integrity are characterized by internal consistency (including feeling emotions that are coherent with self-transcendent values), which leads to acting in line with values that respect the rights and interests of others. Moreover, Michie and Gooty (2005) explain that those honest leaders, who feel respect and compassion for others, act more consistently on these values without emotional conflict, and are therefore more authentic. These statements about the characteristics of authentic leaders align with Schwarz's self-transcendence construct (benevolence and universalism). Hence, these theories support that self-transcendent values contribute to a work context of high consistency between values and behaviors. Particularly, for this research, the relationship between self-transcendent values and authentic leadership appears to be clear, as most of the managers of the target organization are nuns, or in other words, altruistic leaders who exemplify and demonstrate religious values to others. Therefore, these theories as a whole, building on Schwartz' values, lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Self-transcendence is positively related to authenticity among workers of religious organizations.

Authenticity, understood as authentic living, accepting external influence and self-alienation (Wood et al., 2008), is more likely to manifest, with greater intensity, among those people

who conduct voluntary service. This affirmation is supported by the reason that volunteering is a freely chosen activity (Stebbins, 2004, 2001), and that those volunteers, who feel in an imposed position, role, or identity, contrary to their values, usually choose another voluntary service (Campbell, 2010). This fact leads volunteers to have a free commitment, and therefore, to have a greater degree of authenticity.

Moreover, religious volunteering (Lim and MacGregor, 2012) and participatory activism (Petrova and Tarrow, 2007) are both influenced by personal values. Most people dedicated to volunteering in faith-based organizations or churches place a great deal of importance on God in their lives and pursue traditional values (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018b). Non-secular societies or cultures are more traditional and conservationist and show little tolerance (Inglehart and Baker, 2000), demonstrating an altruistic dedication in volunteering in religious institutions (Choi and DiNitto, 2012; Forbes and Zampelli, 2014; Prouteau and Sardinha, 2015), while secular societies are mostly "modern" and less dedicated to voluntary work (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018b). Then, volunteers in faith-based organizations, who are characterized by conservationist values similar to those of Schwartz, act in an authentic way in their collaborations. However, although this research does not study volunteers, but workers employed by religious organizations, all these studies lead to the hypothesis that conservation (understood as tradition, conformity and security by Schwartz's Theory of Human Values) motivates authenticity in workers of faith-based institutions. We thus propose the following research hypothesis:

> **Hypothesis 4:** Conservation is positively related to authenticity among workers of religious organizations.

There is an increasing need to evaluate the role of authenticity in different areas of life such as work (Ilies et al., 2005). Here, at this point, the question arises as to what extent that work allows employees to act according to their thoughts, beliefs and preferences, is relevant. The research of Sheldon et al. (1997) demonstrates that the low degree of authenticity (across different positions) is related to higher levels of perceived stress, anxiety and depression. Person-Environment (P-E) fit Theory states that stress is a result of the incongruence of the person and his or her environment (Caplan, 1983; Edwards et al., 1998). Misfits between an individual and his or her environment could induce stress and strain, leading to a lower level of wellbeing and work engagement, feeling less comfortable at the work, and losing energy while pretending to be someone else (Van den Bosch and Taris, 2014b). However, workers who feel authentic in their job, being faithful to their values and beliefs, are more intrinsically motivated, being "pulled" toward their work (Van Beek et al., 2012; Emmerich and Rigotti, 2017). In fact, in a study conducted by Ménard and Brunet (2011), managers who perceived that they could be themselves at their jobs tended to find meaning and purpose, as well as satisfaction and emotions, in their occupation. Hence, the perception of having a meaningful job is associated with authenticity.

Moreover, in a study performed by Burks and Robbins (2012), among clinical psychologists, they emphasize the importance of therapists being authentic in their work. These authors notice that the more authentic the therapist could be in a session, the more comfortable the therapists could feel in the conversation, helping them to be more committed to their clients. The study participants admitted that religious beliefs influence these relations, as faith is an intrinsic part of who they are. Being true to one's inner self is connected to positive outcomes and work engagement (Grandey et al., 2012). Authentic employees should fit their job better than inauthentic workers do and present greater performance (Van den Bosch and Taris, 2014b). This relationship is also extrapolated to the field of leadership. A study performed among army action teams, by Hannah et al. (2011), reveals that team leader authenticity is positively related to team authenticity, which leads to greater team productivity.

Focusing on each of the dimensions of authenticity defined by Wood et al. (2008), to be more authentic, the dimension denominated authentic living should show a high level, while accepting external influence and self-alienation must present a low level. Therefore, a positive relation is supposed to exist between the first dimension and work engagement and a negative relation between the last two dimensions and work engagement. Using a sample of 685 employees, Van den Bosch and Taris (2014b) highlight that authenticity at work accounts for, on average, 11% of the variance of different work outcomes. Self-alienation is the hugest predictor of work engagement, followed by authentic living and accepting external influence. Hence, these authors conclude that employees who feel more authentic in their workplace fit better in it and are more energetic and more engaged in their work. In a more recent investigation, performed with 546 participants, Van den Bosch and Taris (2018) demonstrate that high levels of authenticity at work should be associated with higher levels of work engagement. Moreover, in another research developed by Ariza-Montes et al. (2019) among 208 nuns, whose objective is to study work engagement as a mediator variable between authenticity and subjective wellbeing, they demonstrate that there is a significant direct link between those religious workers who act in accordance with their values and work engagement.

As the validity of the studies performed by Van den Bosch and Taris (2014b, 2018) is limited to just employees working in business and financial services, and those performed by Ariza-Montes et al. (2019) is limited to nuns, this research extrapolates this conclusion to all the workers (religious and secular) of a Catholic non-profit religious organization, due to the importance that this type of institutions currently have. Therefore, this research raises the following hypothesis:

> **Hypothesis 5:** Authenticity is positively related to work engagement among workers of religious organizations.

Finally, all these hypotheses lead to the belief that authenticity plays a mediating role between human values and work engagement, as being self-transcendent and conservationist leads not only to a higher level of work engagement, but also to a greater degree of authenticity, which contributes to being more engaged in the workplace. Given these relationships, the following hypotheses are considered:

FIGURE 1 | Research model and working hypotheses. A, authenticity; C, conservation; OC, openness to change; SE, self-enhancement; ST, self-transcendence; WE, work engagement.
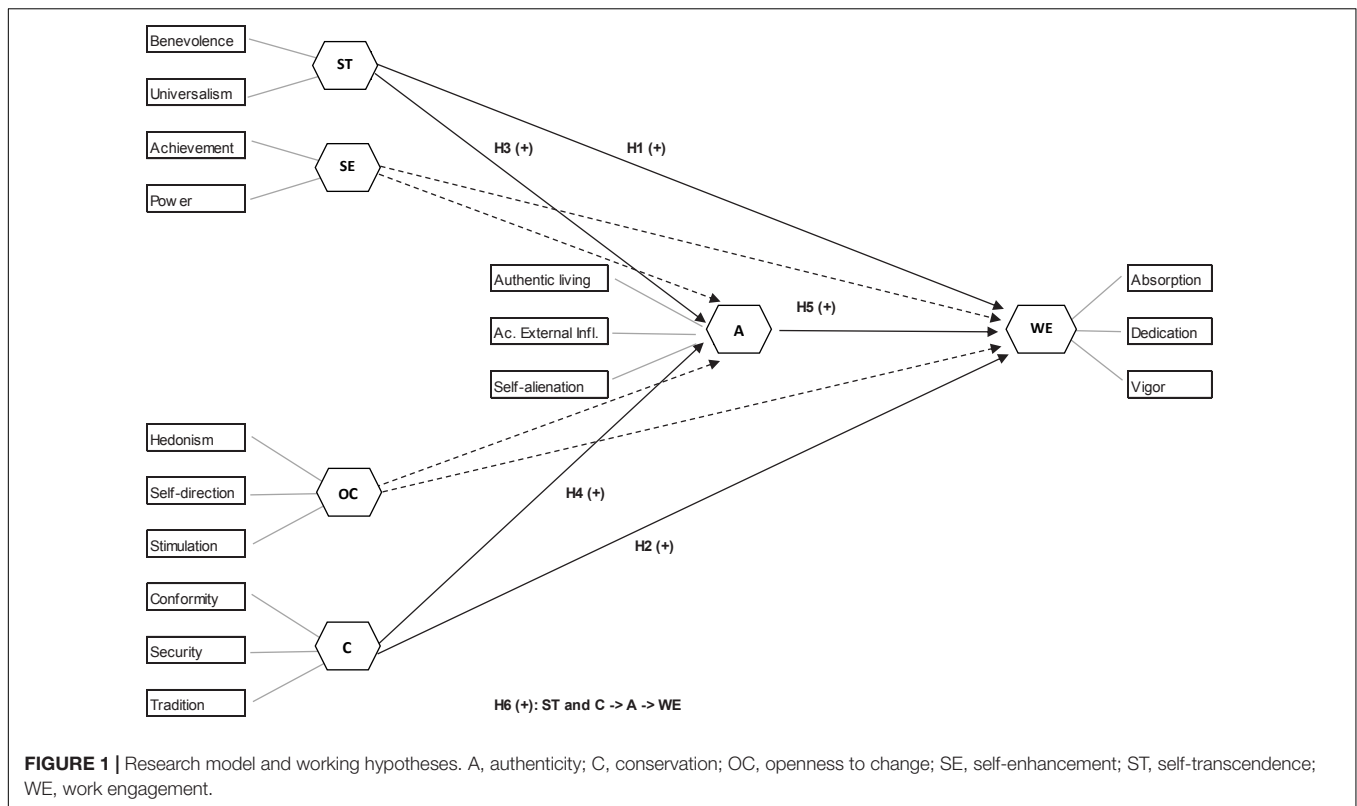
Hypothesis 6a: Authenticity mediates the link between self-transcendent values and work engagement among workers of religious organizations.

Hypothesis 6b: Authenticity mediates the link between conservationist values and work engagement among workers of religious organizations.

Figure 1 summarizes the theoretical model and the research hypotheses.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Data Collection

To conduct this research, a Google Forms survey was mailed to all members of the target institution, which is a Catholic organization with a wide range of branches throughout Spain. The target organization belongs to a community of apostolic life that was founded in France in the seventeenth century. Subsequently, this company expanded to a large number of countries, such as Spain, Switzerland, Italy, Germany, Portugal, Ireland, Greece or the United States. The institution is currently present in 5 continents (93 countries) with more than 20,000 religious workers. They live and serve in places of social priority: hospitals, homes for orphans, schools, shelters for homeless people or for those who suffer disabilities. The mentioned questionnaire mailed to the target institution was accompanied by an explanation of the goals of this investigation. Before participating in the study, all the individuals gave their informed

consent for inclusion. The link to the questionnaire was sent by email to all the respondents, and it was answered on a wide range of devices: computers, smartphones and tablets. All the replies were saved from Google Forms to a spreadsheet in Google Drive. The investigation was performed conforming to the Declaration of Helsinki. The data collection was carried out between April and May 2016. The survey was sent to 1,942 workers, of which 1,014 questionnaires were answered and 938 were valid questionnaires, after rejecting the difference by incomplete parts, resulting in a 48.3% final valid response rate.

Of the 938 respondents, 88.8% are employees, and 11.2% are managers. Moreover, 79.9% are secular, while just 20.1% are religious. Another characteristic of this sample is that most of the workers are women (84.2%; men are just 15.8%), and in terms of sector activity, most of the respondents develop their activity in the education sector (55.2%), and the rest of them belong to the social assistance sector (44.8%), which is formed mainly of social dining rooms, homes for orphans, and residences for elderly people. Other significant demographic data includes that most of the population has completed university studies (70.4%), and the other has finished secondary studies (18.3%) or primary education (11.2%). Finally, the respondents have an average age of 44.9 years.

Measurements

All the variables in this research are measured through validated questionnaires. To assess human values, as stated in Schwartz's Theory of Human Values (Schwartz, 1992), the reduced version of PVQ (Portrait Value Questionnaire), composed of 21 items,

is employed. This instrument measures 10 fundamental values, classified into four higher-order constructs and two orthogonal axes (self-transcendence – self-enhancement and conservation – openness to change). Each of the items defines a person with whom the surveyed could feel identified or not, using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (in no way the description fits me) to 4 (the description closely resembles me). Some illustrations of items are as follows: "It is important to her/him to understand different people" (universalism – self-transcendence); "It is important to her/him to show abilities and be admired" (achievement – self-enhancement); "It is important to her/him to follow traditions and customs" (tradition – conformity); "It is important to her/him to think new ideas and being creative" (self-direction – openness to change). The validity and reliability of PVQ is demonstrated by Schwartz and Rubel-Lifschitz (2009) in diverse environments, achieving reliability indexes ranging from 0.37 to 0.70. This study achieves good quality criteria as all VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) values are lower than 1.5 (see **Table 3**).

To measure work engagement, this study employs the Spanish version (produced by Benevides-Pereira et al., 2009) of UWES (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale), which was developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003). This scale includes the three dimensions that constitute this variable (absorption, dedication and vigor). Each dimension is measured in the questionnaire by three items, according to a Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Then, a larger punctuation represents a higher level of work engagement: absorption (i.e., I feel happy when I am working intensely), dedication (i.e., I am enthusiastic about my job) and vigor (i.e., At my job, I feel strong and vigorous). Different studies (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Demerouti et al., 2015) demonstrate the validity and reliability of this scale. The estimated reliability of this research for the three subscales ranges from 0.723 (absorption) to 0.838 (dedication) (see **Table 3**).

To assess authenticity at work, Van den Bosch and Taris (2014a) developed the IAM (Individual Authenticity Measure at work), which is an adaptation of the authenticity scale designed by Wood et al. (2008). This questionnaire include the three dimensions discussed in the theoretical framework: authentic living (i.e., "At work, I always stand by what I believe in"), accepting external influence (i.e., "I am strongly influenced in the workplace by the opinions of others") and self-alienation (i.e., "I don't feel who I truly am at work"'). Each dimension is composed of 4 items that are ranked applying a Likert scale that ranges from 1 (totally agree) to 5 (totally disagree). Accepting external influence and self-alienation subscales are recoded to be consistent with the subscale for authentic living, in which a higher score represents a greater level of authenticity. Van den Bosch and Taris (2014a) and Metin et al. (2016) demonstrate the scale's reliability. The reliability estimated in this research ranges from 0.728 (authentic living) to 0.781 (accepting external influence) (see **Table 3**).

Data Analysis

This research uses PLS (Partial Least Squares), a variance-based approach of structural equation modeling (SEM) (Roldán and Sánchez-Franco, 2012). This technique was chosen first based on

the properties of the constructs involved in the research model. As theoretical contributions (Rigdon, 2012; Henseler et al., 2014) and empirical simulation studies (Becker et al., 2013; Sarstedt et al., 2016) have confirmed, the application of PLS is appropriate to composite measurement models. In this article, the PLS path modeling estimates are consistent (Rigdon, 2016), and there is no bias (Sarstedt et al., 2016). Lastly, this model has been selected for its adaptability to studies carried out in the field of social science research, as the data tend to be non-normally distributed, the measurement scales are frequently poorly developed, theoretical frameworks lack solid development, the focus is mainly on the prediction of the dependent variables, there are enough ordinal and categorical data, and the research model appears to be quite complicated in relation to the type of links defined in the hypotheses (Roldán and Sánchez-Franco, 2012).

Partial least squares permits the evaluation of the reliability and validity of theoretical constructs' measures, as well as the estimation of the relationships among these constructs (Barroso et al., 2010). This research uses SmartPLS 3.2.8 software, following a two-step approach, to implement the multidimensional superordinate constructs (Chin, 2010). Consequently, using the PLS algorithm, all the items of each dimension are optimally weighted and combined, to build a latent variable score. Later, the first-order factors (dimensions) become the observed indicators of the second-order constructs, which are self-transcendence, self-enhancement, conservation, openness to change, authenticity and work engagement variables (Chin and Gopal, 1995). A construct is a general concept that is estimated either reflective or formative. Hair et al. (2017) explain that if the indicators are highly correlated and interchangeable, they are reflective and estimated in Mode A, and their reliability and validity should be thoroughly examined. Then, their outer loadings, composite reliability, AVE (Average Variance Extracted) and discriminant validity should be examined and reported. However, if the indicators cause the latent variable and are not interchangeable among themselves, they are formative and they will be estimated in Mode B. As such, it is no necessary to report indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, and discriminant validity. It will be examined the validity, the magnitude and significance of the weights, as well as the multicollinearity of the indicators. In social science research, visualizing the measure as an approximation seems more realistic (Rigdon, 2014), what from a conceptual point of view, favors the use of composite (formative) indicators over causal (reflective) indicators. In this study, self-transcendence, self-enhancement, conservation and openness to change are estimated as formative-formative constructs, authenticity as reflective-formative and work engagement as reflective-reflective (Ringle et al., 2012). This article statistically examines the measurement and structural models (Ringle et al., 2015).

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

The main descriptive statistics concerning the first-order dimensions are presented in **Table 1**. As can be observed, the

TABLE 1 | Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations for the study dimensions.

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 Benevolence	3.83	0.39	1															
2 Universalism	3.80	0.37	−0.033	1														
3 Achievement	2.14	0.89	−0.013	0.292**	1													
4 Power	1.77	0.65	0.197**	0.076*	0.161**	1												
5 Conformity	3.13	0.77	0.180**	0.119**	0.220**	0.003	1											
6 Security	3.34	0.70	0.216**	0.156**	0.134**	0.310**	−0.025	1										
7 Tradition	3.61	0.55	−0.006	0.603**	0.269**	0.138**	0.185**	0.083*	1									
8 Hedonism	2.81	0.86	0.239**	0.040	0.103**	0.289**	0.036	0.401**	0.051	1								
9 Self-direction	3.26	0.64	−0.161**	0.186**	0.087**	−0.090**	−0.089**	−0.100*	0.053	−0.058	1							
10 Stimulation	2.67	0.79	−0.223**	0.092**	0.029	−0.074*	−0.171**	−0.072*	−0.020	−0.052	0.473**	1						
11 Authentic living	4.24	0.65	0.427**	0.052	0.028	0.186**	0.139**	0.275**	0.105**	0.333**	−0.174**	−0.249**	1					
12 Ac. external influence	4.08	1.00	0.012	0.201**	0.365**	0.013	0.290**	0.058	0.230**	0.110**	−0.018	−0.048	0.029	1				
13 Self-alienation	3.62	1.02	−0.023	0.418**	0.280**	0.175**	0.065*	0.079*	0.337**	0.084**	0.188**	0.115**	0.050	0.122**	1			
14 Absorption	4.26	0.70	0.027	0.340**	0.514**	0.194**	0.163**	0.102**	0.251**	0.194**	0.039	−0.017	0.038	0.336**	0.250**	1		
15 Dedication	4.55	0.65	0.235**	0.083*	0.228**	0.166**	0.359**	0.081*	0.192**	0.224**	−0.126**	−0.155**	0.295**	0.291**	0.126**	0.263**	1	
16 Vigor	4.31	0.70	−0.062	0.749**	0.295**	0.064	0.158**	0.133**	0.575**	0.028	0.189**	0.157**	−0.017	0.242**	0.387**	0.286**	0.076*	1

**$p < 0.01$; *$p < 0.05$.

subjects denote a high level of self-transcendence (benevolence: 3.83; universalism: 3.80) and a low level of self-enhancement (achievement: 2.14; power: 1.77), while in other Schwartz's dimension, conservation shows an elevated mean (tradition: 3.61; security: 3.34; conformity: 3.13) and a medium level of openness to change (self-direction: 3.26; hedonism: 2.81; stimulation: 2.67), being the minimum 1 and the maximum 4 on a Likert scale. Authenticity also shows a remarkable level in all its dimensions (authentic living: 4.24; accepting external influence: 4.08; self-alienation: 3.62; of a minimum level of 1 and maximum of 5). Last, all dimensions of work engagement denote an elevated mean (dedication: 4.55; vigor: 4.31; absorption: 4.26; of a minimum level of 1 and maximum of 5). **Table 1** also reveals that most of the correlations between dimensions are statically significant and consistent with the suggested models (Modes A and B).

Common Method Bias

Before assessing a PLS model, a statistical technique is employed to identify a potential CMB (Common Method Bias) situation. This approach consists of a full collinearity test based on VIFs (Variance Inflation Factors) to assess both vertical and lateral collinearity. A VIF achieving a value higher than 3.3 indicated pathological collinearity. This indication warned that a model could be contaminated by CMB (Kock and Lynn, 2012; Kock, 2015). As displayed in **Table 2**, the present model is free of CMB, as it attains a maximum VIF of 1.380.

PLS Models

To assess PLS results, we follow a two stages approach: first, testing the reliability and validity of both measurement models and, second, evaluating the significance of the paths between the constructs of the structural model. Lastly, we assess the predictive validity of the research model.

Measurement Models

Both measurement models, measurement model 1 (for first-order dimensions) in **Table 3**, and measurement model 2 (for second-order constructs) in **Table 4**, show acceptable results. Both measurement models satisfy the requirements of item reliability, as the loadings of those first-order dimensions and second-order constructs estimated on Mode A are generally higher than 0.707 (**Tables 3**, **4**; Carmines and Zeller, 1979). Just two of the outer loadings of the indicators are slightly below this critical level (**Table 3**). However, we decide to maintain them to keep the content validity of the scale (Hair et al., 2011). They also

TABLE 2 | Full collinearity VIFs.

	A	WE
A		1.151
C	1.240	1.242
OC	1.067	1.080
SE	1.010	1.013
ST	1.279	1.380

A, authenticity; C, conservation; OC, openness to change; SE, self-enhancement; ST, self-transcendence; WE, work engagement.

TABLE 3 | Measurement model 1 and reliability and validity.

Variable	Outer loadings	Outer weights	VIF
Benevolence			
Important to help people and care for others wellbeing		0.806***	1.142
Important to be loyal to friends and devote to close people		0.372***	1.142
Universalism			
Important that people are treated equally and have equal opportunities		0.360***	1.070
Important to understand different people		0.655***	1.108
Important to care for nature and environment		0.386***	1.113
Achievement			
Important to show abilities and be admired		0.412**	1.400
Important to be successful and that people recognize achievements		0.717***	1.400
Power			
Important to be rich, have money and expensive things		0.756***	1.044
Important to get respect from others		0.518	1.044
Conformity			
Important to do what is told and follow rules		0.537***	1.085
Important to behave properly		0.707***	1.085
Security			
Important to live in secure and safe surroundings		0.146	1.115
Important that government is strong and ensures safety		0.944***	1.115
Tradition			
Important to be humble and modest, not draw attention		0.534***	1.010
Important to follow traditions and customs		0.795***	1.010
Hedonism			
Important to have a good time		−0.089	1.321
Important to seek fun and things that give pleasure		1.041**	1.321
Self-direction			
Important to think new ideas and being creative		0.920***	1.036
Important to make own decisions and be free		0.256	1.036
Stimulation			
Important to try new and different things in life		1.063**	1.243
Important to seek adventures and have an exciting life		−0.169	1.243
Autentic living			
I am true to myself at work in most situations	0.834***		
At work, I always stand by what I believe in	0.533***		
I behave in accordance with my values and beliefs in the workplace	0.839***		
I find it easier to get on with people in the workplace	0.739***		
Accepting external influence			
At work, I feel alienated	0.496***		
I do not feel who I truly am at work	0.719***		
At work, I feel out of touch with the "real me'	0.882***		
In my working environment I feel "cut off" from who I really am	0.880***		
Self-alienation			
At work, I feel the need to do what others expect me to do	0.798***		
I am strongly influenced in the workplace by the opinions of others	0.753***		
Other people influence me greatly at work	0.741***		
At work, I behave in a manner that people expect me to behave	0.807***		
Absorption			
I feel happy when I am working intensely	0.763***		
I am immersed in my job	0.869***		
I get carried away when I am working	0.771***		
Dedication			
I am enthusiastic about my job	0.914***		
My job inspires me	0.874***		
I am proud of the work that I do	0.820***		

(Continued)

TABLE 3 | Continued

Variable	Outer loadings	Outer weights	VIF
Vigor			
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	0.883***		
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	0.886***		
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	0.773***		

The loadings and weights significance was estimated by bootstrap 95% confidence interval (based on n = 5000 subsamples). ***p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05 (based on t (4999), two-tailed test).

	Construct reliability and validity			
	Cronbach's alpha	**rho_A**	**Composite reliability**	**Average Variance Extracted (AVE)**
Absorption	0.723	0.742	0.844	0.644
Authentic living	0.728	0.769	0.83	0.557
Dedication	0.838	0.842	0.903	0.757
Accepting external influence	0.781	0.795	0.858	0.601
Self-alienation	0.738	0.789	0.84	0.579
Vigor	0.805	0.818	0.885	0.721

	Discriminant validity					
	Fornell-Lacker					
	Absorption	Authentic living	Dedication	Accepting external influence	Self-alienation	Vigor
Absorption	*0.802*					
Authentic living	0.369	*0.747*				
Dedication	0.637	0.453	*0.870*			
Accepting external influence	−0.009	0.122	0.082	*0.775*		
Self-alienation	0.075	0.237	0.199	0.466	*0.761*	
Vigor	0.596	0.423	0.744	0.152	0.204	*0.849*

satisfy the requirements of construct reliability, as the Cronbach's alpha, Jöreskog's rho (rho_A) and composite reliability (CR) are higher than 0.7 (**Tables 3**, **4**; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1967). Last, all first-order dimensions and second-order constructs reach convergent validity since the AVE is over the 0.5 critical level (**Tables 3**, **4**; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Finally, **Tables 3**, **4** also show that based on the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Henseler et al., 2015), diagonal elements (**Tables 3**, **4**) are the square root of the variance shared between the constructs and their measures (AVE). Therefore, those estimated on Mode A satisfy the discriminant validity requirements, as diagonal elements are higher than off-diagonal elements, with off-diagonal items representing the correlations among the constructs.

Concerning those first-order dimensions and second-order constructs estimated on Mode B, the examination starts by testing the potential multicollinearity between the items (Roldán and Sánchez-Franco, 2012). Petter et al. (2007) affirm that a VIF value greater than 3.3 is a signal of high multicollinearity. Nevertheless, Ringle et al. (2015) defend that multicollinearity should be a concern only if VIF values are over the 5 critical level. In this case, the maximum VIF statistic for first-order dimensions and second-order constructs is 1.423, below both thresholds, so multicollinearity is not a concern. Finally, this investigation examines the magnitude and significance of the weights (**Tables 3**, **4**). Weights offer data concerning how each

item contributes to the respective dimensions and constructs (Chin, 1998), allowing to place the indicators according to their contribution. A measure is relevant for a composite construct when the significance level is at least 0.05 (Roldán and Sánchez-Franco, 2012). Hence, in both models estimated in Mode B, most of the measures are significant (**Tables 3**, **4**). We decide to maintain all of them to keep the content validity of the scale (Hair et al., 2011).

Structural Model

In accordance with Hair et al.'s (2014), this research applies a bootstrapping technique (5,000 re-samples) to produce the standard errors, t-statistics, p-values and 95% BCCIs (Bias-Corrected Confidence Intervals). They permit the evaluation of the statistical significance for the hypothesized relationships (both direct and indirect). **Table 5** displays the principal parameters obtained to assess the structural model. The main criterion for measuring the explained variance of the endogenous constructs is the coefficient of determination (R^2). Our results show that the structural model presents acceptable predictive relevance for the endogenous construct work engagement ($R^2 = 0.319$). The mediating variable authenticity offers a lower coefficient of determination ($R^2 = 0.134$), which is because it is a construct that contributes to explaining the variance of work engagement and is in part explained by the constructs of

TABLE 4 | Measurement model 2 and reliability and validity.

Variable	Outer loadings	Outer weights	VIF
Benevolence		0.557***	1.423
Universalism		0.581***	1.423
Achievement		−0.788	1.203
Power		1.019**	1.203
Conformity		0.250**	1.175
Security		0.428***	1.182
Tradition		0.655***	1.139
Hedonism		0.050	1.079
Self-direction		0.539***	1.104
Stimulation		0.682***	1.150
Authentic living		0.984***	1.058
Accepting external influence		−0.062	1.276
Self-alienation		0.085	1.331
Absorption	0.836***		
Dedication	0.910***		
Vigor	0.888***		

*The loadings and weights significance was estimated by bootstrap 95% confidence interval (based on n = 5000 subsamples) ***p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05 (based on t (4999), two-tailed test).*

Construct reliability and validity			
	Cronbach's alpha	rho_A	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
WE	0.852	0.857	0.910	0.772

WE, work engagement

Discriminant validity					
Fornell-Lacker					
	A	C	OC	SE	ST	WE
WE	0.475	0.302	0.212	−0.103	0.404	*0.879*

A, authenticity; C, conservation; OC, openness to change; SE, self-enhancement; ST, self-transcendence; WE, work engagement.

human values, but most of its variance is not explicated by the constructs (**Table 5**).

As shown in **Table 5**, the structural model confirms the direct and positive relationships between the dimensions of both self-transcendence (H1) (path coefficient: 0.196***; *t*-value: 3.862) and conservation (H2) (path coefficient: 0.140***; *t*-value: 4.363) of Schwartz's human values and work engagement, confirming that there is no direct relationship between the opposite dimension of self-transcendence, which is self-enhancement, and work engagement. Hence, these results lead to the conclusion that there is empirical evidence to support H1 and H2. However, surprisingly, they show that there is also a direct relationship between the opposite dimension of conservation according to Schwartz, which is openness to change, and work engagement (path coefficient: 0.081*; *t*-value: 2.418), although this direct relationship is less intense than the first one (conservation–work engagement), which is supported by the literature.

The structural model (**Table 5**) also supports the direct and positive relationship between self-transcendence and authenticity (H3) (path coefficient: 0.306***; *t*-value: 5.002), rejecting the relationship between its opposite dimension, self-enhancement and authenticity. Nevertheless, the results do not support a direct relationship between conservation and authenticity (H4) (path coefficient: 0.019; *t*-value: 0.459), supporting the direct relation of its opposite dimension, openness to change–authenticity (path coefficient: 0.090*; *t*-value: 2.524). Hence, these results contribute to the conclusion that there is empirical evidence to sustain H3, as well as the opposite dimension of H4 (openness to change–authenticity). This structural model also describes a significant positive direct effect between authenticity and work engagement (H5) (path coefficient: 0.367***; *t*-value: 8.721), which means that there is empirical evidence to sustain H5.

This article also conducts a mediation analysis. In PLS a step-wise approach is not necessary, as it is able to test mediating effects in a single model at once (Nitzl et al., 2016). The steps proposed by Zhao et al. (2010), and later supported by others

TABLE 5 | Structural model.

R² WE = 0.319 R² A = 0.134 relationship	Path coefficient	*T*-statistics	*P*-values	2.5%	97.5%	Significance
Direct Effects						
ST - > A	**0.306**	**5.002**	**0.000*****	**0.183**	**0.421**	**Sig.**
ST - > WE	**0.196**	**3.862**	**0.000*****	**0.095**	**0.294**	**Sig.**
SE - > A	−0.056	1.049	0.294	−0.154	0.069	No Sig.
SE - > WE	−0.052	1.260	0.208	−0.116	0.047	No Sig.
C - > A	0.019	0.459	0.647	−0.072	0.095	No Sig.
C - > WE	**0.140**	**4.363**	**0.000*****	**0.075**	**0.201**	**Sig.**
OC - > A	**0.090**	**2.524**	**0.012***	**0.009**	**0.152**	**Sig.**
OC - > WE	**0.081**	**2.418**	**0.016***	**0.013**	**0.142**	**Sig.**
A - > WE	**0.367**	**8.721**	**0.000*****	**0.283**	**0.447**	**Sig.**
Indirect Effects						
ST - > A - > WE	**0.112**	**4.387**	**0.000*****	**0.067**	**0.167**	**Sig.**
SE - > A - > WE	−0.021	1.022	0.307	−0.061	0.023	No Sig.
C - > A - > WE	0.007	0.460	0.646	−0.026	0.035	No Sig.
OC - > A - > WE	**0.033**	**2.507**	**0.012***	**0.004**	**0.057**	**Sig.**

*A, authenticity; C, conservation; OC, openness to change; SE, self-enhancement; ST, self-transcendence; WE, work engagement. Bootstrapping 95% confidence intervals bias corrected (based on n = 5000 subsamples). ***p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05 [based on t (4999), two-tailed test]. Relevant relationships in bold.*

authors such as Nitzl et al. (2016) and Hair et al. (2017), for the mediator analysis procedure are the following: first, determining the significance of the indirect effect; second, determining the type of effect or of mediation. Then, this model proves that there is an indirect positive and significant relationship between self-transcendence and work engagement (H6a) (path coefficient: 0.112***; *t*-value: 4.387), partially mediated by

authenticity, as the direct effect self-transcendence-work engagement is also significant and positive (rejecting a significant indirect effect of authenticity on the self-enhancement-work engagement link). There is also empirical evidence to sustain the indirect positive and significant relationship between openness to change and work engagement (path coefficient: 0.033*; *t*-value: 2.507). This link is partially mediated by authenticity,

TABLE 6 | Partial least squares prediction assessment.

Construct Prediction Summary		Dimension Prediction Summary	
	Q^2		Q^2
A	−0.26	Autentic living	0.108
WE	−0.06	Accepting external influence	−0.005
		Self-alienation	−0.005
		Dedication	0.153
		Vigor	0.132
		Absorption	0.137

	Indicator Prediction Summary								
	PLS			LM			PLS-LM		
	RMSE	MAE	Q^2_predict	RMSE	MAE	Q^2_predict	RMSE	MAE	Q^2_predict
I am true to myself at work in most situations	0.724	0.581	16.502	0.078	0.730	0.577	0.646	−0.149	15.925
At work, I always stand by what I believe in	1.071	0.879	36.690	0.019	1.067	0.860	1.052	−0.188	35.830
I behave in accordance with my values and beliefs in the workplace	0.763	0.571	17.906	0.065	0.769	0.571	0.698	−0.198	17.335
I find it easier to get on with people in the workplace	0.889	0.663	23.429	0.063	0.900	0.664	0.826	−0.237	22.765
At work, I feel alienated	1.417	1.223	57.083	0.013	1.410	1.211	1.404	−0.187	55.872
I do not feel who I truly am at work	1.351	1.101	50.862	0.008	1.356	1.098	1.343	−0.255	49.764
At work, I feel out of touch with the "real me"	1.185	0.907	38.927	0.016	1.193	0.909	1.169	−0.286	38.018
In my working environment I feel "cut off" from who I really am	1.128	0.851	35.979	0.032	1.134	0.848	1.096	−0.283	35.131
At work, I feel the need to do what others expect me to do	1.363	1.154	56.269	0.047	1.365	1.154	1.316	−0.211	55.115
I am strongly influenced in the workplace by the opinions of others	1.102	0.878	33.997	0.030	1.108	0.879	1.072	−0.23	33.118
Other people influence me greatly at work	1.140	0.939	36.325	0.031	1.146	0.943	1.109	−0.207	35.382
At work, I behave in a manner that people expect me to behave	1.320	1.107	52.607	0.072	1.330	1.111	1.248	−0.223	51.496
I feel happy when I am working intensely	0.778	0.618	18.185	0.067	0.777	0.608	0.711	−0.159	17.577
I am immersed in my job	0.698	0.560	15.211	0.107	0.700	0.559	0.591	−0.140	14.652
I get carried away when I am working	1.015	0.797	30.009	0.062	1.018	0.798	0.953	−0.221	29.211
I am enthusiastic about my job	0.721	0.567	15.806	0.126	0.719	0.560	0.595	−0.152	15.246
My job inspires me	0.776	0.600	18.056	0.089	0.769	0.592	0.687	−0.169	17.464
I am proud of the work that I do	0.600	0.425	11.812	0.120	0.609	0.426	0.480	−0.184	11.386
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	0.776	0.634	17.883	0.091	0.778	0.633	0.685	−0.144	17.250
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	0.703	0.588	15.620	0.114	0.709	0.592	0.589	−0.121	15.028
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	0.886	0.702	22.378	0.069	0.874	0.681	0.817	−0.172	21.697

as the direct effect openness to change-work engagement is also significant and positive (rejecting H6b, since the model shows that there is not a significant indirect relationship between conservation and work engagement, and then, no mediation). Thus, the results lead authenticity to be a mediating variable between human values and work engagement, being a complementary partial mediation (Zhao et al., 2010; Nitzl et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2017).

Assessment of the Predictive Validity Using Holdout Samples

This research also aims to develop a prediction model. Explanation and prediction follow two different aims that could be combined in an investigation (Shmueli, 2010; Dolce et al., 2017). A model's predictive ability refers to the capability of producing accurate predictions of further observations, independent of their temporal or cross-sectional nature (Shmueli and Koppius, 2011). Predictive validity explains that a given group of measures, of a specific construct, can predict a certain outcome variable (Straub et al., 2004). Hence, this investigation evaluates the predictive ability of the suggested research model, through the use of cross-validation with holdout samples (Evermann and Tate, 2016), employing the PLS predict algorithm (Shmueli et al., 2016) available in the SmartPLS software version 3.2.8 (Ringle et al., 2015). To assess whether the research model entails predictive ability, this study checks the Q^2 value. Positive Q^2 values indicate that the prediction error of PLS results is smaller than the prediction error of just utilizing the mean values. In this way, the RMSE (Root Mean Squared Error) and the MAE (Mean Absolute Error) are the statics used to predict error. Therefore, positive Q^2 values indicate that the proposed research model presents appropriate predictive ability. Consequently, due to the findings explained above, the research model has enough evidence to confirm its predictive validity (out-of-sample prediction), to forecast values for new cases of the dimensions of authentic living, dedication, vigor and absorption, as well as for all the indicators (**Table 6**). Therefore, the proposed research model of this article obtains additional support from this predictive validity.

DISCUSSION

The study of religious organizations is increasingly important. These entities have become main players in particular activities of the services sector (i.e., social services, education and healthcare), and their contributions are essential to maintain the welfare state. In fact, the number of non-profit entities continues to expand within the global economy, and, nowadays, they play a leading role in the European economic and social framework (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). These organizations do not consider the maximization of their economic value as an end. In contrast, their inspiring principles lie in other sets of priorities that are not of economic nature, such as aligning people with the identity values of the organization.

The current study analyses the role of human values as a significant predictor of work engagement and examines the

mediating function of authenticity in this relationship. These links have rarely been addressed, much less in the unexplored context of faith-based entities. To achieve this goal, a Catholic religious organization with a strong presence in Spain is studied, in which approximately 1,000 workers of the educational and social sector are analyzed. In addition, an integral model of the mentioned relationship between human values, authenticity and work engagement is designed, in which both direct and indirect links are proposed. To this end, a model of structural equations is applied to verify the hypotheses raised in this study.

As will be verified below, the achieved results provide very valuable evidence to understand the functioning of religious organizations in critical aspects for their long-term survival, such as the work engagement of their employees.

First, the main claim of this research is that certain human values contribute positively to increasing work engagement among employees of religious organizations. Self-transcendent, and interestingly enough, both of the poles of the dimension conservation versus openness to change (although the latter less intensely), may be related to greater work engagement in these entities. In this line, other studies have confirmed that values predict a series of actions and that these relationships seem to be causal (Verplanken and Holland, 2002; Sagiv et al., 2011). Then, the obtained results are consistent with previous investigations that studied the relationship between self-transcendence and work engagement among nurses (Palmer et al., 2010; Tomic and Tomic, 2010; García-Sierra et al., 2015). These findings suggest that given the social work carried out by religious organizations, altruism is an essential value for achieving the mobilization and selfless commitment of its employees, which will necessarily result in a better quality of service.

Second, the results affirming that conservationist workers may be engaged in faith-based institutions are also in line with investigations explaining that these groups are characterized by values such as tradition, obedience, social order and humility (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018a). In these entities, there is a positive direct relationship between spiritual resources and work engagement (Bickerton et al., 2014). Moreover, some authors such as Arciniega and González (2006) defend conservation is a predictor of continuance commitment. They explain that this commitment or perceived cost of leaving the company is an intrinsic value of conservation, as some groups feel a moral obligation to remain within an organization. In the study entity, there are groups of nuns or other workers, who have spent most of their work lives in this organization, that are used to provide their service with order and stability.

Third, the results suggesting that hedonism, stimulation and self-direction are also positively related to work engagement are consistent with previous investigations among workers from non-religious for-profit entities (Schaufeli et al., 2001; Langelaan, 2007). These authors find that engaged employees feel energetic and in control, are intensely involved in demanding and challenging tasks, and are flexible and open to change, adapting quickly to modifications of their environment. This last relationship may explain why engaged workers keep looking for new tasks in their jobs (Sonnentag, 2003), moving from them when they no longer feel challenged (Schaufeli et al., 2001).

However, our findings probably offer the first empirical evidence to validate the relationships between self-transcendent, conservationist and open to change values and work engagement among workers of religious organizations.

Fourth, this article considers authenticity as an end in itself for faith-based entities. Then, it proposes that self-transcendent and conservationist values exert a positive impact on authenticity in employees of religious organizations. This approach is not fully validated since the results confirm that while self-transcendent workers are more authentic, the hypothesis about conservation is not supported. Surprisingly, it is suggested that those who are open to change are the ones who exemplify authenticity. The obtained findings about self-transcendent employees are consistent with the results of authors studying the personality of authentic leaders (Howell and Avolio, 1992; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999; Michie and Gooty, 2005); however, the results achieved in the present article could offer the first empirical evidence to validate the relationship between self-transcendence and authenticity in workers in religious entities. On the other hand, our conclusions about open to change employees are not in line with previous studies performed with volunteers, who are characterized by conservationist values (Inglehart and Baker, 2000) and act in an authentic way in their volunteerism (Campbell, 2010). Moreover, as far as we know, the relationship between both poles of the last dimension (conservation-openness to change) and authenticity has not been studied among personnel of religious organizations. The importance of authenticity for workers is in concordance with other investigations that affirm that young employees currently choose jobs that match their own personal values (Sortheix et al., 2015; Jonkmans et al., 2016). They want to feel that they can express who they are at their jobs, without being judged negatively or missing development and promotion opportunities. Employees who feel more inauthentic are more likely to behave unethically, resulting in workplace misconduct, such as dishonest financial or social behavior (Ebrahimi et al., 2019). The predominant values of this group are stimulation, self-direction and hedonism (Crumpacker and Crumpacker, 2007), which constitute the openness to change dimension. These studies about young workers could explain the unexpected results of positive relations between openness to change and authenticity.

Fifth, we tested the hypothesis of whether authenticity has a positive relationship with work engagement among employees of religious organizations. The developed partial least squares analysis confirms that those people who can act in accordance with their ideas and beliefs in the workplace present higher levels of vigor, dedication and absorption. These conclusions are in line with prior studies that probe that authenticity in the workplace increases work engagement (Grandey et al., 2012; Van den Bosch and Taris, 2014b, 2018; Ariza-Montes et al., 2019); however, our results could be placed among the first studies of the personnel (secular and religious) of social faith-based entities. Due to the strong demands associated with many of the jobs that are carried out in the social sector (in which workers deal with terminally ill people, battered women or children with serious disabilities, among others), it is likely that the level of authenticity and work engagement, in these employees, is greater than those of workers

in different sectors of activity. Therefore, the confirmation of this hypothesis acquires greater relevance in the analyzed context, allowing those workers who live in a more authentic way with their activity to be more engaged and therefore transmit their values while providing the service at the same time as those of the organization.

Finally, this research examines the mediating function of authenticity in the relationship between human values (hypothesizing self-transcendence and conservation) and work engagement in workers of religious entities, which, to the best of our knowledge, has not been addressed before. Authenticity constitutes a fundamental piece in this relationship since being comfortable and acting in a way consistent with one's beliefs and personal values can be a determining factor in the development of feelings of belonging to different groups, perhaps especially so in faith-based entities (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). Moreover, the capability of being authentic in the workplace is conditioned by organizational goals (Freeman and Auster, 2011). Hence, the main contribution of this research lies in demonstrating that the probability of being more engaged in the organization should increase among those self-transcendent and open to change members who can act authentically, according to their values and beliefs at work. However, although for those individuals who present self-transcendent and open to change values, a strategy of authenticity at work would increase their work engagement, the results show that this could not be an appropriate option for conservationist workers. Then, these conclusions convert authenticity into an instrument of the organization to help to increase the engagement of those workers who hold specific human values. In addition, it is noteworthy that low levels of self-enhancement values do not contribute to more work engagement or more authenticity. Here arises a very controversial issue and conclusion, since it is a matter of maximization of self-transcendent values but not minimization of self-enhancement values. These results contribute to the governance of religious institutions to identify what types of values should be sought after when selecting potential employees or what kinds of attitudes work with actual employees. Low engagement in the organization is an unsatisfactory situation that affects not only the company but also the individual (Schnell et al., 2013). In fact, the average age of religious workers is getting higher, and most of the time, they are the people who are leading these entities. In the very near future, given the lack of religious vocations, lay members will have to assume the direction of much of the social work that is currently carried out by religious entities. This makes it quite important to identify those lay employees who act in accordance with their beliefs, share the institution's values and are engaged in their jobs to continue to provide the services of the organization while transmitting its values.

Employees play a fundamental role in the corporate image that an organization transmits to society. This statement acquires even more importance in service entities, given the close relationship that exists between the service provider and the service user. This statement is even stronger in social services organizations, whether they are religious or not. The present investigation confirms that the human values that guide the character of the employees of the analyzed entity are benevolence and

universalism, which are positively related to a higher level of authenticity and work engagement. Then, the self-transcendence, authenticity and work engagement of employees should be projected outward (to the general public, to users, to public administration, etc.), contributing to improving the reputational corporate image of the institution in its closest environment.

This article obtains notable implications when examining the most intense values and feelings of workers. The relevant implications include both theoretical (generating healthier work environments in which workers can act in accordance with their values and beliefs and are more engaged in their work, which is a very useful contribution to the governance of these organizations) and practical results (identifying within religious institutions those human values that increase the level of authenticity and work engagement of their workers, and designing preventive policies that increase these levels). Any progress in the direction of human values and emotions of individuals in the workplace improves the functioning of institutions and promotes services to enrich the society, what is the final goal of these institutions. Additionally, this study adds the opportunity to improve the lives of workers of faith-based entities, with strategies that allow them to be more authentic according to their thoughts and beliefs, while simultaneously increasing their work engagement. These circumstances could advise the implementation of training activities oriented to improve the levels of authenticity of the employees of these institutions.

CONCLUSION

The conclusions derived from this research are consistent with the idiosyncrasies that characterize religious institutions. The faith-based entity analyzed in this article exhibits two main aspects by being a religious organization (whose principal purpose is transmitting its institutional values) and a service institution. First, this religious circumstance implies that its objective is not only to have engaged employees but also to have employees who live their work in an authentic way (Canda, 1989). The fact that authenticity is one of the main goals of this type of institution is what probably makes the research model works, something that could not occur in a profit and non-religious company. The personality of the individuals working in them is also in line with the results, as they are usually people who care about others and appreciate places that allow them to act in accordance with their ideas and beliefs (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017), or in other words, people with high levels of self-transcendent values and authenticity. Second, the faith-based organization is not the only differentiating factor; so too is the sector to which it belongs. Usually, the activities that are developed in the social service sector, such as in residences for the elderly or educational entities, are vocational (Elson, 2006). This means that values such as societal contribution, social justice, work-life balance and supportive management practices prevail in their workers (Winter and Jackson, 2014). Social environments demand social skills, reward helpful behavior, provide opportunities for the appearance of compassion or sympathy, and encourage the presentation of cooperative and

charitable values. Hence, employees working in the social field show a personality characterized by interpersonal skills, prefer working with people to working with things, and value social service and caring or educating others (Don Gottfredson and Duffy, 2008). These characteristics of the social sector highlight the relevance of being engaged at work, as generally, these jobs are personally demanding. This range of demands means that, in some cases, people working in this sector prefer an entity that shares their values and allows them to develop as a person, although it implies, for instance, a lower salary, than another one with more advantageous economic conditions that do not enable them to be authentic. Authenticity is very valued by employees (Ménard and Brunet, 2011; Reich et al., 2013), and most of the entities try to be a model in this concept, becoming an objective itself and a way to achieve work engagement.

Hence, this study covers a large investigation gap in the relatively unexplored context of religious organizations, demonstrating the fundamental role that human values play as predictors of authenticity and work engagement, and that authenticity mediates the relationship between human values and work engagement. Two valuable conclusions are obtained from this research. First, the more self-transcendent and conservationist (or open to change, although less intensely) the workers of religious organizations are, the more engaged they may be in their work. Second, in this relationship, there is a mediating role exercised by authenticity (which is an end in itself for faith-based institutions), which makes this variable a key feature to work on. Following this last strategy, those workers who are self-transcendent and open to change could be more engaged in their work and within the organization.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH LINES

In spite of the contributions, both theoretical and practical, this research is not without some methodological limitations. First, the information was obtained through self-reports, which could cause a response bias, which, according to de Carvalho et al. (2015), could be improved with objective measures. Second, although the results of this research could be extrapolated to other faith-based organizations and other companies in the third sector, they are based on the Catholic institution where the research was conducted, and even though it has an international perspective, this institution is placed in the particular geographic area of Spain. Third, the research model implies two chains that flow in the first case from a predictor variable (human values) to a mediator variable (authenticity) to an outcome variable (work engagement), and in the second case directly from the predictor variable to the outcome variable. Nevertheless, such propositions should not be rigorously assessed based on the cross-sectional data available for this research. Longitudinal data would help to address the possible existence of causal relations between these variables. Finally, another limitation is that while PLS is appropriate for investigations developed within the social sciences, it also has some caveats that should be taken into account in the analysis of the results (e.g., McIntosh et al., 2014).

This manuscript also counts with some other additional limitations. The high value placed on tradition, conformity and security, within the target religious organization, could likely be because the sample of this study is mainly composed of women workers who are into middle and deep age. Some investigations, such as Adams (2016), say that women are more conservationist than men are and that they reinforce these values as years go by. Then, some future lines of investigation could incorporate age and gender as moderator variables of the studied relationships.

Although this research is developed in the context of a religious organization, some of the obtained evidence could be useful for for-profit companies. These companies are increasingly looking for new management models that go beyond economic incentives and allow workers to find meaning in their work, thereby achieving engaged workers. In addition, workers are increasingly searching for companies that allow them to act according to their values and beliefs. Future research lines could prove that this model is also valid in for-profit entities.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

ETHICS STATEMENT

Ethical review and approval was not required for the study on human participants in accordance with the local legislation and institutional requirements. The patients/participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors listed have made a substantial, direct and intellectual contribution to the work, and approved it for publication.

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Social Accounting as an Enabling Tool to Develop Collective Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the Diocese of Bilbao

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Religious oriented organizations (ROOs) have frequently higher levels of motivation among their employees, because the aims of ROOs and those of collaborators and stakeholders are usually aligned. However, sometimes, when the management of ROOs becomes professionalized, tensions between aims and efficiency are more frequent, and productivity levels start to decline. The most widespread current management theories are focused on profit maximization and are not especially helpful to religious organizations which try to enhance their productivity levels and, at the same time, achive their mission and aims. In order to fill this gap, in this research, we will develop two main concepts: social accounting and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). We will propose the use of social accounting to calculate the social value generated by ROOs and, from that point, build new indicators able to measure the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) of collaborators working in ROOs. We will exemplify this theoretical development with the actual case of the diocese of Bilbao. In short, the main objectives of this work are two. The first objective is the development of a theoretical framework able to enhance the levels of social value creation inside religious (and socially oriented) organizations using social accounting. The second objective is the use of data from the 16 educative centers of the diocese of Bilbao to ilustrate that social accounting is a valid tool to measure social value. Additionally, we will show that social accounting can be a tool to assess management decisions in order to enhance organizational and individual OCB in ROOs and, in this way, generate moral satisfaction for employees and collaborators in their organizations.

Keywords: social accounting, organizational citizenship behavior, religious organizations, social organizations, theory of human action, transcendent motivation social performance, stakeholder theory

INTRODUCTION

Social entities with a religious orientation usually have an aim that transcends them and is linked with the desire of helping people in need as a result of professing a particular faith. This transcendent aim is shared frecuently by employees and other stakeholders which are heavily committed to the objectives of the organization and, therefore, show a high productivity level.

However, as this kind of organization becomes more professionalized, it is normal for the aforementioned productivity level to decline. As stated in the prospect theory by Kahneman and Tversky (1979), when managers and employees have to take decisions under uncertainty, they underestimate decisions that lead to probable (but not completely certain) results, whereas they tend to focus on decisions that lead to solutions that will be achieved with total certainty. This trend, also called the certainty effect (Tversky and Kahneman, 1989), can damage the performance of organizations that are devoted to a mission because social results are much more uncertain compared to economic results. This tension between the aim of the organization and economic results (which are instrumental resources) creates conflicts both at the personal and institutional levels between efficiency/ productivity (linked to the optimal use of resources) and effectiveness (achieve the goals of the organization) inside the organization. The most widespread current management theories are focused on profit maximization and are not especially helpful to religious organizations which try to enhance their productivity levels and, at the same time, achieve their mission and aims. In order to fill this gap, in this research, we will develop two main concepts. The first one is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCB is understood as the value generated by an organization above the resources that have been utilized. The second concept is social accounting, which allows the quantification of the value generated by an organization beyond the mere market value. The linkage between these two concepts plus the motivational proceses of employees and stakeholders participating in religious organizations will be structured through the theory of human action (Pérez López, 1991). This framework will make possible an original understanding of individual OCB.

This research will develop the case of the diocese of Bilbao (Bilbao is the largest metropolitan area of the Basque region, located in the north part of Spain). The diocese has started a process of incorporating social accounting to its management system. The first step has been to implement social accounting to its 16 educative centers. The second step, currently under development, is to measure the social value that the diocese is generating through its almost 300 parishes and *Caritas* services. The interest of the diocese of Bilbao in incorporating social accounting in its management system is threefold. In the first place, there is an interest to communicate to the rest of society and major stakeholders (families, members of the Church, public administration, society as a whole) the market value, social value, and emotional value generated by each and all parts of the diocese. Social accounting can be a valid tool to identify and calculate in an objective way those values. Secondly, the diocese is interested in improving its strategic planning and the overall management system. The monetization (in euros) of the social and emotional value generated by the diocese makes easier the incorporation of social objectives into the strategic planning and the management system. In this way, benchmarking processes and the use of the balanced scorecard can be applied to all activities of the diocese. In the third place, the diocese is interested in facilitating feedback and accurate information about its activities and results to its network of employees, volunteers, and collaborators (onwards, we will refer to this network simply as collaborators). This information about the value generated to other people (usually, people in need) by the diocese may have a positive influence in the motivation of the network of collaborators. This third perspective, linked with accurate feedback, motivation, and empowerment of collaborators will be the one developed further in this research.

In short, the main objectives of this work are two. The first objective is the development of a theoretical framework able to enhance the levels of social value creation inside religious (and socially oriented) organizations using social accounting. The second objective is the use of data from the 16 educative centers of the diocese of Bilbao to ilustrate that social accounting is a valid tool to measure social value and assess management decisions in order to enhance it. After this first introductory section, the paper will develop the concept of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in its second section. In the third section, anthropological and social bases of OCB will be analyzed. In the fouth section, the case of the diocese of Bilbao will be explained. A last fifth section with conclusions will close this work.

In our view, religious organizations and/or organizations with a social aim need specific management tools to enhance their performance. This research is an effort trying to provide academics and practitioners with the necessary tools to do so. Hopefully, this work will open new lines of research focused in this kind of organization.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: UNDERSTANDING THE INVOLVEMENT OF COLLABORATORS WITH SOCIAL ENTITIES OF RELIGIOUS ORIENTATION THROUGH ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Why do some people contribute more to their organizations than what is compulsory by contract? And, why those persons or others are committed to excellence, promoting it in their organizations without any form of explicit or implicit reward? This conduct, known as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is characterized by the use of decision-making rules that go beyond the maximization of the personal interest (Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1988; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 1996, 2000). OCB can be a useful tool to analyze and enhance the management of religiously oriented organizations (ROO).

The seminal ideas of Smith et al. (1983) about OCB shaped a two-dimensional framework including altruism (behavior oriented to help other people) and widespread compliance (behavior in compliance with general rules, norms, and expectations). In a later development, Organ (1988) proposed an expanded model of five dimensions: altruism, courtesy, conscience, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Different scales

of measument were developed for this expanded model (Podsakoff et al., 1990). In a third moment, academics started to build different models, going back to the bidimensional OCB (Williams and Anderson, 1991), focusing on individuals (OCB-I) or organizations (OCB-O). In the work of LePine et al. (2002), the five dimensions were considered again as a set of equivalent indicators. In this line, Hoffman et al. (2007) proposed a model of a single factor correlated with task fulfillment, using OCB in order to evaluate performance at work.

The majority of research done about OCB has concentrated on the individual level and has followed the seminal definition presented by Organ (1988, p. 4): "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization." However, the importance of OCB is based on its collective aggregation, because isolated OCBs have limited impacts in organizations (Organ, 1988). Some studies (see Organ et al., 2005 for a comprehensive review) have pointed out the existence of a positive linkage between collective OCB and organizational productivity. Following this line, collective OCB has turned into a relevant research area. We will highlight the work of academics such as Combs et al. (2006) and Gong et al. (2010) who have positively correlated high-performance work systems (HPWS) with collective OCP through the modulating variable known as collective affective commitment (AC).

Collective OCB refers to the standard way of conduct of the whole group of persons who participate in a given organization (Ehrhart, 2004; Ehrhart and Naumann, 2004). Due to its organizational level, collective OCB has to be boosted and empririraly measured at the collective level (Klein et al., 1994), considering the impact that organizational context may have on observed OCB (Morrison, 1996). In their metanalysis, Combs et al. (2006) argue that high-performance work systems (HPWS), understood as "systems of human resource practices designed to enhance employee's skills, commitment and productivity in such a way that employees become a source of sustainable competitive advantage" (Datta et al., 2005, p. 136), are positively related to inicators that measure organizational performance or productivity. However, none of the studies which were reviewed by Combs et al. (2006) analyzed if HPWS were linked in any form with collective OCB. In a new study, Sun et al. (2007) analyze the role of OCB in the relationship between HPWS and organizational performance, but they do not conceptualize their constructs as collective OCB, and they do not examine empirically the mechanisms that link HPWS and OCB at the collective level.

Collective behavior is dependent on, among other elements, shared experiences after being exposed to common practices and policies in a given organization (Morgeson and Hofmann, 1999). Employees under the same set of HPWS practices can have a shared collective understanding about their relationship with the organization and, from that point, articulate shared behavioral and actitudinal answers (Schneider, 1987). Affective commitment (AC) is defined as the employee's positive emotional attchment to the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991) and has been analyzed using this collective perspective, as a

modulating variable between HPWS and an increase in the collective OCB. The main conclusion is this study has been the realization that collective AC is necessary to have a real impact on OCB (Gong et al., 2010). Collective AC can be defined as a "shared mental framework among a collective set of individuals regarding their organization, characterized by feelings of loyalty and a determination to use physical and mental energy to help their organization to achieve their objectives and goals" (Gardner, 2007, p. 7). This definition, in terms of shared belief, is compatible with the one proposed by Bandura (2000) about collective efficacy.

While individual AC refers to a particular employee's involvement in a given organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991), collective AC considers also the social influence of the group, which can shape the answers of individual employees (Morgeson and Hofmann, 1999). Different research lines of research (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978; Barsade, 2002; Coté, 2005) coincide in considering that AC emerges from the social processes of interaction inside the group of employees and also from the common exposure to contextual factors in the organization. In that way, AC can be seen as a shared actitudinal answer build by the members of an organization.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK TO LINK THE ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND SOCIAL ACCOUNTING

In many cases, academics have used social exchange theory to conceptualize the effect of HPWS in collective OCB through the modulating effect of collective AC (Blau, 1986). Social exchange theory is based on the equilibrium between resources that are put in place in the organization and the results that are obtained (Blau, 1986). It is supposed that participants will follow the reciprocity principle. This means that the receiver will reciprocate to the part that lends the resources (Gouldner, 1960). The relationship between employees, volunteers or professionals, and the organization considers the interchange of incentives in accordance with the inputs put in place by employees (Tsui et al., 1997). In profit-oriented organizations, incentives are given through HPWS, and employees are thought to correspond with AC and OCB toward the organization. As stated by Morrison (1996, p. 506), "rewards that are based on company-wide performance will mitigate against the quid pro quo mindset inherent in economic exchange relationships, while laying the foundation for social exchange." In a terminology closer to stakeholder theory, it is possible to affirm that there is shift from transactional to relational behavior (Freeman and Ginena, 2015). This thinking can be traced back to Aristotle (n.d., Nicomachean ethics: 1132 b21), where reciprocity (*antipeponthós*) refers to to the social interactions that keep alife the activity of the *polis*. This kind of reciprocity encompasses all kinds of market activities and even the virtue of friendship (*philia*). This understanding of reciprocity goes beyond the mere interchange of goods or services (Bruni, 2010). On the other hand, HPWS offer employees several social incentives,

such as acknowledgement, prestige, growth in the organization, equality in treatment, and empowerment (Morrison, 1996).

Understanding Organizational Citizenship Behavior From the Needs of Others

The study of OCB from the perspective of social exchange has been solidly developed (Lavelle et al., 2007). However, it does not explain completely why employees and other stakeholders develop OCB behavior. Furthermore, in many ROOs, it would be misguided to propose that the commitment of collaborators is directly linked to the goods and services they receive. As a consecuence, it is desirable to develop and consider theoretical perspectives that may extend the reasons of OCB beyond the mechanisms of mere social exchange (Lavelle, 2010).

OCB is linked with the voluntary behavior of employees beyond their specific duties. OCB has the potential of enhancing organizational performance (Organ, 1988). Considering that this kind of behavior is not compulsory and is not rewarded, then why do employees participate in OCB? Traditionally, researchers have argued that relationships of social exchange derived from positive working atitudes such as affective commitment, equality, and support motivate the citizenship behavior of employees. This means that it is more likely that employees and collaborators could "go beyond" contractual conditions when they feel that they are supported and empowered by their organizations. However, if we explain OCB in this way, it is still an exchange that keeps the equilibrium between inputs and outputs given and generated by individuals or groups of individuals inside an organization (Chahal and Mehta, 2010). This argumentation is even more limited if we want to explain the OCB of stakeholders participating in altruist organizations, where rewards for collaborators are not the key motivational factor to explain their implication (Clary et al., 1998). Posibly, at least in the case of altruist and religious organizations, we should widen the reciprocity theory to a gratouitousness-based theory, aligned for example with the encyclical *Caritas in Veritate* (Retolaza et al., 2019),

where the principle of gratuity stands out as overcoming reciprocity (CIV 34; 36 y 38).

Many authors analyzing OCB consider reciprocity as a limited explanation for OCB (Gilbert, 1989; Hurley, 1989; Sugden, 1993; Tuomela, 1995, 2002). Although reciprocity is necessary to build social norms and to generate trust (Bruni and Sugden, 2000), it is not the only kind of relationship that can be established between two economic agents. In the non-profit sector and in religious organizations, motivation of collaborators is not linked mainly with rewards to those collaborators, but with the value that will be generated for other people (usually people in need), from whom no remuneration is expected, not even emotional (Clary et al., 1998).

The theory of human action (Pérez López, 1991) presents a wider understanding of human motivation in comparison with the traditional *homo economicus* model. Egocentric motivations, the ones that are at the core of the traditional economic theory, are only a particular case of the whole theory of human action. This kind of motivation, called extrinsic motivation in this model, consists on achieving a result able to maximize the interest of the active agent. At the same time, the model proposes to take into account two additional sources of motivation. The first one is the motivation based on personal learning (called intrinsic motivation). The second one is the concern for the reactive agent (called transcendent motivation). This last motivation is not present in the traditional economic theory. This motivational complexity demands a shift from transactional motivation (extrinsic) to relational motivation (linked with transcendent motivation) (see **Figure 1**).

According to the model, the extrinsic level will determine the economic satisfaction of the interaction between agents, whereas intrinsic and transcendent results will determine the moral satisfaction of the person. The model points out that the learning process (including the level of moral satisfaction achieved) produces changes in the active subject, making possible a change in the decision-making over time. On the other hand, the passive agent also achieves a degree of moral and economic

FIGURE 1 | Learning-action-motivation process. Source: own elaboration based on Pérez López (1991).
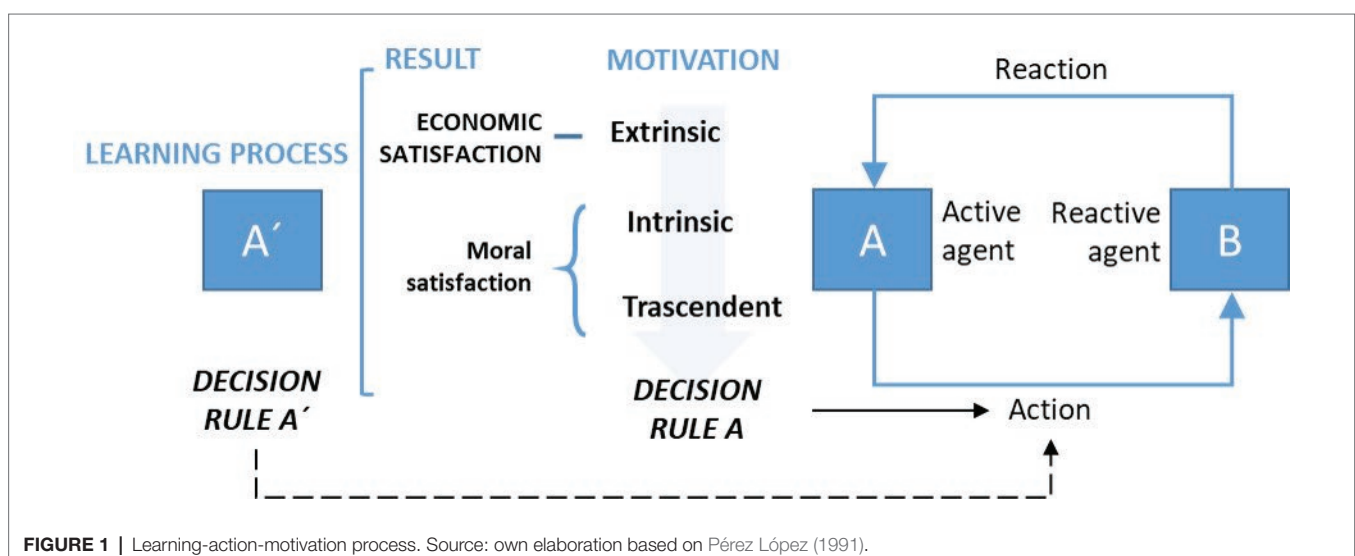
satisfaction, being able to change his/her decision-making rule in the same or contrary direction of the active agent. In the first case, and if both are positive, virtuous circles among agents will be generated. In any other circumstance, it may be possible that future interaction could be blocked, or at least made in a vicious circle dominated by the lack of trust.

The model of Pérez López (1991) is consistent with different studies about the behavior of collaborators, where three motivational dimensions are identified: learning, understanding, and achieving social impact (Clary et al., 1998; Clary and Snyder, 1999). The first dimension can be linked with extrinsic motivation, the second with intrinsic motivation, and the third with the transcendent one. In the work of Okun et al. (1998), the key motivational component is associated with moral satisfaction. Furthermore, Frank (2004) was able to monetize (in terms of opportunity cost) transcendent motivation. The theory of human action fits also in the model designed by Barrett (2006, 2013). This last model could be useful to investigate transcendent motivation in the framework of a given organization.
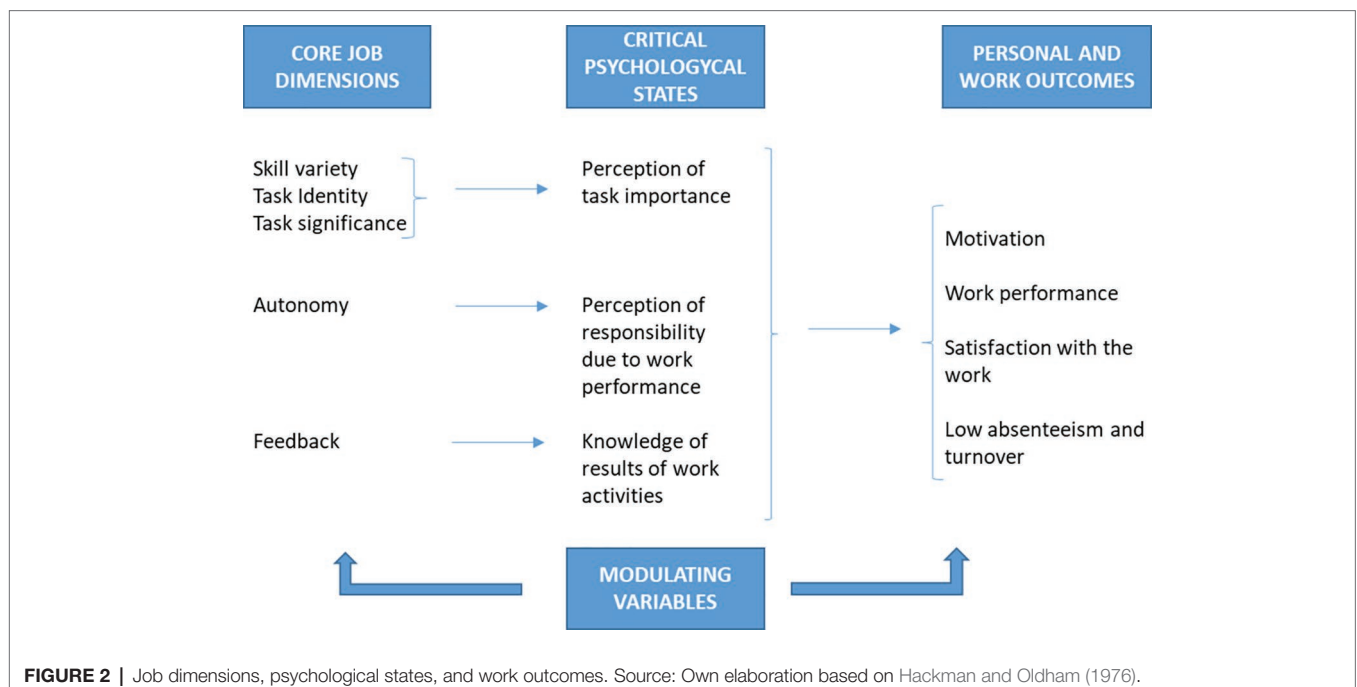
Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Transcendent Motivation

In altruist organizations, being religious-oriented or not, it seems clear that transcendent motivation should be a key aspect of collaborators working for them. At the same time, it seems that HPWS, focused on material incentives, can complement economic motivation, but it will have almost no impact on transcendent motivation. Considering that in the organizational context, transcendent motivation is fed back by the results linked with the porpuse of the organization, the degree of this achievement will be importance to determine the moral satisfaction of collaborators and, as a cosecuence, the OCB

given to the organization. It is expected that the achievement of objectives related to transcendent motivation will produce moral satisfaction in people (see **Figure 2**). With this idea in mind, usually social and religious organizations try to circulate among stakeholders' information about their activities and main results. In this sense, it could be proposed that in the case of sharing systematic positive results about the achievement of the main aim of the organization, this information could enhance moral satisfaction of collaborators, increasing their individual and collective OCB and boosting the organizational performance around its main aim. This proposal could be articulated as a set of interconnected propositions.

It seems possible that information given by social accounting (SA) increases moral satisfaction (MS) of people participating in the organization. If the proposed model of human action were adequate, the increase of moral satisfaction (MS) will be proportional to the transcendent motivation (TM) of the person. And it would be assumed that an ahument of moral satisfaction will increase OCB (both individual and collective). At the same time, the rise in OCB (individual and collective) will increase the high-performance work systems (HPWS) of the organization. Completing the virtuous circle, the rise in the HPWS of the organization will increase moral satisfaction (MS) in participants.

The joint analysis of all hypotheses demands data from several years. However, in the case under study (the diocese of Bilbao), there is information only about 1 year. Due to that fact, this work will limit its focus on the study of the relationship between the information provided by social accounting and the increase in moral satisfaction of the boards of directors existing in the diocese. Following the model of job characteristics developed by Hackman and Oldham (1976), it is possible to identify five different characteristics: skill and task variety (V), task identity

FIGURE 2 | Job dimensions, psychological states, and work outcomes. Source: Own elaboration based on Hackman and Oldham (1976).

(I), task significance (S), autonomy (A) in the decision making process, and feedback (F) received by the employee or collaborator about his/her efficiency and performance at work. Social accounting is able to answer to the last one (F). In the case of the diocese of Bilbao, this feedback can be given at the global level and also at the level of specific areas. At the same time, social accounting is relevant for identity (I) and task significance (S). In the first case, social accounting helps employees and collaborators to understand their tasks as a part of something bigger, the objective of the firm. In the second place, social accounting identifies the impact of the collaborators' work (as a part of the whole set of actions of the firm) on the rest of stakeholders and society. This process of feedback can achieve high positive impacts on collaborators that, otherwise, would not identify properly their contribution to the mission of the company, or collaborators with doubts between efficiency and productivity at work. This last ambiguity problem is common in religious or social organizations (see **Figure 3**).

The aforementioned five dimensions (see **Figure 3**) do not act directly, but modulated by three basic psychological states: experienced importance of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work, and knowledge about the results achieved. Combining the five dimensions, it is possible to build the Motivating Potential Score (MPS), as follows:

$$MPS = \left[(V + I + S) / 3 \right] * A * F.$$

As MPS increases, motivation and satisfaction at works for collaborators will be higher. This score can be combined with results coming from social accounting in order to increase moral satisfaction of collaborators at work and their motivation. However, this theoretical formulation has not been tested on religious organizations or non-governmental organizations, which may have different motivational mechanisms in comparison with for-profit organizations. Nevertheless, the introduction of social accounting allows the capture of non-market value generated by organizations and makes possible to contrast the Motivating Potencial Score (MPS) as a modulating variable to obtain OCB.

CASE ANALYSIS: THE DIOCESE OF BILBAO

The Diocese of Bilbao decided in 2018 that social accounting could be a useful instrument to measure the social value generated by the diocese and presented it to all its stakeholders and society as a whole. Four different kinds of value were identified: market value, non-market value, emotional value, and spiritual value. Social accounting has focused on the first three, because there is not still any contrasted methodological procedure to measure spiritual value. The first step of applying social accounting to the diocese of Bilbao was to map the perimeter of the diocese, identifying all organizational structures belonging to it. The process started with the educative centers of the diocese, because they were the easiest to be analyzed.

The diocese has five schools, six "ikastolas" or schools which use only the Basque language with students, and five vocational centers distributed in different locations in the Biscay province (1.2 million inhabitants) where the Bilbao metropolitan area is located. Those 16 educative centers employ 1,000 teachers which serve around 10,000 students. Their turnover is about 60 million €, with a positive result of 1–3 million € depending on the year.

FIGURE 3 | The process of social accounting: SPOLY development process. Source: Retolaza et al. (2016, p. 41).
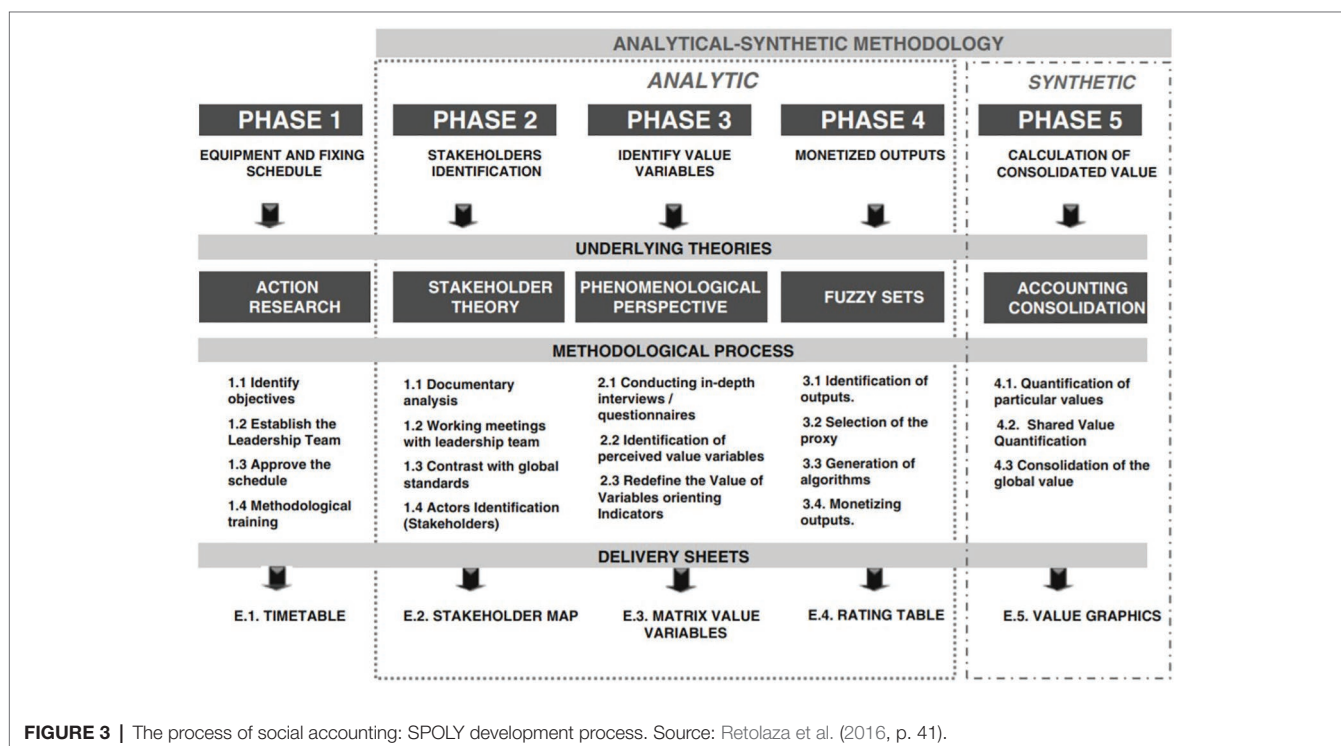
All 16 educative centers were created to respond to local needs. In addition, the five vocational centers had the aim of offering vocational training to young people living in industrial areas in crisis, so that finding a job could be a real possibility for students. In all the centers, humanistic principles and civic values based on Catholic Social Thought are encouraged. Some of the centers have the golden Q of the EFQM (European Foundation Quality System) quality system.

The aim of the educative centers is to offer to students and families excellent education, while proposing religious principles and values as part of the integral education of the person. In the centers of vocational training, there is an additional challenge: connect this kind of education with the local labor market, so that students could find a job in a short time.

The reasons of the diocese to initiate this process of social accounting could be summarized in the answers given by the team leader of the project, Jose Joaquin Moral, during a semistructured interview. Mr. Moral explained that "as a general idea, our bishop was interested in measuring the social value that was generated by all the organizations of the diocese of Biscay province and not only *Caritas*, but also parishes, educative centers, the museum, radios, the library, and others." When Mr. Moral was asked about the interest to monetize the value created by particular entities belonging to the diocese, he answered that "at the particular level, the diocese wanted to measure the social value created by two different vocational centers, one located in a very complex and deteriorated social and economic area, and other located in an area with well structured families and very small poverty rate. The results that were achieved convinced the Basque government (in charge of funding the regional educative system) to increase the funding for the first center, because each euro invested in that center created 2.8 euro to society." "In other cases, educative centers use social value to know their contribution to different stakeholders and decide if that contribution is balanced or not. In that way, they can introduce changes in their strategic planning, or decide about the investments that are needed."

The names of the 16 educative centers which have participated in the social accounting project are: Arrantza Eskola, Artzandape, Avellaneda, Begoñazpi, BeraKruz, Iparragirre, Maria Biterko, Otxarkoaga, Sagrado Corazon, San Felix, San Fidel, San Juan, San Viator, Somorrostro, Txomin Aguirre, and Zulaibar.

Methodological Process

The methodology to be used was well defined before the starting point of the project of the Diocese of Bilbao (Retolaza et al., 2015, 2016) and had been applied to different organizations as hospitals (San-Jose et al., 2019), but always at the individual level. In this case, the project encompassed 16 organizations, creating a potential problem of scalability. In order to minimize the use of resources, the Diocese of Bilbao (in collaboration with the University of Deusto and the non-profit consulting organization GEAccounting) designed an innovative process to consider the 16 entities minimizing time and resources through the use of social accounting (Retolaza et al., 2016).

Following the process, the Diocese started to work with a pilot group of four centers: Begoñazpi, San Felix, Sagrado Corazon, and Somostro. Those centers had more human and economic resources available in comparison with the others. Each of those four centers developed autonomously phases 1, 2, and 3 (see **Table 1**), obtaining the map of stakeholders and the variables that created value in each center. Combining the results obtained by the four centers, a standardized map of stakeholders and the matrix of value variables valid for the whole set of 16 centers was built. In this way, 19 variables of value that could be valid for all centers were identified. At the same time, the proxies needed to quantify and monetize those variables (phase 4) were identified in the same way for the four pilot centers.

Once completed the final phase (phase 5, see **Table 1**) for the four pilot centers, the process was implemented for the remaining 12 centers. This was done in two sessions using the standardized map of stakeholders and matrix of value variables. In the first session, the standized matrix was explained and contrasted with the directors of the 12 centers. If any variable of the matrix did not apply to a specific center, then the output for that variable in the case of that given center would be 0. If any of the remaining 12 centers could identify any additional variable, that center was encouraged to add that variable in the matrix. In the end, only one center decided to add a new variable linked with activities related with development cooperation, a very specific topic that took place only in that center. Once all variables were understood and accepted, the 12 centers were asked to identify the outputs generated in relation to the aforementioned variables (see phase 4 in **Table 1**). In the second session, outputs were given the monetary values agreed in the pilot group. With this last step (see phase 5 in **Table 1**), the process of social accounting for the whole set of 16 entities was

TABLE 1 | Consolidated values of social accounting for the 16 educative centers of the Diocese.

	Society	Government	Suppliers	Workers	Social entities	Investors	Users
Added Value	47.012.447 €	16.502.082 €	0 €	26.020.635 €	0 €	0 €	0 €
Value Mobilized (I)	3.772.574 €	2.578.177 €	1.648.190 €	497.792 €	0 €	290.478 €	0 €
Value Mobilized (II)	836.250 €	690.537 €	272.103 €	104.212 €	0 €	23.268 €	0 €
Social Value	0 €						
Market Social Value [MSV]	51.621.271 €	19.770.796 €	4.161.195 €	26.622.638 €	0 €	313.746 €	0 €
Non-Market Social Value [NMSV]	70.184.825 €	66.629.081 €	0 €	8.348.656 €	3.814.642 €	0 €	66.629.081 €
Integrated Social Value [ISV]	121.806.096 €	86.399.877 €	4.161.195 €	34.971.294 €	3.814.642 €	313.746 €	66.629.081 €
EMOTIONAL VALUE	*28.103.469 €*						
Socio-Emotional Value [SEV]	***149.909.565 €***						

completed. In a brief period (less than 1 month) and with a reasonable effort in time and resources (two sessions with directors), the process for the remaining 12 entities was completed.

The process developed the individual social accounting for each of the 16 centers and also was able to build the consolidated social accounting for the whole set of 16 centers. In the next section, those results will be analyzed. In addition, its use in order to increase moral satisfaction of stakeholders and the OCB of collaborators will be studied.

Discussion of Results

The consolidated social accounting for the 16 centers generated the results explained in **Table 1**. Rows identify the different typologies of value: first, Market Social Value (MSV), which is the one that occurs in transactions with price. It is included in the accounting. This value is divided into three different typologies: (1) added value, consisting of the difference between purchases and sales, that corresponds to the generate value provided by the organization; (2) value mobilized to suppliers of exploitation (I), and (3) value mobilized to suppliers of investment (II), both through purchasing power. Second, Non-Market Social Value (NMSV), also called specific social value, which is the one that is transferred to the margin of a price system, and therefore is not included in the accounting information. Finally, the Emotional Value (EV), which corresponds to the Affective commitment of Meyer and Allen (1991). Integrated social value (ISV) is the sum of market value (MSV) and non-market value [ISV = MSV + NMSV]; while the Socio Emotional Value (SEV) is obtained by adding the integrated social value and the emotional value [SEV = ISV + EV] (for a comprehensive analysis of methodological steps see Retolaza et al., 2015, 2016). Columns show the value generated by each stakeholder: public administration, suppliers, employees, social entities, inversors, and users/clients. The first column, society, gathers the consolidated value considering all stakeholders (see **Table 1**).

The information gathered in **Table 1** is useful to communicate the value generated by the 16 centers for society, distributed among stakeholders. At the same time, that information may have an impact on the moral satisfaction of collaborators and other stakeholders that are engaged in the activity of those centers. In order to analyze that impact, it is necessary that stakeholders could understand the meaning of the information of **Table 1**. One way of making easier this understanding is through the use of ratios (Barnes, 1987; Williams and Dobelman, 2017). In any ratio, there is always a numerator and a denominator. In the case of social accounting, the numerator will be the generated value and a potential denominator could be the total budget. This ratio is the result of comparing social value (output) with budget (input) and is called Social Value

Added Index (SVAI). This index has been used recently in other cases (Lazcano et al., 2019; San-Jose et al., 2019). In short, SVAI compares the social value generated by an organization with its budget. If both magnitudes are equal, then SVAI will be 1. This value could be used as a reference in order to understand real values achieved by organizations, such as the 16 centers under study in this case.

However, in all economic activities, it is supposed that some form of added value is going to be generated. In this line, it would be possible to build a sector-based expected SVAI (SVAI$_s$), in order to establish a standard SVAI result by sector. In that way, it could be possible to obtain the social OCB of an organization as the difference between SVAI and SVAI$_s$, as follows:

$$OCB = SVAI - SVAI_s$$

In the case of this study, the ratios that have been calculated are the ones in **Table 2**. The Economic Retun Ratio refers to the value generated for each euro of the budget used. The Social Value Added Index (SVAI) refers to the social (non-market) value generated for each euro of the budget used. The Integral Social Return Ratio refers to the non-market and market value obtained for each euro of the budget used. And finally, the Socio-Emotional Return Ratio refers to the sum of the Integral Social Value and the Emotional Value obtained for each euro of the budget used.

In the Basque region, education is an activity heavily dependant on funding coming from the regional administration (the Basque government). All state-owned and most of private education centers receive public funding. All educative centers are non-for-profit organizations. Based on this situation, it is reasonable to estimate that SVAI$_s$ in the Basque education system could be similar to 1, indicating that there is an equivalence between the value generated and the budget used to generate it. It is a purely theoretical approximation of equivalence between inputs and outputs; or what is the same, the value of the services generated is equal to their cost. This gives us a minimum reference value, where the value generated for the company must be equal to or greater than 1, to justify the adequacy of the resources used. It could be that in practice this value is higher or lower, but this hypothesis is aligned with previous studies that have calculated shadow prices to calculate the social

TABLE 2 | Social efficiency ratios for the 16 centers of the Diocese.

Ratio	Result
Economic retun ratio	1,02
Social value added index (SVAI)	1,39
Integral social return ratio	2,00
Socio-emotional return ratio	2,59

TABLE 3 | SVAI of each education center of the Diocese.

CENTRO 1	CENTRO 2	CENTRO 3	CENTRO 4	CENTRO 5	CENTRO 6	CENTRO 7	CENTRO 8
1,496	1,613	1,400	1,380	1,686	1,349	1,298	1,000
CENTRO 9	CENTRO 10	CENTRO 11	CENTRO 12	CENTRO 13	CENTRO 14	CENTRO 15	CENTRO 16
2,064	1,349	0,342	1,555	1,005	1,048	0,910	0,991

value generated by the education sector in the Basque region (San-Jose et al., 2019). Under this premise, the calculated SVAI for the education centers of the Diocese of Bilbao is reflecting that the value generated by them is a 39% higher than the economic resources utilized. This value (39%) could be used as an approach to the OCB of the 16 education centers of the Diocese, following the expression OCB = SVAI − SVAI$_s$.

At the same time, **Table 3** highlights that the SVAI generated in each education center is different. This result is consistent with the idea that OCB is organization-specific and depends on idiosyncratic characteristics of each center.

Considering both **Tables 2, 3**, it is possible to measure two differente OCBs. This means that it is possible to build an aggregate and an individual OCB. If we consider the SVAI calculated for the whole set of education centers of the diocese (see **Table 2**), the result is that this aggregate SVAI indicates a higher performance (>39%) in comparison with the standard SVAI for the Basque education sector (SVAI$_s$ = 1). This result is compatible with a higher level of stakeholders' moral satisfaction in the centers of the diocese; it is visualized based on the interviews with the directors of the centers. Besides, individualized SVAI can be a tool for benchmarking. In this case, some individual centers exceed the score of 1, while others have achieved results under 1. Depending on individual SVAIs (see **Table 3**), impacts on stakeholders' moral satisfaction will be different.

After this análisys, directors of all 16 centers answered a questionnaire about the process and all of them stated the uselfullness of social accounting in order to be aware of the social value generated by their centers. In addition, they underlined that the results of the study allowed them to understand in a wider framework the tensions between answering the needs of stakeholders (efficacy) and/or achieving the management goals of efficiency. Directors highlighted the utility of social accounting in three major fields: external communication mainly to the Basque government (who is the main provider of funding for the centers) and in relation to other stakeholders; information for management and strategic planning; empowerment of stakeholders, specially collaborators.

One of the main results of this work is that SVAI could be a proper indicator for collective OCB in an organization or groups of organizations. Its knowledge by collaborators and stakeholders is useful to highlight the social value generated by a given organization. At the same time, collaborators, also in the case of entities belonging to the Diocese of Bilbao, may develop an alignment between motivation, moral satisfaction, and the overall performance of the organization. In many religious and social organizations (as in the case of the Diocese), collaborators are not only motivated by the classic HPWS. A transcendent motivation is also important in these cases. At the same time, it is possible to consider emotional value as an indicator to measure the difference between the efforts put in place (in time, resources, or any other input) and the value that has been created. In there is an equilibrium between efforst and value and then emotional value would have a neutral score (3 out of 5 points in a scale from 0 to 5). Emotional value would have a positive score (4 or 5 point) if the created value is considered higher than all inputs involved and a

negative one otherwise. This last case could make volunteers to abandon their tasks in the organization.

CONCLUSIONS

This research has connected concepts which were not traditionally linked in the literature, such as OCB and moral satisfaction, in a single framework. In addition, this research has inserted the relationships between OCB and moral satisfaction in the systemic functioning of the theory of human action. This last step has introduced the concepts of learning and transcendent motivation in the analysis of motivational processes inside organizations. This is a fundamental change in comparison to the homo economicus anthropological model, which is at the base of many works in the field of motivation in organizations.

Besides, a linkage between OCB (more related with personal efforts at the workplace) and HPWS (focused in the global organizational result) is stablished.

In addition, this work has made arguable the proposition of SVAI as an indicator for high-performance work systems (HPWS) and, indirectly, also for OCB. At the same time, the use of emotional value is proposed as an indicator for moral satisfaction. In all cases, social accounting has served as a measurement tool. In this line, the example of the educative centers of the diocese of Bilbao has been presented.

Precisely in the case of the diocese, social accounting and SVAI have been presented to directors of the educative centers as tools for the empowerment for collaborators, and as catalyzers to align employees' actions with the strategy of those centers. However, it has not been possible to determine a positive linkage between OCB (measured through SVAI) and moral satisfaction (measured through emotional value). The relationship between these two variables (OCB and moral satisfaction) seems to be a complex one. As expressed in previous sections, transcendent motivation of collaborators could be a nexus between the two. At the same time, MPS (Motivating Potential Score) has been presented as a potential mechanism able to explain how through social accounting it is possible to transform OCB into moral satisfaction. The creation of a synthetic index (SVAI) and the calculation of similar indexes for each stakeholder could allow the generation o fan aim-based feedback for stakeholders. According to the equation explained in the section "Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Transcendent Motivation," this feedback should increase the MPS of employees. As long as this feedback achieves an increase in the results and motivation of employees, it could be possible to foster a virtuous circle coherent with the propositions of stakeholder theory (San-Jose et al., 2017). However, in its current development, this is only a theoretical proposal. The empirical studies and contrasts should be developed in future works.

One of the main limitations of this work is the fact that theoretical reflection has been made at the same time as the development of the process to implement social accounting in organizations. This situation has made impossible the introduction of modulating variables, such as transcendent motivation. Two lines of research emerge as key issues in the near future. On

one hand, more research is needed to fix de theoretical level for SVAI$_s$. On the other hand, the design of a comprehensive process in order to link social accounting with SVAI, HPWS, and OCB could clarify the linkages between these four concepts and foster the understanding of their joint operation, with the final aim of increasing both OCB and moral satisfaction inside organizations; and consequently, the resulting HPWS.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors have jointly developed the article, and to a greater or lesser extent all have participated in the development of the social accounting of the Diocese of Bilbao.

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Servant Leadership, Innovative Capacity and Performance in Third Sector Entities

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This paper analyses the relationship between servant leadership, innovative capacity and performance in Third Sector entities and proposes a mediation model. This research is based on a two-fold theoretical approach: the servant leadership approach and the resource-based approach. The data have been obtained through a survey sent to territorial and functional managers of Third Sector entities. The fieldwork ran from June to September 2019. At the end of the entire process, 85 valid questionnaires were obtained. For the analysis of the results, a double methodology has been used: (1) a method of second order structural equations (PLS-SEM) and, (2) qualitative comparative analysis (QCA). The main contributions of this work are: 1) a double theoretical approach has been applied in this work, which has allowed to adequately define the relationships between servant leadership, innovation capacity and performance in Third Sector entities; (2) the application of a double data analysis methodology has allowed us to obtain robust and reliable results; (3) the measures of the three composites used (servant leadership, innovative capacity and performance) have adequate reliability and validity values; (4) the servant leadership positively influences the performance of Third Sector entities being able to explain the 35.6% of the variation of the performance of these entities and besides, it is a necessary condition for this performance to take place, (5) the average innovative capacity in the influence of the servant leadership in the performance of the entities of the Third Sector, being a necessary condition. Mediation is total, eliminating the direct effect of servant leadership on the performance of third Sector entities and increasing the capacity to explain the variation in the performance of Third Sector entities up to 44.7%.

Keywords: servant leadership, innovative capacity, performance, Third Sector entities, structural equation modeling, fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis

INTRODUCTION

The Third Sector is a fundamental part in the economic and social development model of many countries. Despite this importance, there are still few works that attempt to analyze the direction of this type of entity. With this work we try to analyze the performance in the third sector entities based on the servant leadership and the innovative capacity. To be able to keep playing this important role, Third Sector entities need to create action measures which allow them to overcome the challenges

of a fast turning environment and, by doing so, secure their future viability and sustainability. This new framework means that Third Sector entities must implement new management models. One of these new models is the servant leadership approach. In recent years, servant leadership has become a management approach (Liden et al., 2008; van Dierendonck, 2011; Ruiz-Palomino et al., 2019) suitable for dealing with the changes that are taking place in an increasingly complex environment (Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2011). Third Sector entities are not unaware of these changes, so it is necessary to analyze whether this new approach can be used by Third Sector entities to improve their performance. Although the relationship between servant leadership and performance has been studied in other sectors (see Liden et al., 2008; Overstreet et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2016; Sousa and van Dierendonck, 2016; Hoch et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2019) it has not been addressed in Third Sector entities. In this sense, this work attempts to respond to the call from authors such as Ronquillo (2011) and Allen et al. (2018) to analyze servant leadership in Third Sector entities, raising the following research question: Does servant leadership influence the performance of Third Sector entities? Most of the previous works have measured performance from economic benefit or measures related to this benefit. The originality of this work is the way in which the performance of Third Sector entities has been measured, given that the objective of Third Sector entities is not economic benefit, so it is not easy to measure their performance with merely financial measures, and it is necessary to use other non-financial measures. Some authors suggest using a series of indicators to evaluate their activity, the degree of achievement of goals, the participation of other agents, etc. (AECA, 2012; Maguregui Urionabarrenechea et al., 2017). The originality of this work lies in measuring performance as a multidimensional variable in order to obtain integrated information on the management of this type of entities (Maguregui Urionabarrenechea, 2014).

The second aspect that we are going to analyze in this document is the innovative capacity. The innovative capacity is the ability to respond differently to the needs that companies, in general, and Third Sector entities, in particular. The innovative capacity measures the way in which new products, new processes and even new ideas are created (Hult et al., 2004). With this inclusion we try to respond to the call of Antonakis et al. (2010) and Eva et al. (2019) to include mediators in order to improve the understanding of the influence of service leadership on the performance of Third Sector entities. The consideration of the mediating effect of innovative capacity is due to the fact that it influences the servant leadership relationship (Waite, 2014) because it represents a different way of responding to the needs of Third Sector entities by creating new products, new processes and even new ideas (Hult et al., 2004) and involving both management (Katrinli et al., 2009) and employees (Chen and Huang, 2009). Based on the above, we pose the second research question: the average innovative capacity in the influence of employee leadership on the performance of Third Sector entities?

The theoretical approach behind this study is twofold. On the one hand, we use the servant leadership approach (Greenleaf, 1977; Graham, 1991; van Dierendonck, 2011; Liden et al., 2014; Eva et al., 2019) to analyze the behavior of managers

toward employees and its effect on performance. On the other hand, we use a resource-based approach (Barney and Clark, 2007) to analyze how innovative capacity affects performance (Božic and Ozretic-Došen, 2015).

Data have been obtained through a survey sent to area and operation managers of Third Sector entities in Spain. The questionnaire contained general questions and questions on Servant Leadership, on Innovative capacity and on performance (see **Appendix**). The questions in the last three sections were asked using a Likert scale (1–7). The fieldwork took place from June to September 2019. The result of the whole process were 85 valid questionnaires.

This paper tries to answer the call made by Eva et al. (2019) to prove the validity of the correlation between servant leadership and performance by using different methods of data analysis. For this reason, in this study we use two methods to analyze the results: (1) partial least squares (PLS), which will enable us to assess the validity and reliability of the three variables in question, as well as their relationship and (2) Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA), which will enable us to determine the conditions under which servant leadership and innovative capacity translate into better performance in Third Sector entities. Ambos methods are suitable for this research because they will be used to analyze social phenomena using small data sets (Ragin, 2000, 2009; Henseler et al., 2009). Furthermore, the use of a double methodology for the data analysis will enable us to obtain more solid investigation findings (Hernández-Perlines et al., 2019a).

This work has contributed to the analysis of the performance of third sector entities on the basis of servant leadership and innovation capacity: if Third Sector entities want to improve their performance, they must take into account both servant leadership and innovative capacity.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership starts as the answer for businesses wishing to implement new leadership approaches and it focuses on employees' social identity (Chen et al., 2015) and tries to gain their trust (Lee et al., 2019). servant leadership is a relatively new approach (Mittal and Dorfman, 2012). Research on servant leadership is divided into three stages (Eva et al., 2019): (1) the first stage – which we will call conceptual development – with projects that try to provide an initial idea of servant leadership. In this stage, the works of Greenleaf (1977) and Spears (1996) are particularly noteworthy. (2) The second stage, which we will call measurement, with projects that attempt to establish a measurement of servant leadership. In this stage, the works of Lytle et al. (1998), Page and Wong (2000), Ehrhart (2004) amongst others, are particularly noteworthy. (3) The third stage, which we will call model development, where we can find many works which represent sophisticated models which can be used to analyze the background of servant leadership, its relationship with performance and even the analysis of mediation and/or moderation factors. In this stage, the works of Liden et al. (2014),

Flynn et al. (2016), Sousa and van Dierendonck (2016), Sendjaya et al. (2019) are particularly noteworthy.

Literature on servant leadership has focused on achieving a unanimous definition and on how to measure it (Grisaffe et al., 2016; Newman et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2019). We agree with Eva et al. (2019) that the majority of definitions of servant leadership only offers partial descriptions of servant leaders' behavior (what, why and how they behave with employees). We can therefore state that there isn't a generally accepted definition (van Dierendonck, 2011; Parris and Peachey, 2013), which results in significant conceptual confusion (Winston and Fields, 2015). Thus, servant leadership begins with the leader's wish to serve and, by doing so, ease the employees' Performance (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leadership prioritizes the needs of employees (Liden et al., 2014) and turns them into its goal (van Dierendonck, 2011; Eva et al., 2019). Servant leadership focuses on the employees' well-being (van Dierendonck, 2011; Liden et al., 2014; Winston and Fields, 2015) trying to effectively satisfy their needs (Chiniara and Bentein, 2016), their development and their empowerment (van Dierendonck, 2011), even above the interests of the actual leaders (Hale and Fields, 2007). For this reason, servant leadership is a top-down approach (Duren, 2017) which involves multiple stakeholders (Lemoine et al., 2019) showing concern toward others (Eva et al., 2019), both within and out of the organization (Zohar, 2005; Liden et al., 2008). It is a suitable approach for the analysis of the behavior of Third Sector entities' managers (Herman, 2016), as it focuses on the qualities and behavior of said managers (Ronquillo, 2011; Herman, 2016). Moreover, servant leadership in Third Sector entities empowers its servants by providing them with the necessary tools, developing their skills and encouraging them to take part in decision-making processes (Ebener and O'Connell, 2010).

The organizational performance measures how and when the firm meets its previously specified objectives. In this respect, the leadership is an important factor for the company to be able to improve on its results and (Karamat, 2013) and achieve a sustainable competitive advantage (Rowe, 2001). Therefore, servant leadership is positively related to performance and said relationship is maintained even when using a multidimensional performance measurement (Liden et al., 2008; Overstreet et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2016; Sousa and van Dierendonck, 2016; Hoch et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2019). Based on the aforesaid, we can formulate the following hypothesis (proposition):

> H_1 (Proposition $_1$): Servant leadership has a positive effect on Third Sector entities' performance.

Innovative Capacity

Innovative capacity can be defined as the ability of the firm to create and develop new products, new processes or new ideas with which to achieve a competitive advantage in a constantly changing environment (Hult et al., 2004; Alegre et al., 2005; Helfat and Martin, 2015; Feng et al., 2018), which can be crucial for its survival. Based on their innovative capacity, firms achieve a competitive advantage because they can detect in advance new opportunities in their surroundings (Gunday et al., 2011; Yap et al., 2018). Innovative capacity means a proactive behavior

in order to take advantage of the opportunities that arise in a turbulent environment (Droge et al., 2008). Innovative firms or organizations are known for encouraging a creative behavior and an exchange of information amongst their employees (Wong and Tong, 2012), who are the source of the company's innovation (Yuan and Woodman, 2010).

The mediating role of innovative capacity has already been described by authors such as Obiwuru et al. (2011) and Eva et al. (2019) amongst others, when they state that the relationship between leadership and performance requires the firm to be innovation oriented. Furthermore, competitive advantage is determined by the fact that leaders promote creativity amongst their employees (Neubert et al., 2008). Based on the above, we formulate the following mediation hypothesis (proposition):

> H_2 (Proposition $_2$): The innovative capacity mediates the relationship between servant leadership and performance of the entities of the Third Sector.

The analysis of the mediation effect of innovative capacity of servant leadership in the performance of Third Sector entities implies a double consideration, following the recommendations of Cepeda-Carrión et al. (2017): 1) on the one hand, an analysis of the of servant leadership in innovative capacity and, 2) on the other hand, an analysis of the of innovative capacity in performance.

Analysis of the of Servant Leadership in Innovative Capacity

We define innovative capacity as the tendency to encourage new ideas (Katrinli et al., 2009) that can then be put into practice (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996) considering the cultural facet of it (Hult et al., 2004), which allows the leader to act (Dackert et al., 2004). In this sense, the relationship between servant leadership and performance is determined by the innovative capacity, which in turn is influenced by the employees' ability to generate new ideas, new work systems, new services, etc. (Yuan and Woodman, 2010; Goepel et al., 2012). As a result, the servant leader can encourage innovative behavior amongst employees (Liden et al., 2008; Panaccio et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2017; Cai et al., 2018) so as to achieve a positive impact on innovation (García-Morales et al., 2008; Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009; Panaccio et al., 2015) and on innovative capacity (Neubert et al., 2008; Schaubroeck et al., 2011; Yoshida et al., 2014). Previous researches show that companies led by servant leaders tend to improve their innovative capacity (Yoshida et al., 2014; Ruiz-Palomino et al., 2019). Based on the above, we formulate the following hypothesis model:

> H_{2a} (Proposition $_{2a}$): Servant leadership has a positive effect on innovative capacity in Third Sector entities.

Analysis of the Impact of Innovative Capacity on Performance

In order to achieve the objectives of any organization, also in third sector entities, it is necessary to consider the different interest groups. In this sense, management processes tend to be very similar in all types of organizations, although the characteristics

of each type of organization must be taken into account. In this work we analyze the innovative capacity as it is a fundamental determinant of competitive advantage (Schumpeter and Opie, 1934) and a cultural element that managers can control to a great extent (Hult et al., 2004). In addition, innovative capacity remains a topic of academic and organizational interest (Hughes et al., 2018). The capacity to innovate makes it possible to improve a company's competitiveness in an environment that is subject to major changes (Hult et al., 2004; Alegre et al., 2005; Helfat and Martin, 2015; Feng et al., 2018), and is even crucial for its survival (Hernández-Perlines et al., 2019b). The capacity for innovation is a behavioral variable linked to the company's willingness to change (Calantone et al., 2002), an organizational attitude necessary to be open to new ideas (Crespell and Hansen, 2008). This need for change is common to both market firm and Third Sector entities. However, the social responsibility of this type of entity, strategic and financial restrictions determine innovative behavior in Third Sector entities (Hull and Lio, 2006). Innovation oriented organizations tend to favor creativity (Neubert et al., 2008) by attaching greater value to innovation (Yuan and Woodman, 2010). In the case of Third Sector organizations, the most relevant innovation is usually process innovation (Hull and Lio, 2006). The innovative capacity tends to produce an improvement in the performance of any type of organization (Damanpour and Gopalakrishnan, 2001; Rosenbusch et al., 2011; Ruiz-Palomino et al., 2019), which is why we can state the following hypothesis.

H$_{2b}$ (Proposition$_{2b}$): Innovative capacity has a positive impact on the performance of Third Sector entities.

Once the different hypotheses have been formulated, the research model would be the one shown in **Figure 1**.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sample

The data was obtained through a survey sent by e-mail to the directors of Third Sector entities in Spain. After a pilot test of the questionnaire with a group of managers from these two organizations and academic experts, the clarity, comprehension, legibility and adequacy of the questions asked were confirmed. When designing the questionnaire, the advice of Podsakoff et al. (2003, 2012) was taken into consideration so as to mitigate both social convenience bias (the e-mail was sent together with an introduction letter explaining the research aim, ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of the respondent) as well as the common method bias (simple, specific, and unambiguous questions). The fieldwork took place between June and September 2019 and, at the end of the whole process, we obtained 85 valid questionnaires.

The paper study collected data on both the exogenous and endogenous variables from the same respondents at one point in time and using the same instrument, thus potential common method variance as false internal consistency might be present in the data. We tested for common methods bias to establish that such bias did not distort the data we collected. To do so, we used two approaches. First, we examined the exploratory, unrotated factor analysis to find the results of Harman's single factor test for all of the first-order constructs using a standard
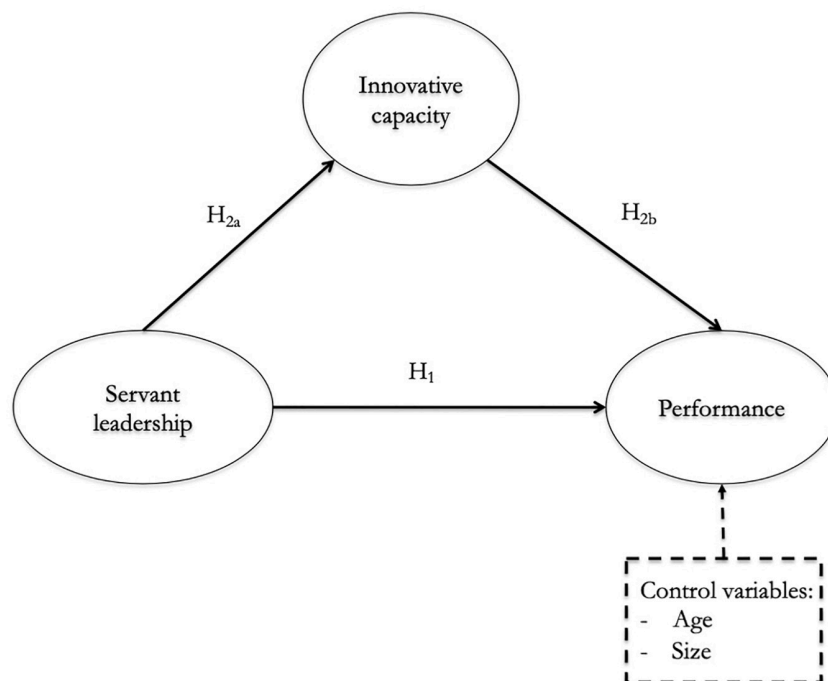

FIGURE 1 | Investigation model.

statistical package. The aim of the test is to determine whether a single factor emerges that explains the majority of the variance in the model. If so, then common method bias likely exists on a significant level (Lowry and Gaskin, 2014). The result of our factor analysis produced 14 distinct factors, the largest of which accounted for 42.35% variance explained by a single factor. This shows that the common method bias was not a major concern in this study (less than 50% cut-off point). In a second approach, we analyzed the common latent factor (CLF) to capture the common variance among all observed variables in the model. Adding a first-order factor to all observed items in the model and comparing the standardized regression weights from this CFA model to the standardized regression weights of a model without the CLF (Gaskin, 2017), the results show that all the values are similar (the difference is less than 0.2). As such, common method bias was not a major threat in our data set.

The most relevant data of the fieldwork can be found in **Table 1**.

To overcome representativeness problems in the sample, its statistical power was measure with Cohen's retrospective test (1992), using the stats program G * Power 3.1.9.2 (Faul et al., 2009). In our case, the sample's statistical power was 0.888, higher than the 0.80 limit set by Cohen (1992).

Measurement of Variables

For servant leadership, innovative capacity and performance, a 7-point Likert scale response format (1 – strongly disagree, 7 – completely agree) was used.

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership was measured using a ten-item scale proposed by Winston and Fields (2015). This variable was made operative as a first-order composites type a.

Innovative Capacity

Innovative capacity was measured using three items as per Keh et al. (2007). innovative capacity was made operative as a first-order composites type a.

Performance

Performance was measured using the scale proposed by Maguregui Urionabarrenechea et al. (2017). Performance was made operative as a second order composites type a. Performance, as a multidimensional measure, was defined on the basis of four Performance categories that are tailored to the

characteristics of Third Sector entities. Specifically, in this work, Performance was analyzed from four perspectives: (1) from the users/beneficiaries; (2) from social activity; (3) from training and development and, (4) from financial resources.

Control Variables

As control variable we have used Size, that is the number of employees and age, that is the number of years that the organization has been in operation.

Data Analysis

To prove these hypotheses (propositions) and analyze both the direct effect and the mediating effect, this research has used a double methodology:

(a) On the one hand, a partial least square method (PLS). As a multivariate quantitative method of structural equations, PLS allows research questions to be addressed for three reasons: (1) it has a predictive nature (Sarstedt et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2017), (2) it enables the observation of different casual relations (Jöreskog and Wold, 1982; Astrachan et al., 2014) and, (3) it is less demanding with the minimum size of the sample (Henseler et al., 2015). The software used for data analysis through SEM-PLS was SmartPLS v.3.2.8 (Ringle et al., 2015).

(b) On the other hand, a qualitative comparative analysis of fuzzy sets (fsQCA) was carried out because of their ability to adequately handle uncertainty and because they are suitable for studying social phenomena using small samples (Ragin, 2000, 2008). In addition, from the literature review we found an increasing number of papers using this data analysis technique (Fiss, 2007; Kraus et al., 2017; Huarng et al., 2020). This analysis enables us to: (1) overcome the problems associated with the minimum size of the sample (Rihoux and Ragin, 2004; Rihoux, 2006), (2) identify the effect of the combinations -configurations- of necessary and sufficient explanatory characteristics which other approaches are not able to adequately identify (Schneider and Wagemann, 2012), (3) offer a qualitative model based on set theory and logic (Thygeson et al., 2012), which complements quantitative techniques by modeling complex asymmetric relationships (Woodside, 2013) and, (4) allows to solve different types of problems (Huarng et al., 2020) as it allows to explain a result from the necessary or sufficient conditions (Ragin, 2000; Huarng et al., 2020). The software used for the comparative qualitative analysis of fuzzy sets (fsQCA) was fsQCA v. 3 (Ragin and Davey, 2016).

The research results will be presented in accordance with the methods of analysis that has been used. Therefore, first of all, the results will be analyzed according to the second-generation structural method (PLS-SEM) and subsequently the findings obtained from a quantitative comparative analysis methods (fsQCA) can then be exhibited.

TABLE 1 | Details of the sample and data collection.

Property	Value
Context	Spain
Responses received	85
Sampling method	Simple random
Confidence level	95%, $p = p = 50\%$; $\alpha = 0.05$
Statistical Power	0.888
Data collection period	June to September 2019

PLS-SEM Results

First, an analysis of the results and a comparison of hypotheses through a second-generation structural equation method (PLS-SEM) were carried out using the SmartPLS v.3.2.8 software (Ringle et al., 2015). First of all, it is important to ensure that all used variables are reliable and have adequate levels of convergent and discriminant validity. In order to achieve this Barclay et al. (1995); Roldán and Sánchez-Franco (2012), and Hair et al. (2017) suggest evaluating the measurement models using the following indicators:

(1) Composite reliability – Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommend values above 0.7 for composite reliability. According to Hair et al. (2019) these values are deemed "good" because they are between 0.7 and 0.9. Furthermore, they do not pose any redundancy problems as they never go above 0.95 (Drolet and Morrison, 2001; Diamantopoulos et al., 2012). The different variables have suitable composite reliability values (see **Table 2**).

(2) Cronbach's alpha – Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommend Cronbach's alpha values higher than 0.7. As shown in **Table 2**, Cronbach's alpha exceeds these thresholds.

(3) Rho A – is used to calculate a reliability value that lies between the two previous extreme values (composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha). Rho A, proposed by Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015, should be above 0.7 (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015) and should be between the reliability values of the composites and Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2019). In our case this is met (see **Table 2**).

(4) AVE (Average Variance Extracted) – The AVE enables us to evaluate the convergent validity of the different components. Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommend a value above 0.5 for the AVE. In our case this is met (see **Table 2**).

(5) We can also analyze the discriminant validity by verifying that the correlations between each pair of constructs do

not exceed the value of the square root of the AVE of each construct and the HTMT index. For discriminant validity to be met, the values of the HTMT ratio must be lower than 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015). As shown in **Table 2**, there is discriminant validity, as the two previous aspects are fulfilled.

Once the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement model is ascertained, we proceed to test the hypotheses raised in the model. To do this, we must check the values of the trajectory coefficient and the level of significance, applying a bootstrapping procedure of 5,000 subsamples. To be able to determine the different effects, we follow the steps suggested by Hair et al. (2014) in order to apply Preacher and Hayes's (2008) in the proposed mediation model.

Firstly, we analyze the direct effect of servant leadership on the performance of Third Sector entities. Based on the bootstrapping procedure of 5000 subsamples, we calculate the values of the trajectory of the coefficient and its meaning. As we see, the effect is positive and significant ($\beta = 0.472$; $p < 0.001$) (see **Figure 2** and **Table 3**). This result is reinforced by applying the percentile method to the bootstrap resampling with a 95% confidence rate (see **Table 3**). In addition, servant leadership is able to explain 35.6 percent of the variation in the performance of Third Sector entities. Therefore, the first of the hypotheses that stated that servant leadership has a positive influence on the performance of Third Sector entities is confirmed.

The second step is to include the effect of innovative capacity as a mediating variable. To do this, we first test the influence of servant leadership on innovative capacity. We observe that this effect is positive and significant ($\beta = 0.541$; $p < 0.001$) (see **Figure 3** and **Table 3**). Secondly, we tested the influence of the innovative capacity and the performance of Third Sector entities. Again, this influence is positive and significant ($\beta = 0.468$; $p < 0.001$) (see **Figure 3** and **Table 3**). Consequently, hypotheses H_{2a} and H_{2b} are confirmed. Furthermore, the mediating effect completely suppresses the direct effect of the servant leadership and the performance of the Third Sector entities, since the path coefficient is 0.072 and is not significant. On the other hand, the indirect effect of the Servant Leadership on the performance of the entities of the Third Sector through the innovative capacity is 0.253 (a_1b_1).

In this model, servant leadership is able to explain 53.2% of the variance of innovative capacity and this, in turn, is able to explain 44.7% of the variance of the performance of Third Sector entities. Therefore, there is a mediation of innovative capacity in relation to the servant leadership and the performance of Third Sector entities and said effect is total as it suppresses the direct effect (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Cepeda-Carrión et al., 2016).

Control variables, size and age, enable us to analyze the common variance among predictors and avoid overestimated parameters. However, a comparison of the results of three different statistical analyses – one that includes all control variables, another that includes only the control variables that are significantly related to our dependent variable and a third one without any control variables- revealed almost identical parameters, without any changes in the significance levels and

TABLE 2 | Correlation matrix, composite reliability, convergent and discriminant validity, heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT), and descriptive statistics.

Composite/Measure	AVE	Composite reliability	SL	IC	P
1. Servant leadership	0.735	0.874	0.857*		
2. Innovative capacity	0.697	0.863	0.639	0.834*	
3. Performance	0.701	0.857	0.571	0.652	0.837*
Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT)					
1. Servant leadership			0.564		
2. Innovative capacity			0.571	0.588	
3. Performance			0.601	0.583	0.571
Cronbach's Alpha			0.849	0.762	0.741
Rho A			0.857	0.802	0.797
Media			4.34	4.06	4.18
Standard deviation			0.97	1.05	0.92

*The correlations are for the second-order CFA output. *The elements on the diagonal show the square root of the AVE. AVE, average variance extracted; SL, servant leadership; CI, innovative capacity; P, performance.*
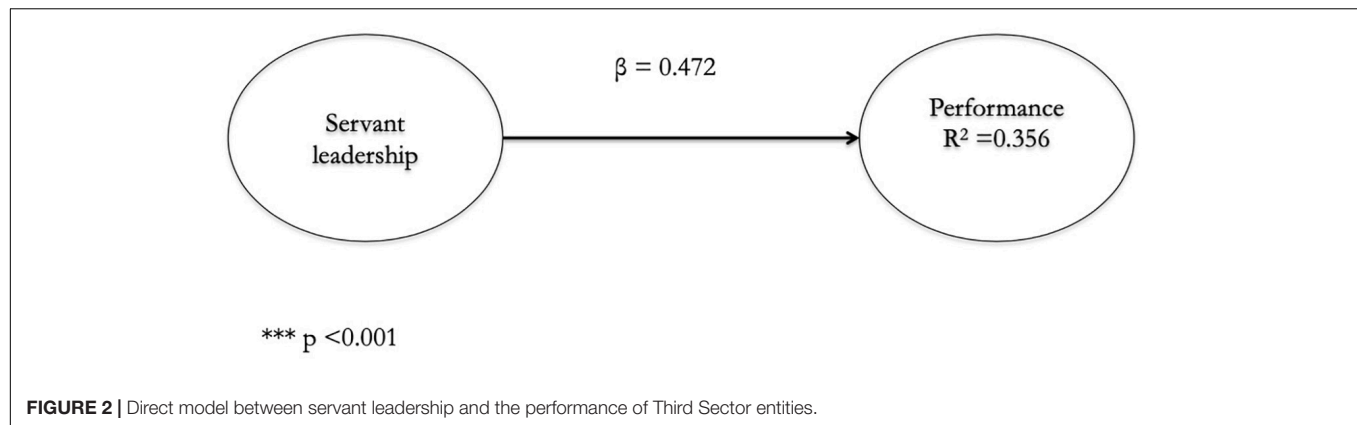
FIGURE 2 | Direct model between servant leadership and the performance of Third Sector entities.

TABLE 3 | Structural model.

	Path Coefficient (b)	t-value (bootstrap)	Confidence intervals 95%		Support
			Infer.	Super.	
Direct model SRMR: 0.074					
Total effect of SL on P (c)	0.472***	3.871	0.279	0.534	Yes
Mediation model SRMR: 0.063					
SL → P = c′ (direct effect of LS on P)	0.072^{ns}	0.692	0.010	0.361	No
SL → IC → P = $a_1 b_1$ (vía IC) (total indirect effect of LS on P, mediation)	0.253		0.183	0.486	
H_2 = SL → IC = a_1	0.541***	5.439	0.458	0.721	Yes
H_3 = IC → P = b_1	0.468***	4.732	0.349	0.593	Yes

*** $p < 0.001$, based on t (4,999), one-tailed test; ns, not significant. SL, servant leadership; IC, innovative capacity; P, performance.

confidence intervals. On the basis of the above and following Bernerth and Aguinis's (2016), no control variable was included in our analysis.

By comparing the two models and bearing in mind the quality parameters, we can state that the mediation model is better than the direct model: the SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual). The model obtains a SRMR of 0.074 and the mediation model a SRMR of 0.063, in both cases below the threshold established by Henseler et al. (2015). This would imply additional support for the mediating role of absorptive capacity.

fsQCA Results

In this section the results of the propositions based on a quantitative comparative method (fsQCA) will be analyzed using the software fsQCA 2.5 (Ragin and Sean, 2014).

In order to proceed with the fsQCA analysis, the Likert (1–7) responses were transformed into fuzzy-set responses. First of all, all lost cases must be eliminated (there were no lost cases in our sample). Then, all components must be calculated by multiplying the scores of the items they are made of. Subsequently, answers need to be recalibrated taking the three thresholds into consideration (Woodside, 2013): 10th percentile (under agreement or totally outside the category), 50th percentile (intermediate level of agreement or neither inside nor outside the category) and 90th percentile (high agreement or entirely within the category). Finally, necessity and sufficiency analyses were carried out to evaluate the effect of the different components. This

sequence has been used in previous works such as Ruiz-Palomino et al's (2019). The fsQCA models generate three possible solutions: complex, parsimonious and intermediate. Following Ragin's (2008) the intermediate solution was used in this work.

Based on the results that have been obtained (see **Table 4**), both servant leadership and innovative capacity, each on their own merit, are essential conditions for a performance improvement as they have a consistency value higher than a 0.90 which is the threshold established by Ragin (2008). Although servant leadership has a higher consistency value (0.947628) than innovative capacity (0.921567), it is also capable of explaining a higher performance percentage in Third Sector entities (83.78% of the performance). This enables us to state that the performance of Third Sector entities can be explained, to a greater degree, by servant leadership (in 83.78% of cases) than by innovative capacity (in 73.98% of cases). On the other hand, if we consider servant leadership and innovative capacity together, the consistency increases to 0.96 and it is able to explain 90.68% of the performance of Third Sector entities.

As per Eng and Woodside (2012), when consistency is higher than 0.75, the model in fsQCA is informative. In our case, the sufficiency condition demonstrates that the performance of Third Sector entities takes place when we consider servant leadership and innovative capacity (see **Table 5**). In other words, innovative capacity positively mediates the effect of servant leadership in the performance of Third Sector entities, as it is able to explain 90.98% of performance cases of Third Sector entities.
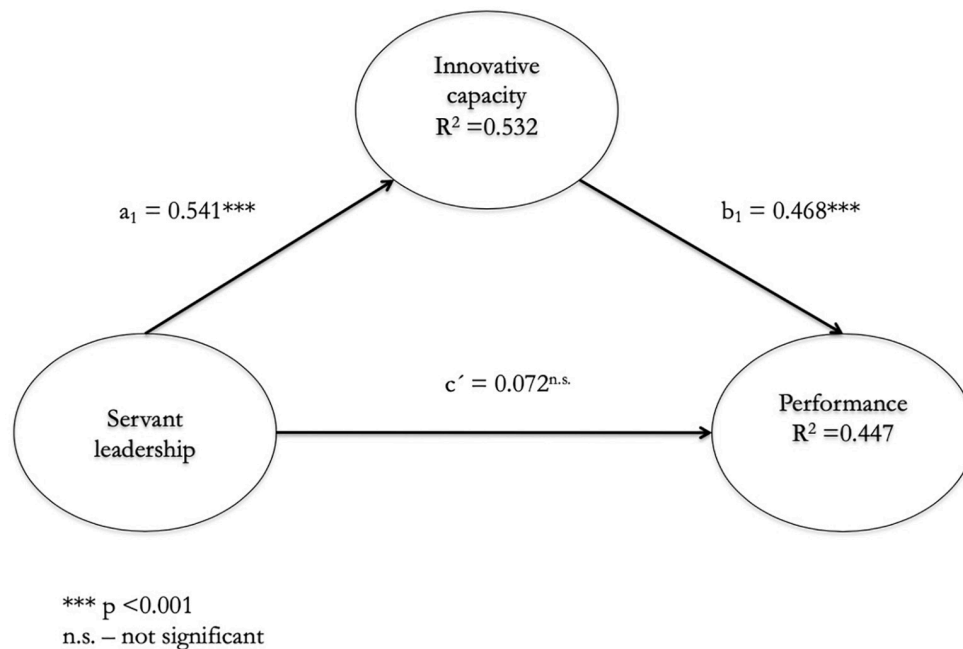
FIGURE 3 | Model for mediating the innovative capacity in the relationship between servant leadership and the performance of Third Sector entities.

TABLE 4 | Necessary conditions: intermediate solution.

	Outcome: Performance	
	Consistency	Coverage
SL	0.947628	0.837832
IC	0.921567	0.739824
SL * IC	0.968245	0.906828

SL, servant leadership; IC, innovative capacity; P, performance.

TABLE 5 | Intermediate solution for the analysis of sufficient conditions.

	Outcome: Performance		
	Raw coverage	Unique coverage	Consistency
SL	0.845688	0.845688	0.746721
IC	0.832841	0.832841	0.728659
SL * IC	0.897650	0.897650	0.909864

SL, servant leadership; IC, innovative capacity; P, performance.

DISCUSSION

The study of Third Sector entities is increasingly important due to the relevance that these entities have in the economic and social development of many countries. Spain is no exception. For these entities to continue to play this important role, it is necessary for them to implement new management models that allow them to adapt to the changing conditions of the environment. In this sense, both servant leadership and the innovative capacity may be aspects that Third Sector entities should take into account in order to improve their performance levels. Servant leadership has become a new approach for facing up to the changes that are taking place in the environment and in the organizations themselves (Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2011). The behavior of Third Sector entities can also be analyzed on the basis of servant leadership (Herman, 2016). In this sense, in this work we try to verify the influence of servant leadership on the performance of third sector entities. The way to measure performance in Third Sector entities is not the same as in for-profit organizations. The purpose of Third Sector entities is not to maximize economic benefit, but rather to achieve non-economic objectives linked to their purpose (Ortiz-Gómez et al., 2020). In this sense, we consider performance as a multidimensional measure that takes into account budgetary, social, training and user aspects (Maguregui Urionabarrenechea et al., 2017). One of the objectives of this research is to analyze the influence of servant leadership on the innovative capacity of Third Sector entities. With this objective in mind, we try to respond to the call made by Ronquillo (2011) and Allen et al. (2018) to continue studying server leadership in Third Sector organizations in greater depth. Most of the previous studies focus on the influence of servant leadership on performance as a quantitative variable (Liden et al., 2008; Overstreet et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2016; Sousa and van Dierendonck, 2016; Hoch et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2019). The originality of this work is that performance has been considered as a subjective multidimensional variable, which is obtained from the assessment on a Likert scale (1–7) of 85 managers of Third Sector entities.

The relationship between servant leadership and the performance of Third Sector entities is quite complex, which is

why authors such as Antonakis et al. (2010) and Eva et al. (2019) call for a more profound analysis, including mediators. These mediators will make it possible to improve the understanding of the aforementioned relationship. In our study we opted for the innovative capacity. This inclusion is motivated by the fact that the environment is subject to great changes, to which Third Sector entities are not alien. To better adapt to these changes, many organizations use innovation to respond to these changes in a different way (Hult et al., 2004). This process must involve both management (Katrinli et al., 2009) and workers (Chen and Huang, 2009). Although product innovation is not usually very common in Third Sector entities, we do find a greater relevance of process innovation or new ideas in these entities (Hull and Lio, 2006), above all due to the direct relationship with users. Creativity is a relevant factor in this type of entity to satisfy new user needs.

To test the research questions formulated, we use two research methods: on the one hand, a method of second generation partial least squares structural equations (PLS-SEM) and, on the other hand, a method of qualitative comparative analysis (fsQCA). With the use of this double methodology we try to respond to the call of Eva et al. (2019) to use different methods of analysis for the validity of the servant leadership relationship in the performance of third sector entities.

This study gives an affirmative answer to the first research question, that is, that servant leadership positively influences the performance of Third Sector entities. In this sense, the results obtained coincide with previous studies that use quantitative measures of performance (Liden et al., 2008; Overstreet et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2016; Sousa and van Dierendonck, 2016; Hoch et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2019). The most relevant contribution of this work is the positive influence of servant leadership on performance, regardless of how we measure that performance. This work allows us to affirm that servant leadership positively influences the performance of Third Sector entities, even if we use a subjective measure of such performance.

This research allows us to say that mediation role of the innovative capacity in the effect of the servant leadership in the performance of the entities of the Third Sector. The analysis of the measurement of the innovative capacity must be carried out in two phases or stages. In the first place, we must check the influence of the servant leadership on the innovative capacity. This work allows us to state that servant leadership has a positive influence on the innovative capacity of Third Sector entities, coinciding with other research (Neubert et al., 2008; Schaubroeck et al., 2011; Yoshida et al., 2014). Secondly, we must analyze the influence of innovative capacity on performance. The results of this research allow us to state that the innovative capacity has a positive influence on the performance of Third Sector entities. Therefore, if the entities of the Third Sector want to improve their performance, their managers must be aware of exercising a leadership centered on the workers, that encourages the generation of new ideas, creativity, etc. In short, they have to act on the innovative behavior of their workers to promote the innovative capacity and with it, to improve their levels of performance.

CONCLUSION

With this work we have deepened the analysis of the servant leadership in the Third Sector entities. The main conclusion of this work is that Third Sector entities can use the servant leadership approach to improve their performance, allowing them to analyze their behavior (Herman, 2016). Therefore, servant leadership is an antecedent of the performance of third sector entities, positively influencing it. The application of servant leadership will allow Third Sector entities to align the objectives of the Third Sector entity with those of its employees and the end users of its activity. With this result, we give an affirmative answer to the first of the research questions and fulfill one of the objectives of this work of analyzing servant leadership, responding to the call by Ronquillo (2011) and Allen et al. (2018).

The relationship between servant leadership and the performance of Third Sector entities is not easy to analyze, due to the very characteristics of this type of entity and because its purpose goes beyond the achievement of economic objectives. In order to collect the objectives of different stakeholders that act in third sector institutions, we have considered a multidimensional measure of performance. Given the complexity of the relationship between servant leadership and performance in Third Sector entities, it is necessary to consider other factors that may influence this relationship. In our case, given that it is necessary for third sector organizations to adapt to the changes that are taking place in their environment, we have considered analyzing the effect of innovative capacity on the relationship between servant leadership and performance. Specifically, the mediating effect of innovative capacity is analyzed in order to respond to the call from authors such as Antonakis et al. (2010) and Eva et al. (2019) to include mediators in this analysis. The results obtained in this work allow us to assert that the average innovation capacity in the influence of servant leadership on the performance of Third Sector entities. With this conclusion we respond to the second objective of this work. Furthermore, mediation is total and when innovative capacity is considered, the direct relationship of servant leadership in the performance of Third Sector entities is annulled. In short, for servant leadership to influence the performance of Third Sector entities through the innovative capacity. The above implies that servant leadership influences the innovative capacity and the latter influences the performance of Third Sector entities.

The main implication of this work for the management of Third Sector entities is that in order to improve their performance they must apply new management systems that consider both servant leadership and innovative capacity.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH LINES

This work has the following limitations, the solution of which can lead to future research works. The first limitation is related to the number of questionnaires obtained. Although the research was carried out with sufficient statistical strength, y data analysis methods have been used to achieve significance with few

observations and to draw generalizable conclusions (Fedriani-Martel and Romano-Paguillo, 2017; Hair et al., 2019), an increase in the number of managers surveyed would be useful.

The second limitation comes from the fact that neither the employees (servants) nor the beneficiaries of Third Sector entities were taken into consideration. In future researches the field of study could be extended to other collectives or interest groups linked to Third Sector entities.

As future lines of research *per se*, we can point out studies which compare these relationships with other type of Third Sector entities such as corporative foundations, religious organizations, social associations, NGOs, social cooperatives, etc.

Another future investigation line would be comparing the results of Third Sector entities with those of firms within the free market economy.

Finally, it would be interesting to carry out longitudinal studies to observe how the relationships obtained between the variable in question evolve over time and check the causal relationships between themselves.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors, without undue reservation, to any qualified researcher.

ETHICS STATEMENT

Ethical review and approval were not required for the study on human participants in accordance with the local legislation and institutional requirements. The patients/participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors listed have made a substantial, direct and intellectual contribution to the work, and approved it for publication.

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APPENDIX

Server Leadership Questionnaire

How many years you've been a director?	Age of the respondent:
Sex of respondent: Male Female	Respondent's level of education:
Year of appointment:	Number of employees under your direction:
He's worked at another entity before?	What sector?
He has worked before in another position at the entity where he currently works: Yes No	

Instructions

Evaluate the importance of the following factors. Mark with an X the assessment you consider appropriate. If you do not agree at all, mark 1, and when you feel you agree completely, mark 7.

Server Leadership

Practice what you preach	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It serves people regardless of their nationality, gender or race, etc.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Sees serving as a mission of responsibility to others	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
He's genuinely interested in the employees as people	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Understand that serving others is the most important thing.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
He's willing to sacrifice himself to help others	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It seeks to instill confidence rather than fear or insecurity	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It's always honest	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It aims to contribute more to society with its work	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

Innovative Capability

It considers that the degree of novelty of the latest products and services is high	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It considers that the latest technological innovations are used in new products and services	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It considers that the speed of development of new products and services is high	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It considers that a very high number of new products and services have been introduced	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It considers that his entity has been the first to introduce a very high number of new products and services	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It considers that the technological competitiveness of its very high	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It considers that the speed with which they adopt the latest technological innovations in their processes is very high	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It considers that the degree of novelty of the technologies used in the processes in his entity is very high	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
It considers that a very high number of new processes or techniques have been introduced/started in my entity	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

Performance Indicators
User/Beneficiary Perspective

To know and improve the beneficiaries' perception of the quality of the service provided	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Improve coverage of the needs of the beneficiaries served	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Improve coverage of social needs in the area	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
To promote the image and increase the presence of the entity among the beneficiary users	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
To promote the image and increase the presence of the entity among the beneficiary users	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

Financial Resource Perspective

To detect possible deviations in the budgetary application	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Improve the application of the economic resources obtained toward the destination	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
To increase economic and financial independence in order to achieve better compliance with social objectives	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
To increase the financial resources obtained	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Minimize the total costs of each service or activity	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
To increase the obtaining of requested subsidies	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

Social Activity Perspective

Comply with the activity objectives set	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Respond to the demand as soon as possible	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Increase the activity carried out	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Improve and maintain the specific equipment needed to meet the social objective	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
To promote society's interest in the entity	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Increase the efficiency of the staff	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

Training and Development Perspective

Promoting employee training	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Increase employee satisfaction	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Assess the impact of training	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Encourage participation	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Reduce employee absenteeism	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Promote the improvement of internal communication	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

The Challenge of Greening Religious Schools by Improving the Environmental Competencies of Teachers

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Even though sacred scriptures emphasize the key role that Creation and respect for living creatures play in all religions, the so-called religious schools seem to show little interest in putting this sacred mandate into effect. To shed light on this subject, this work investigates the role of teachers in the process, focusing on their environmental competencies. Our hypotheses are tested through a structural equation model on a sample of 214 biology and religion teachers from 118 Catholic schools in Spain who voluntary participated in a survey. The research findings confirm that it is crucial that environmental competencies are developed in teachers to enable the greening of schools. Theoretical and practical implications for defining the job training of teachers in religious schools are drawn from the study.

Keywords: competences, environmental threat, greening, schools, religious schools

INTRODUCTION

Recently, the World Economic Forum's *Global Risks Report 2018* has warned about some of the biggest environmental threats in the near future, namely extreme weather events and natural disasters, water crises, biodiversity loss, and air and soil pollution (Hossain and Purohit, 2018). These challenging threats have previously been defined as 'wicked problems' (Rittel and Webber, 1973) because of the difficulties in finding optimal solutions to them (Shindler and Cramer, 1999).

In the last three decades, a vast amount of literature has been published with the aim of tackling these environmental threats (Van Eijndhoven et al., 2001; Farrell and Jäger, 2006). Despite the outstanding efforts made by environmental organizations to preserve nature, it is broadly agreed that natural resources are still not used and replaced appropriately (Melkert and Vos, 2008; World Health Organization [WHO], 2013) because social, economic and environmental resources are not developed in harmony (Kates et al., 2005). Economic development and environmental needs and resources should therefore be reconciled (Kuhlman and Farrington, 2010).

Sustainable development has been defined and identified as the preservation of natural resources (the environmental perspective) but also as cooperation between communities (the socio-economic perspective) (Rauch, 2002). As the Brundtland Commission described, sustainable development can be developed by meeting the needs of the current times and by respecting future generations (WCED, 1987). The sustainable methodology that links economic development and the environment needs to be taught at an early stage in life. As the UNECE (2005) has

stated, 'it is important to ensure that all pupils and students acquire appropriate knowledge of sustainable development and are aware of the impact of decisions that do not support sustainable development' (p. 6).

In this process of education in sustainability, schools have become the appropriate educational institutions to train new generations to use natural resources appropriately (Vare and Scott, 2007). In 1990, the government of Spain passed a national law known as the LOGSE (*General Organic Law about the Education System in Spain*), which introduced reforms in environmental education into the school curriculum. There is some evidence that from this time on schools in Spain have, slowly but gradually, increased their sustainability strategies for protecting the environment (Murga-Menoyo, 2009).

Similarly, regional governments have made environmental commitments to future generations by developing initiatives in sustainability such as the *Basque Strategy for Sustainable Environmental Development* (Government of the Basque Country, 2002) and the *Plan of Education for Sustainability* (Government of Cantabria, 2005). These plans include specific environmental initiatives that have already been applied in other educational institutions, such as, among others, using public transport instead of cars, or turning off lights when they are not being used, to decrease overall consumption (Shwom and Lorenzen, 2012).

Education in sustainability is also connected with the sacred scriptures (Northcott, 2009; Delio, 2017). It is based on the experience of the natural beauty of Creation, which triggers spiritual feelings of fascination and admiration (Palmer, 2008) that are directly connected to the protection of nature (Johnson, 2002). In this regard, Christianity has inspired the principle of the stewardship of nature (Boff, 1995); from the very beginning, 'God saw all that he had made, and it was very good' (Gen, 1:31); in the Greek version, the word 'good' is 'kalon,' meaning beautiful. Living creatures as well as human beings were made as beautiful things in the 'image of God' or the very likeness of the Creator (Gen, 1:27).

According to Hitzhusen (2006), religious elements enhance education in sustainability because of religion's environmental values. Likewise, religion has the potential to teach an understanding of the process of life and living creatures as an ontological gift, as an example of a respectful attitude toward nature (Farrior and Lowry, 2001). Nevertheless, to the best of our knowledge, few studies until now have highlighted the challenge of greening religious schools to face global environmental threats. This paper aims to address this challenge by studying the variables that have a positive influence on the challenge of greening religious schools to face the global environmental risk, and the role of teachers' competencies in relation to this.

Literature Review and Development of Hypotheses
The Lack of Education in Sustainability in Religious Schools
Religious education in schools has traditionally addressed moral issues in order to help students to develop their own views

by reflecting on how moral issues have a positive influence on behavior (Schreiner, 2000). The process of understanding moral issues in religious schools not only provides students with feelings of affiliation and of belonging to a religion, but also produces a moral atmosphere (Francis, 1986; Flynn, 1995), which gives students a sense of direction beyond materialistic approaches to life (Ysseldyk et al., 2010).

Since the Tbilisi Declaration (UNESCO, 1977) and the UN Conference on Environment and Development (Agenda 21), knowledge, values, attitudes and practical skills have been introduced into some European countries to solve environmental problems through teaching in schools. Aligned with those international regulations, religious schools in Finland, for instance, have included 'responsibility for the environment, well-being and a sustainable future' in their current national curriculum (Aarnio-Linnanvuori, 2013). Likewise, Indonesian religious schools, whose aim is to produce religious individuals and responsible citizens by being self-sufficient in natural resources, have followed the same path (Parker, 2017).

In Spain, the aforementioned LOGSE (1990) introduced compulsory environmental education in 1990. As a result, through Agenda 21, schools were monitored in their policies for developing initiatives toward sustainability (UN, 2009). Regions such as the Basque country, Cantabria, the Community of Madrid, Catalonia and the Balearic Islands were pioneers in defining the environmental content to be taught in schools (Murga-Menoyo, 2009).

Among these environmental initiatives, a network of affiliated eco-schools was set up in Spain. This was called the Association for Environmental Education and Consumers (ADEAC, 2019). Nowadays, 519 schools in Spain are integrated into this non-profit organization, which implements programs from the European Foundation for Environmental Education (FEE) (Parris, 2002). As the director of this altruistic organization has recently reported to the research team working on this paper, only approximately 4% of the schools in the network are religious schools. Thinking about the future generations of students in religious schools in Spain, the small size of that impact has driven us to find out which attributes might cause the greening of religious schools.

The Two Approaches to Teaching Sustainability in Schools
Religious and environmental connections (REC) exist. In the last decade, environmentalists and religious leaders have created overlapping and mixed relationships to raise environmental awareness, with the aim of protecting and preserving natural resources (Sponsel, 2012; Raven, 2016). However, the process of integrating religious rules into respectful attitudes has been complex.

Current environmental damage provoked by human beings has caused a destructive model of growth in developed and developing countries, and this has been denounced by religious leaders (Pope Paul, 1971; Benedict, 2008). More recently, Pope Francis, in the encyclical letter *Laudato Si*, has stressed the devastating consequences of this damage not only for the

environment but also for human beings, namely in worldwide poverty (Raven, 2016).

Despite these environmental–religious statements, environmentalists and religious leaders have not yet found an amicable agreement that allows them to build one discourse upon the same values and attitudes (Biel and Nilsson, 2005), even though they share those values and attitudes (Crossman, 2011). On the religious side, rules to respect nature were set within the covenant between the Creator and the creatures (Berry, 1988), in order to shape attitudes and actions to protect and restore the environment (Tucker, 2009). From the side of environmentalists, environmental education is based on the same respectful values toward nature (Hitzhusen, 2005). To heal the disagreement with religious schools is key, not only to connecting environmental concepts and understanding why the protection of nature is part of the spiritual covenant (Dudley et al., 2009), but also for avoiding clashes and connecting sustainability and religion by efficiently using their common language (Gookin, 2002).

Hence, the justification of the importance of environmental education as a model of education in values is based on the impossibility in religious schools of maintaining a disagreement between religion, humanity and nature (Jensen and Schnack, 2006). After expressing the relationship between religious doctrine and sustainability in religious schools, we formulate the following hypothesis:

> Hypothesis 1 (H1): The connection between religious doctrine and sustainability in religious schools (REC) positively influences the greening process of religious schools (GRS).

Sustainability as a Cross-Sectional Competence

Education in sustainability has currently become a challenge for schools. Schools, in particular, understand the benefits that lie between human development and the preservation of nature, and between the moral dimension of human beings and the environmental role that men and women play on earth. The purpose of education in sustainability is to develop environmental cross-sectional competences (CECs).

According to Jensen and Schnack (2006), highly educated individuals usually show moral behavior to promote their personal integrity. To preserve integrity among students, CSCs are aimed at developing knowledge, skills and rules of behavior (Loe Spanish National Education System, 2006). These competences are linked not only to social and ethical commitment (Haynes, 2002; Yildirim and Baştuğ, 2010), but also to proactive behavior (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008) that confronts the exploitation of natural resources (Mogensen and Mayer, 2005). However, according to Nekhoroshkov (2016), providing adequate knowledge for students is not sufficient to give them environmental competences.

Environmental knowledge, skill and a willingness to act responsibly toward nature (Torkar and Krašovec, 2019) have to be surrounded by an environmental awareness at school (Goldman et al., 2018; Olsson et al., 2019; Sánchez-Llorens et al.,

2019) if the environment is to be protected. These elements help students to be passionate about nature (Uzzell et al., 1995). An ecological culture, a system that prioritizes the relationship between humans and nature, needs to be spread across society (Boulet et al., 2015). Hence, competences in environmental education do not only give protection to the student's own social and natural environmental safety (Hashim and Denan, 2015; Ponomarenko et al., 2016).

To prioritize the connection between human beings and nature, education in sustainability has to develop systemic and holistic thinking (Lozano, 2006) to connect the environment with social and economic development (Rauch, 2002) and, as well, critical arguments to defend nature from voracious consumerism (Singseewo, 2011).

Taking into account what is expressed in this section, we formulate the following hypotheses:

> Hypothesis 2 (H2): Cross-sectional environmental competence (CEC) positively influences the connection between religious doctrine and sustainability in religious schools (REC).

> Hypothesis 3 (H3): Cross-sectional environmental competence (CEC) positively influences the greening process of religious schools (GRS).

Environmental Teaching Programs (ETP)

Teaching environmental education in schools has played a key role in the educational process of turning young people into responsible citizens (Pascual et al., 2000). Environmental teaching programs (ETP) based on environmental policies help to transform local societies and communities (Pitoska and Lazarides, 2013; Rickenbacker et al., 2019).

This training should include ETP (Fien et al., 2008) as well as empirical ones (Gill and Lang, 2018; Robina-Ramírez and Medina-Merodio, 2019). It allows environmental policies to be developed that incorporate the appropriate interdisciplinary skills, competences and values to transform current society into a better environment (Heyl et al., 2013; Hofman, 2015).

According to Fien et al. (2008), this interdisciplinary method should express a social-environmental model rather than a basically educational model (Vázquez and Sevillano García, 2011). This means that 'training for action' and 'social and environmental change' need to be applied inside and outside schools (Heyl et al., 2013; Collins, 2017).

Empirical teaching and learning is based on experience, as educational policies focus not only on cognitive but also on affective processes in order to predispose students to assimilate this training (Ramos et al., 2015). ETP should also include affective emotions. There is no one-to-one correspondence between attitude and behavior unless moral emotions are included (Johnson and Manoli, 2011). Emotions, behaviors and values are deeply connected to religious and environmental education (Batson et al., 1985; Kals et al., 1999; Fletcher et al., 2005; Robina-Ramírez and Pulido Fernández, 2018).

Hence, teachers have to assess students' attitudes based on the knowledge that the students have (Okur-Berberoglu, 2015),

and, with the help of affective emotions, to engage with social and environmental goals for the students. As a result, knowledge and emotional and behavioral responses lead students to transform society through practical cases. Applying only traditional educational programs will only make students aware of the problem but will not show them how to act to solve environmental problems, whether these are global or local (Uzzell et al., 1995).

Environmental damage to nature can be local or international. According to Ideland and Malmberg (2015), the process of environmental education in religious schools must focus on the realities of the local communities and the environmental problems at the schools themselves in order to minimize the economic and environmental impact (Afrinaldi et al., 2017).

Taking into account what has been stated in this section, we formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Cross-sectional environmental competence (CEC) positively influences environmental teaching programs in religious schools (ETP).

Hypothesis 5 (H5): Environmental teaching programs in religious schools (ETP) positively influence the greening process in religious schools (GRS).

Environmental Competencies of Teachers (ECTs)

The importance of human resource (HR) qualifications for educational institutions in general and for religious schools in particular has been a recurrent theme for several years now. More concretely, teacher training has become a key issue in introducing environmental education into schools, as we have been repeatedly reminded by international organizations (UNESCO, 1977). Training has been defined as a priority in order to promote sustainability (Fien, 1995).

Strategies to improve environmental education in society should be carried out with the effective support of teachers (Bregeon et al., 2008), or new generations will not transform their mind-sets and take up a respectful attitude to nature (Madhawa Nair et al., 2013). Teachers' environmental knowledge plays a key role in developing the environmental competencies of their students (Mat Said et al., 2003; Guven and Sulun, 2017).
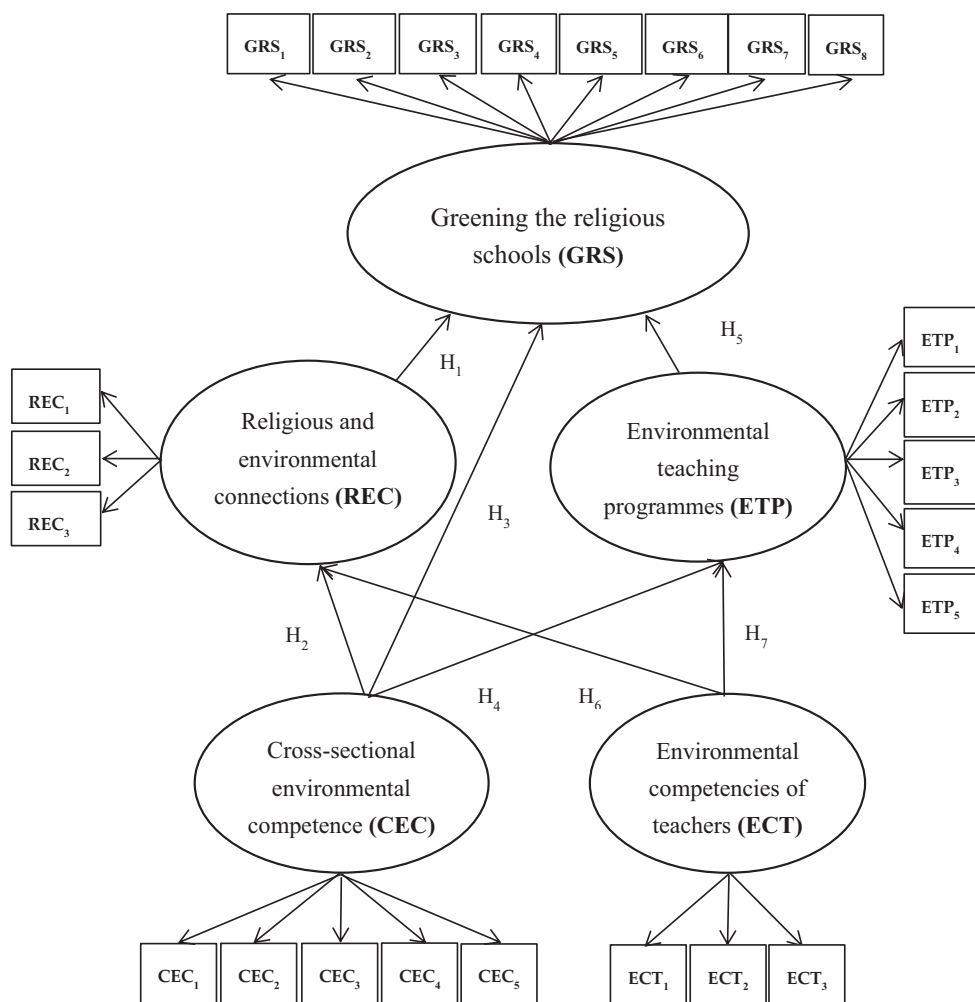

FIGURE 1 | Conceptual model.

TABLE 1 | Scales.

Construct	Code	Item	Sources
Greening religious schools (GRSs)	GRS1	Students' general environmental knowledge	UNECE, 2005
	GRS2	Students' environmental skills to tackle environmental threats	Goldman et al., 2018; Olsson et al., 2019
	GRS3	Students' behavior to protect nature	Hashim and Denan, 2015; Robina-Ramírez and Fernández Portillo, 2018; Sánchez-Llorens et al., 2019
	GRS4	Students' critical thinking about the environment	Singseewo, 2011
	GRS5	Students' holistic and systematic thinking about the environment	Lozano, 2006; Svanström et al., 2008
	GRS6	Students' specific environmental actions at school	Ward et al., 2014
	GRS7	Students' proactive thinking about the environment	Clunies-Ross et al., 2008
	GRS8	Students' social and ethical commitment to the environment	Haynes, 2002; Yildirim and Baştuğ, 2010
Religious and environmental connections (RECs)	REC1	Connect sustainability and teaching of sacred scriptures through examples	Hitzhusen, 2006
	REC2	Enhance common values in sustainability and religion	Meyfroidt, 2013; Robina-Ramírez and Pulido-Fernández, 2019
	REC3	Combine religious and sustainable activities at school	Tucker, 2009
Cross-sectional environmental competence (CEC)	CEC1	Train students to protect nature in class through critical thinking	Morrison et al., 2015
	CEC2	Deliver talks in class about environmental injustice and inequalities	Jensen and Schnack, 2006
	CEC3	Train students to acquire environmental values	Biel and Nilsson, 2005
	CEC4	Train students to be passionate about nature to avoid environmental threats	Uzzell et al., 1995
	CEC5	Bring local examples to class about the environment to raise students' concerns	Palmer, 2008
Environmental teaching programs (ETP)	ETP1	Promote learning programs among students	Gill and Lang, 2018
	ETP2	Apply environmental education to local communities	Robina-Ramírez and Medina-Merodio, 2019; Robina-Ramírez et al., 2020
	ETP3	Developing teaching programs to assess the socio-economic impact on the environment	Afrinaldi et al., 2017
	ETP4	Address environmental education toward social change for students	Collins, 2017
	ETP5	Develop affective approach through environmental learning	Kals et al., 1999
Environmental competencies of teachers (ECT)	ECT1	Teachers have enough environmental knowledge	Mat Said et al., 2003; Guven and Sulun, 2017
	ECT2	Teachers have a positive attitude toward nature	Fien and Tilbury, 1996; Zembylas, 2007
	ECT3	Teachers develop skills to set up environmental strategies among students	Fien, 1995; Valderrama-Hernández et al., 2017

For instance, a study conducted in five schools in Canada showed that the level of teaching of environmental education in schools is not adequate (Miles et al., 2006). Other studies have highlighted that teachers do not have accurate knowledge about environmental literacy and competencies (Tal, 2010). These results were confirmed by the work of Falkenberg and Babiuk (2014), which stressed the low level of environmental knowledge and competences of teachers. This implies there is a need for a defined theoretical and practical learning process in environmental education to train these future educators. However, and in combination with this lack of environmental knowledge and competencies among teachers, complementary works have shown that teachers have positive attitudes toward environmental training (Fien and Tilbury, 1996; Zembylas, 2007).

Based on these positive attitudes, training courses have been applied to study their impact on students.

Van Petegem et al. (2007) implemented environmental actions in two universities in the Netherlands with a high and a low level of environmental education. In the second one, the teachers trained the students poorly because of their lack of environmental education. Similar results were found by Valderrama-Hernández et al. (2017): teachers lacked sufficient knowledge and skills to teach their students, because of a lack of training.

Taking into account what has been said in this section, we formulate the following hypotheses:

> Hypothesis 6 (H6): Environmental competencies of teachers (ECTs) positively influence cross-sectional environmental competence (CECs).

> Hypothesis 7 (H7): Environmental competencies of teachers (ECTs) positively influence religious and environmental connections (RECs).

Hypothesis 8 (H8): Environmental competencies of teachers (ECTs) positively influence environmental teaching programs in religious schools (ETPs).

Empirical Study
Model and Measures
From the review of the literature, four constructs (REC, CEC, ETP, and ECT) was proposed to measure their impact on greening in religious schools (GRSs). The model is presented in **Figure 1**.

These constructs were designed with the objective of establishing the questionnaire items around the concepts proposed by different authors (see **Table 1**). The questions in the survey were measured using a Likert scale with seven points to indicate the degree of importance of the factors (Allen and Seaman, 2007). The factors or constructions were measured from 1 ('strongly disagree') to 7 ('strongly agree').

The questionnaire was first validated through qualitative interviews with teachers, six of them face-to-face and 15 in Skype calls. As a result of this validation process, three questions were modified to ensure that the teachers had the correct understanding.

Population and Sample
According to the Catholic Schools Organization, there are 1,996 Catholic schools in Spain. They educate 1,217,674 students and have a total of 83,352 teachers of region and biology.

In this study our hypotheses were tested with a convenience sample of teachers from 118 religious schools. Through telephone calls and emails, information was collected from 214 teachers from each of the 17 autonomous regions of Spain, between 1st May and 10th July 2019. 57% of the respondent were males, with the predominant age (70% of the total sample) being between 36 and 55. Most of them had been teaching for between 11 and 20 years, predominantly in secondary schools (see **Table 2**).

Method and Techniques
Partial least squares (PLS) structural equation modeling (SEM) is used for conceptual model design through causal and non-parametric predictive analysis (Hussain et al., 2018). It is, especially when based on a variance model, suitable for analyzing quantitative data in the areas of social sciences and organizational behavior (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982; Hair et al., 2012).

The data obtained from the *ad hoc* questionnaire were analyzed using SmartPLS 3, which is particularly recommended for composite models or constructions (Rigdon et al., 2017). This PLS statistical technique is applied when the data are structured in a series of interrelated dependency relationships between latent variables and indicators (Sarstedt et al., 2016). SmartPLS software 3.2.8 was used (Ringle et al., 2015).

RESULTS

Results of the Measurement Model
The PLS approach is defined by two steps: the measurement model and the structural model evaluation. To elaborate the

TABLE 2 | Sample characterization.

Attributes	N = 214	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	123	57
Female	91	43
Total	214	100
Age		
Less than 25	5	2
26–35	41	19
36–45	72	34
46–55	78	36
55 forward	18	8
Total	214	100
Teaching experience		
Less than 3	9	4
From 3 to 10	77	36
From 11 to 20	87	41
More than 20 years	41	19
Total	214	
Subject	214	
Biology	101	47
Religion	113	53
Total	214	100
Institution		
Primary education	78	36
Secondary education	92	43
Bachelor	44	21
Total	214	100
Socio-economic standard		
Low class	12	6
Middle class- High class	212	99
High class	0	0
Total	214	100

measurement model, we need to study the reliability and validity of the indicators in relation to the latent variables or constructs (Hair et al., 2016). We therefore analyzed the individual loads (λ) or simple correlations of the measures with their respective latent variables ($\lambda \geq 0.7$ is accepted). Some indicators presented $\lambda < 0.7$, so they were deleted from the model (these λ values were the following: GRS5 = 0.516, GRS6 = 0.661, GRS7 = 0.585, CEC2 = 0.346, CEC5 = 0.557, ETP2 = 0.375, ETP5 = 0.667).

The Cronbach coefficient was used as an index of the reliability of the latent variables. The convergent validity of the latent variables was evaluated through the inspection of the average variance extracted (AVE) (accepted if > 0.5). **Table 3** also shows that the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct is greater than its highest correlation with any other construct.

The discriminant validity of the latent variables was verified using the Fornell–Larcker criterion (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982), by examining whether the square root of the average extracted value (AVE) of each item was above the correlations with the other latent variables. In addition, following Henseler et al. (2015), a test was performed to check the lack of

Latent variables	Indicator	Loadings	Cronbach's alpha	Rho_A (Dijkstra-Henseler)	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
CEC	CEC1	0.823	0.877	0.877	0.876	0.702
	CEC3	0.811				
	CEC4	0.877				
ECT	ECT1	0.922	0.923	0.924	0.923	0.800
	ECT2	0.891				
	ECT3	0.870				
ETP	ETP1	0.835	0.891	0.904	0.822	0.735
	ETP3	0.966				
	ETP4	0.758				
GRS	GRS1	0.814	0.923	0.924	0.923	0.705
	GRS2	0.892				
	GRS3	0.841				
	GRS4	0.829				
	GRS8	0.822				
REC	REC1	0.865	0.929	0.930	0.929	0.814
	REC2	0.926				
	REC3	0.915				

discriminant validity is better detected with another technique. This test is called the heterotrait–monotrait relationship (HTMT). **Table 4** shows that the HTMT ratio for each pair of factors was less than 0.90 (Henseler, 2017).

Results of the Structural Model

Once we had examined the measurement model, we analyzed the relationships between the latent variables. First, we studied the path coefficients relative to each of the hypotheses. For this we tested the model from 5,000 sub-samples in order to verify the statistical significance of each path. From this, we obtained the explained variance (R^2) of the endogenous latent variables, and the p-values of the regression coefficients (t-test) were used as indicators of the explanatory power of the model (**Table 5**).

Six of the eight hypotheses were accepted. Among the accepted hypotheses, there were no statistically significant differences in the relationships between the variables in our model (value of $p > 0.05$).

Goodness-of-Fit Test for the Model

First, the overall fit of the model was evaluated using the mean residual standard square root (SRMR) indicator. According to Hu and Bentler (1998), the SRMR is the average mean squared discrepancy between the correlations observed and the implicit correlations in the model. For values lower than 0.08, the SRMR indicator is considered to be acceptable for PLS (Henseler et al., 2016). In this study, the SRMR was 0.057, which means that the model fits the empirical data (Hair et al., 2016).

According to Chin (1998), the R^2 values obtained for the investigation have the following significance: 0.67 'Substantial,' 0.33 'Moderate,' and 0.19 'Weak.' The result obtained for the principal dependent variable, the greening process of religious schools (GRS), was $R^2 = 77.8\%$. Therefore, the evidence shows that the model presented has a solid or substantial predictive capacity. The other endogenous variables are also relevant, with substantial and moderate predictive capacity (for REC, $R^2 = 0.712$, and for ETP $R^2 = 0.632$). However, CEC has a weak capacity for

TABLE 4 | Discriminant validity.

	Fornell–Larcker test					Heterotrait–monotrait ratio (HTMT)				
	CEC	ECT	ETP	GRS	REC	CEC	ECT	ETP	GRS	REC
CEC	**0.838**									
ECT	0.425	**0.895**				0.424				
ETP	0.770	0.505	**0.857**			0.769	0.502			
GRS	0.709	0.675	0.740	**0.850**		0.707	0.674	0.735		
REC	0.760	0.654	0.667	0.840	**0.902**	0.761	0.653	0.668	0.849	

The discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the square root of each AVE in the diagonal with the correlation coefficients (off-diagonal) for each construct in the relevant rows and columns.

TABLE 5 | Path coefficients and statistical significance.

Hypotheses		β	2.5%	97.5%	t Statistics	p-values
H_1	REC → GRS	0.338	0.046	0.670	2.110	0.000***
H_2	CEC → REC	0.588	0.430	0.735	7.600	0.000***
H_3	CEC → GRS	−0.064	0.415	0.225	0.391	0.696
H_4	CEC → ETP	0.678	0.541	0.808	9.698	0.000***
H_5	ETP → GRS	0.342	0.115	0.688	2.342	0.019*
H_6	ECT → CEC	0.425	0.192	0.624	3.824	0.000***
H_7	ECT → REC	0.404	0.278	0.542	5.957	0.000***
H_8	ECT → ETP	0.678	0.541	0.808	4.046	0.030*

*$p < 0.05$ [$t(0.05; 499) = 1.647$]; **$p < 0.01$ [$t(0.01; 499) = 2.333$]; ***$p < 0.001$ [$t(0.001; 499) = 3.106$] (n = 5000 subsamples).

TABLE 6 | Coefficient determination (R^2) and Stone–Geisser test (Q^2).

| Construct	R^2	Q^2
CEC	0.181	0.109
ETP	0.632	0.374
GRS	0.778	0.478
REC	0.712	0.495

prediction (R^2 = 0.181). This explains that REC and ETP are the factors that contribute to the greening process of religious schools (GRS).

The blindfolding technique consists of omitting some of the data for a given construct during the estimation of the parameters and then trying to estimate what was omitted from the estimated parameters (Chin, 1998). Using this technique, the predictive relevance of the model is studied, to demonstrate that the model has predictive capacity.

As can be seen in **Table 6**, all the endogenous constructs have $Q^2 > 0$. In the Stone–Geisser (Q^2) test (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974), the values are fixed in three steps; 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35, indicating small, medium and high predictive relevance. All our constructs have predictive relevance, since the values of Q^2 are all greater than 0.02.

DISCUSION

The paper discusses the environmental attributes that should be incorporated into religious schools to combine religious and environmental teaching. **Figure 2** shows, in green, the hypotheses that were validated and, in red, the single hypothesis that was not accepted. The arrows are wider or narrower depending on the values of the supporting parameters (*t* student, *p*-values and path coefficients). The wider arrows link students' environmental competencies (CEC) (through H2 and H4) and
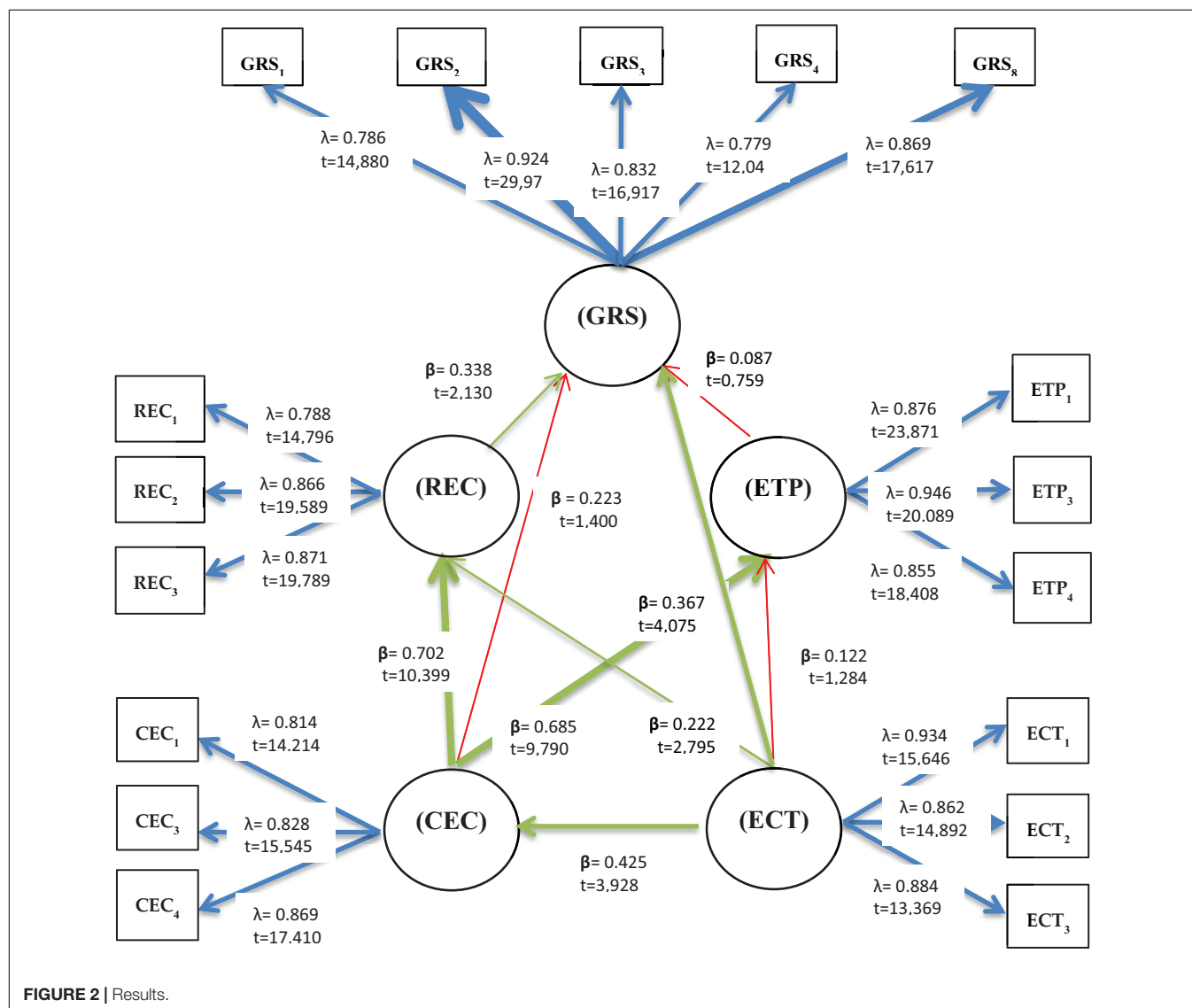
FIGURE 2 | Results.

the environmental competencies of teachers (ECT) (through H4, H6 and H8) with the dependent variable. This demonstrates how knowledge and skill play a key role in greening religious schools.

From the results shown in **Figure 2**, we can say that there are two clear ways of greening religious schools. The first is by developing the cross-sectional environmental competences of students (CEC). The fact that H3 was not fulfilled means it is not possible to make religious schools green only on the basis of students' competences and in the absence of overlapping religious and environmental teaching.

The second way, which is very important in the model as it is the only independent variable not directly affected by any other, is through improving teachers' competences (ECT). Having training programs especially designed to improve the environmental skills of teachers in religious schools could be considered a good HR policy, and would have a direct positive impact on CEC, REC, and ETP and an indirect positive effect on GRS.

To sum up, 77.8% of the greening of religious schools is explained in the model through the selected constructs, where training programs for teachers are revealed as relevant (ECT). The environmental challenge for religious schools can be addressed by taking into account the connections between religion and the environment (REC) ($R^2 = 0.712$) as well as environmental teaching programs (ETP) ($R^2 = 0.632$) and cross-sectional environmental competences ($R^2 = 0.181$). This model is strongly predictive, according to Chin and Newsted (1999).

The results obtained can allow decision-makers to design green strategies based on the role of these educational and religious variables in religious schools. In other words, it is worthwhile and highly recommended to introduce a common language based on the similar values between religion and environmental teaching among students. For this purpose, it would be necessary, first, to train teachers in environmental issues.

In addition, on the religious side, the model focuses on the relevance of Creation, encouraging students to consider their links with living creatures to enhance their commitment to environmental protection and preservation (Tucker, 1999). On the biology side, the model encourages the connection between the religious values of sacred scriptures and environmental science (Hungerford and Volk, 1990), in order to approach nature with respect in daily life (Kellert et al., 2002).

CONCLUSION

As a result of the increase in environmental threats (Hossain and Purohit, 2018), scholars have focused on making environmental proposals to increase environmental awareness among the population (Van Eijndhoven et al., 2001; Farrell and Jäger, 2006). In this regard, sustainable development is playing a major role (Rauch, 2002).

As UNECE (2005) has recommended, sustainable development has to start to be taught in schools. Schools in Spain have started to be more aware of the role nature plays in education. However, religious schools are barely interested

in this environmental teaching (ADEAC, 2019), which is incomprehensible if one takes into account the fact that Creation and living creatures are deeply rooted in sacred scriptures as well as in recent encyclical letters and religious documents (Pope Paul, 1971; Benedict, 2008). Several conclusions can be drawn from the results of this paper.

First, religious schools should combine religious teaching with environmental teaching (Sponsel, 2012; Raven, 2016). This teaching has to be based on the common values and knowledge taken from the sacred scriptures, in which Creation stories compel individuals to respect nature (Biel and Nilsson, 2005). Positive attitudes need to be built among teachers of biology and religion to enable them to speak the same language to students (Gookin, 2002). Consequently, the environmental training of teachers is a key issue in introducing environmental education to schools. HR managers in religious schools have to consider innovative programs to create or to reinforce the environmental competences of teachers. An environmental training policy, oriented toward human capital development, will lead to improved educational results and could also be considered as a differentiation strategy.

Second, teaching and learning programs have become an interesting tool to help raise environmental awareness in students. They have played a key role among teachers in biology and religion at schools. To make religious schools greener, it is crucial to develop not only CSCs (Mogensen and Mayer, 2005) but also teachers. These programs often give common guidance for students about right and wrong. Such competences need to be updated to cover environmental issues; the programs are usually based on critical thinking but also focus on students' personal commitment (Lambrechts et al., 2013) and preparing them for action (Cincera and Krajhanzl, 2013). Similarly, they are usually based on rational attributes, without connections to affective reasons that would make students passionate about respecting nature (Uzzell et al., 1995).

Third, there is no direct way to make schools greener just by developing the students' environmental competences; this must be done through combining religious and environmental teaching. In other words, students' environmental competence needs to be mediated by combined religious and environmental teaching (Jensen and Schnack, 2006).

These results are aligned with the experiences of international programs for eco-schools that monitor schools' designated plans (FEE, 2012). In the case of religious schools in Spain, it would be interesting to learn from international experience, because few of these religious schools are currently interested in greening their academic curriculum. Finally, the output of this research, even acknowledging the limitations derived from the peculiarities of the Spanish context, might shed light on other studies that find no relationship between religion and environmental science or precisely the opposite result (Kanagy and Nelsen, 1995; Clements et al., 2014; Morrison et al., 2015; Arbuckle, 2017). Because of the novelty of our research, this study could be considered as a starting point for future developments in new research contexts with complementary methods.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

All datasets generated for this study are included in the article/supplementary material.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

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What Drives Volunteers to Accept a Digital Platform That Supports NGO Projects?

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Technology has become the driving force for both economic and social change. However, the recruitment of volunteers into the projects of non-profit-making organizations (NGO) does not usually make much use of information and communication technology (ICT). Organizations in this sector should incorporate and use digital platforms in order to attract the most well-prepared and motivated young volunteers. The main aim of this paper is to use an extended Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) to analyze the acceptance of a technological platform that provides a point of contact for non-profit-making organizations and potential volunteers. The TAM is used to find the impact that this new recruitment tool for volunteers can have on an ever-evolving industry. The TAM has been extended with the *image and reputation* and *visual identity* variables in order to measure the influence of these non-profit-making organizations on the establishment and implementation of a social network recruitment platform. The data analyzed are from a sample of potential volunteers from non-profit-making organizations in Spain. A structural equation approach using partial least squares was used to evaluate the acceptance model. The results provide an important contribution to the literature about communication in digital environments by non-profit-making organizations as well as strategies to improve their digital reputation.

Keywords: non-profit-making organization, Technology Acceptance Model, volunteers, website, social network

INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade, the Internet has led to major changes in the organization of companies around the world (Lee and Kim, 2018). With the development of new technologies, corporations, institutions, and non-profit-making organizations have seen how communication strategies have changed. These changes consist of sending messages on new digital channels with which the company's aims and goals are transmitted to users, volunteers, or anybody who is interested (Lee and Kim, 2018; Tam and Kim, 2019).

Social networks play an important role when changes happen quickly in an organization (Bojar, 1998), for example, with the changes and evolution of communication and marketing strategies (Nuri et al., 2019). On these digital platforms, users can give their opinions and generate content publicly, which is known as user-generated content (UGC) (Saura and Bennett, 2019; Saura et al., 2019a). Users can also interact with

companies and organizations by writing comments, reviews, opinions, and criticisms (Abdelhamid et al., 2019).

This new two-way communication between users and organizations on the Internet (Aggelidis and Chatzoglou, 2019) has allowed non-profit-making organizations to implement and use communication strategies to convey positive feelings about their proposals and projects and to support social movements such as MeToo on the Internet (Mendes et al., 2018), World Environment Day (Reyes-Menendez et al., 2018), global warming (Jang and Hart, 2015), and others (Lau et al., 2019).

These new communication strategies using interaction with users have also led to changes in the non-profit-making organization sector as well as social institutions (Alonso-Cañadas et al., 2019). Although the non-profit-making sector has changed its medium and long-term strategies because of its social and non-economic goal, it is a sector that is increasing the use of new communication strategies with user interactions on digital channels (Iranzo and Farné, 2014). Variables such as the image, reputation, and visual identity of non-profit-making organizations using these channels allow them to be more easily identified and accepted, as well as permitting them to transmit their new ideas and social projects [(see initiatives Ecosia (Palos-Sanchez and Saura, 2018; Palos-Sanchez et al., 2018) and Lilo (Reyes-Menendez et al., 2018)] in order to increase the number of volunteers and users recruited to support their causes.

These facts have aroused the curiosity of researchers who have taken an interest in the study of the variables influencing the image of non-profit-making organizations (NGOs). These studies, as pointed out by Hasmath et al. (2019), analyze digital channels, such as social media profiles or web pages, in order to find the best way to define recruitment strategies. Non-profit-making organizations are now using digital channels to recruit new volunteers to support their projects and help the organizations achieve their goals (Aggelidis and Chatzoglou, 2019).

In this way, there have been changes in this sector, with different platforms that aim to attract volunteers who can support social projects, where volunteers can take part in one or more organizations using a single platform that promotes projects with similar goals (Guiang, 2017). It is important to note that this research focuses on the study of NGOs, non-governmental organizations that are independent of any government and usually are non-profit, and not on non-profit organizations (NPOs), which are businesses that have been granted tax-exempt status (Lloyd, 2005).

The main objective of this research paper is to analyze the technological acceptance of a social network that supports volunteer projects and that facilitates the contact between potential volunteers and non-profit-making organizations. To do this, the extended Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) was used with extended variables for the image, identity, and reputation of the organizations.

This research is original because of the importance given to the image, reputation, and visual identity variables of the organizations with an extended TAM to study the importance of variables that are influential for non-profit-making organizations in a digital ecosystem.

To this end, in this research, the results of a survey conducted with potential volunteers of non-profit organizations in Spain were studied, in order to understand how well the digital platform with which NGOs can recruit volunteer candidates is accepted. The study uses a structural equation approach with partial least squares (PLS) to evaluate the proposed acceptance model.

The research is organized in the following way. Firstly, the *Introduction* explains the paper. Then there is a *Literature Review*, which discusses relevant research in this area. Thirdly, the methodology and justification of the hypotheses are presented. The results are then analyzed. In the *Conclusions* section, discussions and conclusions are made in which the theoretical and practical implications of the research are given.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Variables that affect users' decisions to use a web platform have been studied on different occasions (Liu and Lee, 2010). For example, Kwon and Wen (2010) carried out an empirical study to observe user acceptance of social media and digital platforms in order to see if they offer services for promoting human relationships or simply to motivate users to use them with strategies to improve brand image or to maintain the brand reputation.

Using the evidence from previous research which showed the important influence of social networks on the reputation of NGOs, Gálvez-Rodríguez et al. (2016) analyzed the factors which influence the use of Twitter by NGOs in order to understand how information and news are communicated (Reyes-Menendez et al., 2019). They discovered that there is still room for improvement in these types of social ecosystem strategies in which an NGO's goals and social actions form the volunteers' image of them.

In order to investigate strategies for NGOs in continuously changing ecosystems, Iranzo and Farné (2014) studied NGOs' behavior in environments driven by social movements using social networks such as Facebook or Twitter. The study showed the need for an improvement in the understanding of what drives NGO volunteers to express themselves on digital channels and how an NGO's image influences volunteers who follow their actions on social media.

To understand NGOs as social causes that motivate volunteers who decide to support them, Lau et al. (2019) analyzed the motivating effect of people volunteering to support a social project and their ability to solve social problems. They concluded that volunteers should feel the need to express the purposes of NGOs with "likes" to show that they are proud of their actions, as well as to promote the image of the NGOs in terms of social, humanitarian, or environmental support. These results show the importance of volunteers having the feeling that they belong to an NGO so that that they share the same values.

In this changing ecosystem, in which the social identity of the users and their actions are shared on the Internet, investigating the reasons that drive NGOs to choose digital communication

channels for their communication strategies are becoming increasingly important. For example, Hasmath et al. (2019) identified the behavior of NGOs in terms of the management decision-making for activities and social actions. They found that the new means of communication and transmission of information to volunteers needed to be studied so that messages were accepted and understood in a clear way, as at times, the noise generated by social activists who are against the initiatives of some NGOs can influence their reputation and therefore also the number of interested volunteers.

Although the term *volunteer* for an NGO does not usually lead to confusion, authors such as Gonzales et al. (2019) decided to extend the terms *volunteer* and *volunteer projects*. They center their attention on projects for voluntary purposes by providing data and scientific evidence to demonstrate the interest aroused in impulse users who want to become volunteers both in digital ecosystems and in traditional offline media. Their results coincided with the work by Vissers and Stolle (2014) about the new online and offline models of management in NGOs and political parties.

In similar studies, Gonzales et al. (2019) and Dickinger and Stangl (2013) showed interest in studying NGOs and their communication plans to convince volunteers to support their projects. In this way, Cheng (2020) analyzed the communication process between Internet users in the decision-making moment, such as making a purchase or joining an online community, so that messages are correctly transmitted and the objectives of the organization are achieved. The communication process pays special attention to the image of the organization, its visual identity, and its reputation (Dickinger and Stangl, 2013). Following Cheng's results, Alonso-Cañadas et al. (2019) analyzed the organization, resource allocation, and policies of NGOs when managing social projects, by demonstrating the importance of image and reputation in order for messages to be understood correctly, thus raising the interest of potential volunteers.

Huang et al. (2016) also carried out a content analysis to examine behavior and strategies taken for channels such as Facebook by NGOs fighting diseases such as HIV/AIDS. In this way, NGOs perceive how their volunteers see them in terms of reputation, image, and recruitment. It was found that the reputation and image of NGOs in social networks that support social projects is positively identified by volunteers and members of non-profit organizations and institutions on digital channels such as Facebook.

Facebook, along with other social networks and digital platforms, led authors such as Liu and Lee (2010) to research how user information is used on social networks and web platforms by NGOs. The aim was to promote and improve collaboration between volunteers to achieve greater safety and acceptance of the proposed projects, concluding that the veracity of the information and the periodicity of publication of the contents was a key point in the development of NGO strategies. Guiang (2017) also investigated how followers' participation on a digital platform can be increased, paying special attention to photo posts and content to improve the organization's image so that the strongest impact can be made on users who follow these projects.

Therefore, there is no doubt about the interest of researchers in understanding how NGOs should communicate in digital environments and how to transmit messages effectively to volunteers to convey credibility and useful information. It has also been seen that the image, reputation, and visual identity variables of NGOs play a crucial role in the success of Internet communication and serve as motivation to users to support and become part of social projects.

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

It must be emphasized that trust in NGOs has been studied by Fast et al. (2013) and Demba et al. (2019). Their conclusions showed the importance of studying the confidence volunteers have in NGOs before becoming part of them and also when deciding to support their solidarity initiatives. Gefen et al. (2003) proposed the study of user behavior with NGO social proposals and investigated the perceived ease of use of websites and social networks on which NGOs promote their projects. It was suggested that these should be studied from the different perspectives of use and acceptance. Under this premise, we propose the following research hypothesis:

> H1. *Trust in NGOs which use a web platform that promotes volunteering influences the perceived ease of use (PEOU) of the platform.*

Trust plays a crucial role in social sectors (Guiang, 2017). The organization of projects supported by different support organizations can increase the awareness of these initiatives and boost their image and reputation. Consequently, well-organized social NGO-type projects can improve the perceived usefulness of these projects, whether digital or offline, and considerably increase the number of interested volunteers (Dickinger and Stangl (2013). With these considerations in mind, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> H2. *Trust in NGOs which use a web platform that promotes volunteering influences the perceived usefulness (PU) of that platform.*

The visual identity of NGOs is directly linked to the trust of the volunteers who support the social initiatives of such NGOs (Delone and McLean, 2003; Aladwani, 2006). If NGOs correctly manage their reputation and image strategies by improving their visual identity, the visual elements used should increase the trust that volunteers place in the social projects they choose to support (Aladwani, 2006; Demba et al., 2019). Using these ideas, we propose the following hypothesis:

> H3. *The visual identity (IV) of NGOs which use a web platform that promotes volunteering influences the trust of platform users.*

Aladwani (2006); Delone and McLean (2003), and Dickinger and Stangl (2013) showed that the strategic image of organizations and the visual and multimedia elements the brand uses can define the characteristics and values of an organization. The TAM was extended to incorporate these ideas and measure

the acceptance of a website based not only on its multimedia characteristics but also on those qualities that make up and define the visual identity of the company or organization. The IV construct measures the relationship between this variable and the perception of usefulness of a platform that NGOs use when in search of potential volunteers. The following hypothesis was therefore proposed:

H4. *The IV of NGOs influences the PU of a web platform that promotes volunteering.*

The visual identity of NGOs and the channels they use to promote their purposes has previously been studied. Likewise, the factors that make up the visual identity of the organizations link their image and reputation with the use of their websites (Aladwani, 2006). Studying the visual identity of NGOs can show if there is a significant link between the digital reputation of a web platform to support volunteering and the volunteers recruited. Using these ideas, hypothesis 5 was proposed:

H5. *The IV of NGOs influences the online image and reputation (IM) of a web platform that promotes volunteering.*

The set of sub-dimensions presented by Aladwani (2006) shows that the acceptance of online platforms needs to be studied because of the issues relating to the image and identity of organizations. The image and reputation of companies may also be one of the reasons for how users perceive the usefulness of social network technologies (Thongpapanl and Ashraf, 2011). Therefore, measuring the image and reputation of NGOs and how this may affect the acceptance of a technology from its perceived usefulness is an interesting area of research (Estriegana et al., 2019). Thus, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H6. *The IM of NGOs influences the PU of a social network that promotes volunteering.*

Aladwani (2006) explained the need to study the image and reputation of organizations from their website contributions, extending the TAM to measure the acceptance of a website (Revythi and Tselios, 2019). The study provided different variables that allowed users to identify the organizations that represent them due to the image and reputation shown, such as the type of content, messages, and information provided. The study looked at comprising features, transparency, and clarity. The model proposed by Aladwani (2006) and Dickinger and Stangl (2013) was used to define the construct that measures the acceptance of a platform that NGOs use from the image and reputation projected. How potential volunteers perceive the usefulness of this platform was also studied. Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H7. *The IM of NGOs influences the PEOU of a social network that promotes volunteering.*

The perceived ease of use of web platforms can make users decide to use them, as shown from the results presented by Toufaily et al. (2013). The perceived value of a technological product is also a key factor in the users' decision to use it (Choi,

2019). Therefore, the importance of the ease of use of web pages and new online platforms must influence both user experience improvement and utility strategies. This will lead to users wanting to use the web platforms and spend more time connected to them (Demba et al., 2019). Hypothesis 7 was formulated after considering these points:

H8. *PEOU of a web platform that promotes volunteering influences PU.*

Zaitul et al. (2018) demonstrated the influence of perceived ease of use of web pages and discovered that the preconceived idea of users using a website is directly linked to their attitude about using it. Hart and Sutcliffe (2019) also linked the attitude about a website's use to the influence of the medium or channel used to share information, such as social networks, websites, or applications. From these considerations, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H9. *PEOU of a web platform that promotes volunteering influences attitude toward using it.*

non-profit-making organizations explain their projects and promote social actions on different channels. One of these channels is the Internet, where web pages are a source of data that give credibility to initiatives (Kingston and Stam, 2013). The credibility of the information given may help users to positively perceive the proposed action (Stuart et al., 2014). Therefore, the quality and veracity of the information can influence users' attitudes toward the use of digital platforms on which NGOs provide information about their projects (Fast et al., 2013). The following hypothesis was therefore proposed:

H10. *PU of a web platform that promotes volunteering influences attitude toward using it.*

It must also be understood that attitude toward the use of web platforms and how they are perceived by users influences the intention to use these digital platforms (Dickinger and Stangl, 2013). The attitude toward the use of a new website must be motivated with a positive intention to use it, which is gained from the perceived value of using it (Guriting and Oly Ndubisi, 2006). The attitude toward using a web platform that promotes volunteering should therefore also be studied taking into account that users should find the NGO's projects interesting for them, and therefore, this interest is extended to the intention to use the technology itself (Scherer et al., 2019). Therefore, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H11. *Attitude toward using a web platform that promotes volunteering for NGO projects influences intention to use the platform.*

The perception of information as useful is important for it to be considered interesting on digital platforms (Saura et al., 2019b). This is especially true for the information given by NGOs about their projects in order to attract potential volunteers and share their achievements and new initiatives (Parsons and Woods-Ballard, 2003). Acceptance of web platforms that promote NGO projects is shown by the intention to use them by volunteers, who

want to obtain quality information and decide whether or not to support such projects (Aladwani, 2006). The perceived usefulness and intention to use these platforms should therefore be analyzed. The following hypothesis was therefore proposed:

H12. *PU of a web platform that promotes volunteering influences intention to use it.*

The intention to use any piece of digital technology determines the actions that users take on social networks, web pages, or any other type of digital format in which there is an interaction between companies or organizations and users (Gefen et al., 2003; Aggelidis and Chatzoglou, 2019). Volunteers' use of a social platform can increase intention to use it and vice versa (Revythi and Tselios, 2019). These actions can be measured to identify the influence and importance that intention to use has on the users' actions (Aladwani and Palvia, 2002). The following hypothesis was therefore proposed:

H13. *The intention to use a web platform that promotes volunteering influences the use that volunteers make of this platform.*

METHODOLOGY

Measures

Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989) has been one of the most widely used technology acceptance models in research to measure user behavior and acceptance of new technologies. The TAM consists of the relationships between different variables. For example, two primary variables that influence the intention of individuals to use technology are analyzed. One of them is perceived ease of use (PEOU, which measures an individual's belief that using one particular technology is effort-free (Davis et al., 1989). TAM also contains a variable for perceived usefulness (PU), which is a user's belief that using a particular piece of technology will improve the user's performance (Koufaris, 2002). In addition, the attitude toward using (ATU) variable measures the positive or negative feelings a user may have for the use of any given technology.

In addition, TAM has the intention to use (UI) variable, which measures the user's intentions to use the proposed technology. In this research, we increase the number of variables used in the TAM with variables for the image and reputation (IM) and visual identity (IV) of the NGO (Moon and Kim, 2001) following the findings of Gefen et al. (2003) in their study, which showed that the original TAM does not capture all the factors that affect website acceptance. In this study, IM refers to the public image and reputation of NGOs that may influence the acceptance of platforms or projects that are part of it. IV measures users' perceived belief in the values that NGOs convey with their visual identity policies.

The trust (T) construct has also been added, which is a commonly used variable when extending the TAM (Gefen et al., 2003; Fast et al., 2013; Demba et al., 2019) and in this study represents the trust that volunteers have in the use and acceptance of a platform. The use online volunteer platform (UOVP) variable

was also added, which measures volunteers' use of an online volunteer platform following the research by Gefen et al. (2003); Huang et al. (2016), and Cheng (2020), which measures user behavior with NGOs digital platforms.

The proposed hypotheses are all based on the information from different authors found in the literature review. They are all used in the extended TAM theoretical framework (Davis, 1989; Davis et al., 1992). The items contained within the discontinuous line in **Figure 1** show the constructs: PU (2), PEOU (4), ATU (3), and UI (3). The constructs added to the model were as follows: IV (3) measured aspects such as the visual identity (logo, colors, typography) as a guiding factor for the quality of service of a non-profit-making organization and the ability to recruit volunteers using this visual identity. One of the items omitted in the statistical validation stage was the ability to opt out of collaborating on a website because its design does not please the user. The other construct was trust (2). The items used were the increase of trust in the non-profit-making organization and the feeling of greater safety on websites whose design seems appropriate. Another construct used was IM (4), which gave a measure of how the services of an organization were rated from its brand image, the reliability of the image of the organization, how easy it was to remember the organization from its logo and color, and finally, the importance of the website design. Finally, the use of the platform is measured with the capacity of the promoting platform to put volunteers and non-profit-making organizations in contact and increasing the number of volunteers. This second item was finally omitted following the results presented by Carmines and Zeller (1979), $\lambda \geq 0.707$. They indicated that the commonality of an indicator (λ^2) represents how much of the variation of an item is explained by the construct.

Likewise, the questionnaire items were measured with a Likert scale with values from 5, total agreement, to 1, total disagreement. **Table 1** shows the questionnaire questions. Of these, for reasons of significance and statistical validity, eight were omitted, which are indicated without path coefficients.

The rest of the questionnaire questions were sociodemographic (gender, age, education level, and job). A question about the number of inhabitants in the city where the respondent lives and two questions about the subject studied at university were also included. These were: degree and form of collaboration with the non-profit-making organization and the name of the non-profit-making organization being collaborated with. These two points helped us to understand the characteristics of the sample being studied (see **Table 2**).

The questionnaire was formatted electronically with Google Forms and distributed on social networks, email, and the university's own online content platform.

Data Collection and Sample

The sample size was $n = 254$ respondents. The sample was obtained with the collaboration of students taking the Business Administration degree course at Rey Juan Carlos University in Madrid and the Marketing degree at the University of Seville.

The distribution of the questionnaire took place between April and July 2019. The type of sampling was non-random
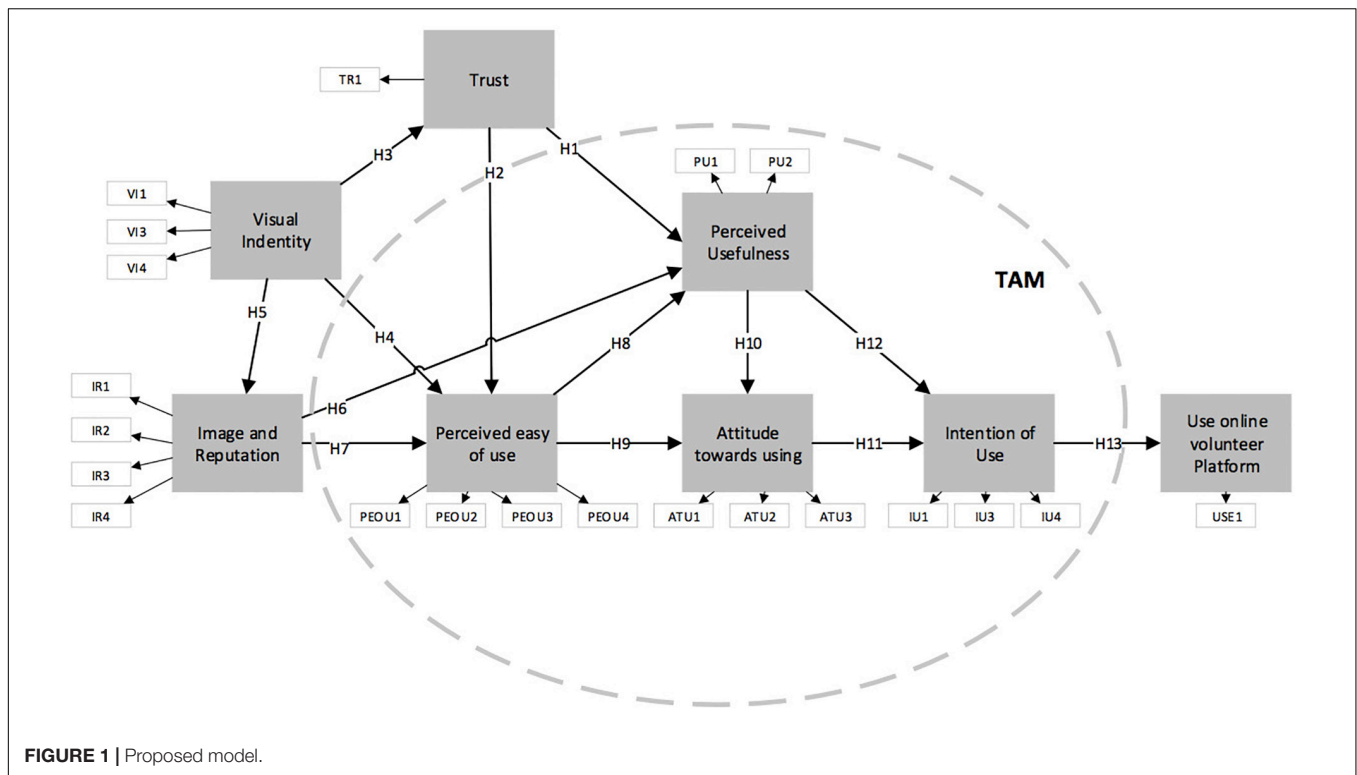
FIGURE 1 | Proposed model.

and convenient, as the students themselves distributed it to acquaintances, friends, and family. The statistical distribution of the sample and its characteristics are detailed in **Table 2**.

Table 3 presents the associations and non-profit organizations with which the participants of this exploratory study collaborated.

To determine the minimum sample size for PLS modeling, Hair et al. (2014) recommend using the Cohen table. The G*Power software (Faul et al., 2009) was used to make this calculation. Firstly, the count test of the dependent construct or the one with the highest number of predictors was carried out. In this study, these were PU and PEOU, which both had a score of 3. The following parameters were used for the calculation: the power of the test (power s 1 – error prob. II) and the effect size (f^2). Cohen (1988) and Hair et al. (2014) recommend a power of 0.80 and average effect size f^2 of 0.15. The number of predictors was 3, i.e., the constructs that establish causal relationships with either of the two constructs: PU and PEOU (see **Figure 1**). Using PLS with these constructs the minimum sample size to be used was 251. **Figure 2** demonstrates the test result using the software.

Therefore, the minimum sample calculated for the example must be 251 cases. The data obtained gives a power of 99.98%, as shown in **Figure 2**. Following the research by MacKenzie et al. (2005), a model of reflective constructs was proposed, as shown in **Figure 1**.

DATA ANALYSIS

First, an individual reliability analysis of the items was performed using the values for the loads. According to Carmines and Zeller

(1979), the minimum level for acceptance as part of the construct was set at $\lambda \geq 0.707$. The communality of a variable (λ^2) shows the part of the variance that is explained by the factor or construct (Bollen, 1989). Therefore, a value of $\lambda > 0.707$ indicates that each measure represents at least 50% ($0.707 \geq 0.5$) of the variance of the underlying construct (Henseler et al., 2009). Those indicators that did not reach that minimum were removed (Barclay et al., 1995). The results of the measurement model are shown in **Table 1**.

Subsequently, an analysis of the internal consistency was carried out. Traditionally, Cronbach's alpha is analyzed to test the consistency of a construct, assuming that all indicators are equally reliable, meaning that they all have the same loads in the construct (Hair et al., 2014) and present values between 0 and 1. The lower limit for accepting construct reliability is usually set to between 0.6 and 0.7 (Hair et al., 2005).

The greatest validity will be with values close to 1. However, composite reliability (CR) measures the consistency of a construct based on its indicators (Götz et al., 2010), i.e., the rigor with which these items are measuring the same latent variable, assuming that CR > 0.7 (exploratory study), CR > 0.8 (advanced research), and CR < 0.6 (lack reliability). In our case, CR > 0.8, so we are can consider this an advanced research study (Henseler et al., 2009; MacKenzie et al., 2011).

The most common measure for assessing convergent validity in PLS-SEM is average variance extracted (AVE). Using the same basis as that used with individual indicators, an AVE value of 50% or higher means that, on average, the construct explains more than half of the variance of its own indicators (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2014). As seen in **Table 4**, all indicators

TABLE 1 | Measurement items.

Constructs	Items	Path coefficients (β)
Use online volunteer platforms Gefen et al. (2003) Huang et al. (2016); Cheng (2020)	USE1 [Using a social media platform that helps connect volunteers and non-profit associations would increase my desire to participate in such partnerships.]	1.000
	USE2 [The existence of this platform would increase the number of volunteers.]	Omitted
Attitude toward using Hart and Sutcliffe (2019)	AU1 [Its use would be positive for my life.]	0.927
	AU2 [Its use would be beneficial to my family and circle of friends.]	0.915
	AU3 [Its use would be beneficial to society.]	Omitted
Image and reputation online Aladwani (2006); Thongpapanl and Ashraf (2011)	IM1 [I value the service of an association based on its brand image.]	0.825
	IM2 [I consider that an organization with a proper brand image is more reliable.]	0.869
	IM3 [I remember an association more easily if I associate it with a logo and/or color.]	0.701
	IM4 [The design of an organizations website is of great importance to me.]	0.788
	IM5 [I would like brands to support the use of this platform.]	Omitted
Intention to use Aggelidis and Chatzoglou (2019) Revythi and Tselios (2019) Aladwani and Palvia (2002)	IU1 [I would be willing to search for and/or write volunteer offers on this platform.]	0.813
	IU2 [I would recommend using it to my family and friends.]	0. 860
	IU3 [I hope to use this platform to easily volunteer in the coming months.]	0.854
	IU4 [I would accept advertising advice from this platform.]	Omitted
Visual identity Aladwani (2006); Delone and McLean (2003) Dickinger and Stangl (2013)	IV1 [Visual identity (logo, colors, typography.) gives me clues about the quality of an organization's services.]	0.841
	IV2 [I consider more collaborating with a non-profit association when I like its visual identity.]	0.838
	IV3 [I consider more collaborating with a non-profit association when their visual identity is familiar to me.]	0.821
	IV4 [I gave up buying/collaborating on a website because I didn't like its design.]	Omitted
Perceived ease of use Koufaris (2002) Fast et al. (2013)	PEOU1 [Its purpose is clear and understandable.]	0. 744
	PEOU2 [I find it easy to access volunteer offers easily.]	0. 821
	PEOU3 [The existence of such a platform would make it easier for me to be more concerned about social and/or environmental problems.]	0.723
	PEOU4 [I would find useful a platform where I could easily find how to help in those matters that really concern me.]	0.775
	PEOU5 [Learning how to use this website would be easy for me.]	Omitted
Perceived usefulness (PU) Gefen et al. (2003)	PU1 [Using this platform would make me feel better about myself.]	0. 899
	PU2 [When using it, I expect to be helping society.]	0.908
	PU3 [The creation of such a platform would help the performance of non-profit associations participating on it.]	Omitted
Trust Gefen et al. (2003); Fast et al. (2013) Demba et al. (2019)	T1 [Contacting a non-profit association with this platform would make me more confident in that partnership.]	1.000
	T2 [I feel safer on websites whose design I think is appropriate.]	Omitted

reached this lower limit. Finally, another indicator, known as rho_A, has also been included in **Table 4** (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015a,b), and all the constructs exceed the value 0.7.

Table 5 shows the correlations between the constructs. A construct should share more variance with its measurements or indicators than with other constructs in a given model (Henseler et al., 2009). To check this, we need to see if the square root of the AVE (in bold in **Table 5**) is greater than the correlation between the construct and the other constructs in the model. The square roots of the AVE can be found on the diagonal of **Table 5**. In our study, this condition is met by all latent variables.

It can therefore be said that constructs share more variance with their indicators than with other constructs of the investigated model (Henseler et al., 2009) and are valid on the basis of this first analysis. Nonetheless, Henseler et al. (2015) worked on simulation studies that showed that the lack of

discriminatory validity is best detected by another technique, which is the heterotrait–monotrait ratio (HTMT). **Table 6** shows the results obtained. All the HTMT ratios for each pair of factors is <0.90 (Gold et al., 2001).

Table 7 and **Figure 3** show the findings for the formulated hypotheses. The tests carried out reveal that $R^2 = 9.8\%$ of the variance in T is explained by the IV construct. IV also explains the variance of the IM construct ($R^2 = 50.2\%$). The explanatory capacity of this construct is almost the highest of the model and is only surpassed by tenths by PU ($R^2 = 50.8\%$ of the variance). It is also worth noting that $R^2 = 65.4\%$ for the variance of the UI. This corroborates the use of the theoretical TAM framework for the study.

The explanatory capacity of the model as a whole can be measured by studying the R^2 value of the dependent variable UOVP. This had a total variance of $R^2 = 36.6\%$. **Figure 3** shows the explanatory capabilities of the other constructs. In their

research, Hair et al. (2014) set the cut-off points for the relevant, moderate, and weak levels at R^2 = 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25. It can therefore be seen that this model has an explanatory capacity between moderate and weak for online volunteering platforms with non-profit associations.

On the other hand, comparing the hypotheses shows that 11 hypotheses are supported and 2 are not. **Table 7** shows the different *p*-values of each. It can be seen that the relationships with the highest path coefficient are H5, IV with online IM, which is significant (β = 0.709, *p*-value = 0.000); H13, UI with UOVP (β = 0.605, *p*-value = 0.000); H12, UI with UOVP

(β = 0.605, *p*-value = 0.000); and H1, T with PEOU (β = 0.601, *p*-value = 0.000). All these hypotheses, along with H3, H5, H8, H9, H10, H11, and H12, were supported with a 99.9% confidence level.

The ratios with the lowest path coefficient turned out to be H7, online IM with PEOU (β = 0.187, *p*-value = 0.001), with a 99% confidence level, and H2, T with PU (β = 0.172, *p*-value = 0.021), with a 95% confidence level. The unsupported hypotheses were H4, IV with PU (β = 0.042, *p*-value = 0.520), and H6, online IM with PU (β = 0.041, *p*-value = 0.535). This means that the PU is not affected by the IV and the online IM, with a 95% confidence.

A blindfolding procedure was then used to omit part of the data of a construct during parameter estimation, and then, the estimated parameters were used to estimate the originally omitted data (Chin, 1998). In this way, it was possible to study the predictive level of the model by using the Stone–Geisser (Q^2) test (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). The model was found to be predictive (Q^2 = 0.352), as Q^2 > 0.

The measurement of the approximate adjustment of the model (Henseler et al., 2016; Henseler, 2017) is found from the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (Hu and Bentler, 1998, 1999), which measures the difference between the observed correlation matrix and the correlation matrix implied by the model. The SRMR therefore shows the average magnitude of the differences. This means that a lower SRMR shows a better fit. In our case, SRMR = 0.071, which follows the recommendation that states that a model has a good fit when SRMR < 0.08 (Hu and Bentler, 1998).

DISCUSSION

The results of this study indicate that extended TAM is an appropriate model for the analysis of technological acceptance of social platforms that allow volunteers or other professionals to be recruited. As indicated before, TAM was extended with IM,

TABLE 2 | Distribution of the sample, *n* = 254.

Items	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	101	39.60
Female	153	60.00
Others	1	0.4
Age		
18–30 years old	155	60.8
31–45 years old	25	9.8
46–55 years old	45	17.6
56–65 years old	28	11.0
>65 years old	2	0.8
Education level	6.1.1	6.1.2
No studies	6	2.4
Diploma/advanced diploma	23	9.0
Bachelor's degree	11	4.3
Professional qualification	24	9.4
Graduate university	191	74.9
Job		
Employed	1	0.4
Self-employed	10	9.1
Student	118	46.3
House work	9	3.5
Does not work (unemployed)	11	4.3
Does not work (other situations: retired)	14	5.5
Degree and form of collaboration		
Never	71	27.8
Yes, voluntarily	70	27.5
Yes, economically	67	26.3
Yes, financially and voluntary	47	18.4

FIGURE 2 | Central and non-central distributions. Calculation of the power. Source: G*Power (Faul et al., 2009).
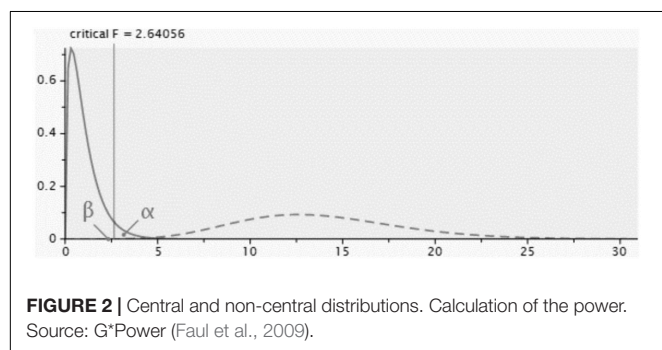
TABLE 3 | Organizations in which the sample participates.

Organization	Frequency	Number of participants
Unicef	38.8%	99
Cruz Roja	33.3%	85
Médicos sin Fronteras	22.4%	57
Manos Unidas	20.4%	52
Greenpeace	10.6%	27
Caritas	10.2%	26
Save the Children	9.4%	24
Unhcr	8.6%	22
Oxfam Intermon	5.1%	13
Aldeas Infantiles	3.9%	10
World Wide Fund for Nature	3.9%	10
Amnesty International	2.4%	6
Help in Action	2.0%	5
Asociación Española Contra El Cáncer	1.6%	4
Banco de Alimentos	1.6%	4
Ayuda Humanitarian	0.4%	1

TABLE 4 | Constructs and their measurement items.

	Cronbach's alpha	rho_A	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
Attitude toward using	0.822	0.825	0.918	0.849
Image and reputation online	0.807	0.814	0.875	0.637
Intention of use	0.88	0.883	0.917	0.735
Visual identity	0.786	0.813	0.872	0.694
Perceived ease of use	0.776	0.775	0.856	0.598
Perceived usefulness	0.775	0.776	0.899	0.816
Trust	1	1	1	1
Use online volunteer platforms	1	1	1	1

TABLE 5 | Correlations between constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

	ATU	IR	IU	VI	PEOU	PU	T	USE
Attitude toward using (ATU)	0.921	11.1	11.2	11.3	11.4	11.5	11.6	11.7
Image and reputation online (IR)	0.294	0.798	11.8	11.9	11.10	11.11	11.12	11.13
Intention of use (IU)	0.763	0.331	0.857	11.14	11.15	11.16	11.17	11.18
Visual identity (VI)	0.317	0.709	0.314	0.833	11.19	11.20	11.21	11.22
Perceived ease of use (PEOU)	0.617	0.395	0.746	0.308	0.774	11.23	11.24	11.25
Perceived usefulness (PU)	0.643	0.348	0.696	0.295	0.695	0.904	11.26	11.27
Trust (T)	0.461	0.346	0.543	0.313	0.666	0.567	1	11.28
Use online volunteer platform (USE)	0.534	0.236	0.605	●	●	●	●	●

TABLE 6 | Heterotrait–monotrait (HTMT) ratio.

	ATU	IR	IU	VI	PEOU	PU	T	USE
Attitude toward using	11.28.1	11.28.2	11.28.3	11.28.4	11.28.5	11.28.6	11.28.7	11.28.8
Image and reputation online	0. 358	11.29	11.30	11.31	11.32	11.33	11.34	11.35
Intention of use	0. 897	0. 391	11.36	11.37	11.38	11.39	11.40	11.41
Visual identity	0. 383	0. 857	0. 364	11.42	11.43	11.44	11.45	11.46
Perceived ease of use	0. 768	0. 495	0. 896	0. 373	11.47	11.48	11.49	11.50
Perceived usefulness	0. 804	0. 438	0. 838	0. 366	0. 891	11.51	11.52	11.53
Trust	0. 51	0. 385	0. 577	0. 339	0. 748	0. 644	11.54	11.55
Use online volunteer platforms	0. 587	0. 26	0. 643	0. 226	0. 764	0. 599	0. 418	11.56

TABLE 7 | Comparison of the hypotheses.

Number	Hypothesis	Path coef.(β)	t-Statistic (β/STDEV)	P-value	Supported
H1	Trust → perceived ease of use	0.601	12.053	0	Yes
H2	Trust → perceived usefulness	0.172	2.306	0.021	Yes
H3	Visual identity → trust	0.313	4.911	0	Yes
H4	Visual identity → perceived usefulness	0.042	0.643	0.520	No
H5	Visual identity → image and reputation online	0.709	22.031	0	Yes
H6	Image and reputation online → perceived usefulness	0.041	0.621	0.535	No
H7	Image and reputation online → perceived ease of use	0.187	3.357	0.001	Yes
H8	Perceived ease of use → perceived usefulness	0.552	8.132	0	Yes
H9	Perceived ease of use → attitude toward using	0.328	4.78	0	Yes
H10	Perceived usefulness → attitude toward using	0.415	6.034	0	Yes
H11	Attitude toward using → intention to use	0.537	8.716	0	Yes
H12	Perceived usefulness → intention of use	0.351	5.194	0	Yes
H13	Intention to use → use online volunteer platforms	0.605	12.742	0	Yes

IV, and T variables in this study. The model used in the research presents a good R^2 value for both the intention of use of the platform, which explains 65.4% of the variance, and the use of the platform, which explains 36.6% of the variance.

An NGO's online IM and IV constructs were found to have no direct effect on PU. In the literature, it is usually found that the appearance of organizations—iconic visual elements such as logos, colors, typography, and multimedia linked to

FIGURE 3 | Quality of the measurement model and the structural model.
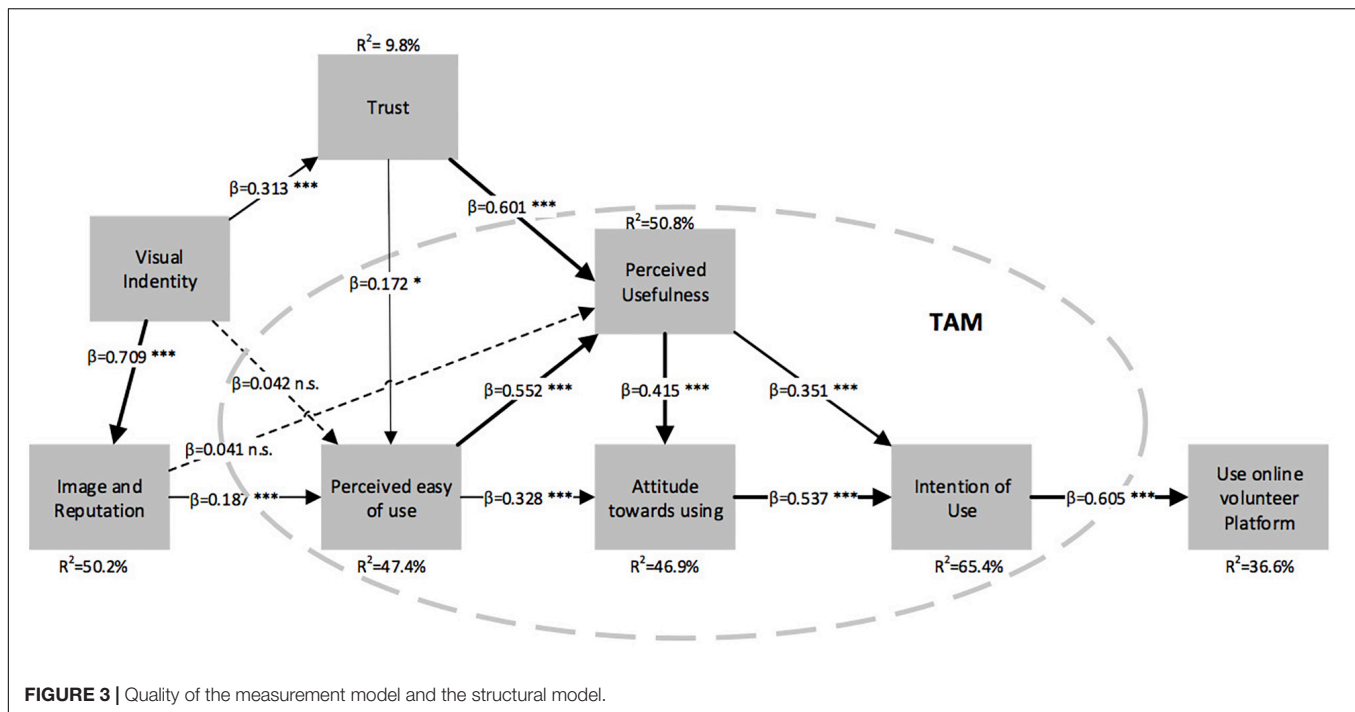
the brand—helps define their characteristics and values, at least for commercial companies (Delone and McLean, 2003; Dickinger and Stangl, 2013). However, this study has shown that the online identity and reputation of NGOs as well as the visual identity elements (such as images or logos) do not have a direct effect on how users and volunteers support these platforms, thus obtaining results different from those found by Aladwani (2006) in the professional as opposed to the social industry. This finding is an important contribution to literature, as NGOs should focus on the message and the contents that accompany their initiatives, instead of focusing on the iconographic design and identity of their web pages or visual contents that are included in the messages they share on Internet (Maloney and Rosenthal, 2017).

However, IV is also usually related to the PU (Aladwani, 2006). The unusual results of this study may be due to the nature of the organizations that were analyzed. NGO volunteers are more interested in the values of the organization itself and the social causes that it defends, rather than on the visual image or the brand name. However, in a changing ecosystem in which new technologies and multimedia channels are constantly appearing, authors such as Cheng (2020) showed the importance of keeping users or volunteers motivated with projects that are seen as useful and that can create loyalty with long-term volunteers. It was also found that the quality of the message shared by NGOs, the values that make up these organizations (the causes that are supported, such as social, human, cultural, etc.) and the channel on which they are shared are the most important points for an NGO's success in attracting volunteers who support their projects. These findings are in agreement with the results presented by Silva et al. (2018).

Therefore, coinciding with the results of Waters (2007), NGOs should pay special attention to the content and words that form the messages they share on digital platforms or social networks with users and volunteers. As concluded by Saura et al. (2019a), these messages can influence users in different ways about their intention of use and behavior when they interact with the content on digital ecosystems. Likewise, as shown in the results, the visual identity of the platforms that support social projects and seek volunteers positively affects the confidence that volunteers have in the use of such digital environments. This was also observed by Amichai-Hamburger et al. (2008). Moreover, the visual identity of the platform, although it does not influence the perceived utility by the volunteers, does affect the online image and reputation of the NGOs themselves. In other words, the positive reputation of a platform can influence the reputation of NGOs that agree to promote their social projects on it.

This fact is a contribution to the literature that coincides with the conclusions of authors such as Van Huijstee and Glasbergen (2010) and Boddewyn and Doh (2011), in which they profess that the combination of elements and business synergies can improve the online reputation of companies and organizations. It is important to consider the evidence and point out the positive relationship found between the UI and UOVP, which justifies using the type of platform that promotes NGO projects and raises interest in them. Once volunteers know the services that a platform offers and intend to continue using it, they usually register their user profiles, as it is considered a useful and effective way to continue helping NGOs and their projects (Emrich et al., 2014).

Finally, UI has a positive and direct relationship with the UOVP construct. This is a classic relationship in the literature about the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1980),

the technology acceptance model TAM (Davis, 1989), and Unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) (Venkatesh et al., 2003). This study confirms this direct and positive relationship. The greater intention of volunteers to seek volunteer offers and recommend the platform to their friends and acquaintances is the interpretation of the use of the platform.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this work was to analyze the acceptance of a platform that allows NGOs to attract well-prepared and motivated potential young volunteers. Using the TAM, proposed by Davis (1989), a TAM was proposed that was extended and adapted for the recruitment of volunteers by the organizations. Examining the different elements that affect the adoption of potential volunteers with technology is extremely important for NGO managers. The recruitment of well-prepared and motivated young volunteers will have a greater likelihood of success with the modernization of the recruitment methods that are used (Saura et al., 2019c).

In this study, 11 of the proposed hypotheses were accepted, and 2 were rejected, as explained above. The relationship that explains H1 shows that trust in the NGO platform influences PEOU, which in turn shows that the strategy used to recruit volunteers should be based on ease of use with messages that transmit trust and faithfully exhibit the work of the NGO. Similarly, H2, which investigates the relationship of T and PU, has a positive result, which shows that trusting the NGO platform influences volunteers to register their online profile on the platform.

As stated above in the *Discussion* section, the IV construct influences the trust users have in a platform (H3). This shows the importance of the visual identity and the elements that make up the NGO platform in positively influencing volunteers' trust in the platform and transmitting this trust to the visitors of the platform. The results for H4, however, did not show a strong relationship of IV with PU, which means that the NGOs and the platforms they use should communicate their values in their messages and communication strategies, instead of relying on elements such as logos and specially created images.

H5 investigated the relationship of IV with online IM and showed that an NGO that uses an Internet platform with good visual identity can improve the image and reputation it has with online users. H6, however, was shown to have a negative result, which means that the online IM does not influence PU. This result has been commented on above, and it was concluded that the image and reputation of an NGO's platform does not affect its perceived usefulness, as the volunteers support the NGO and its projects. These projects are the elements that influence the volunteers to use the services supplied by a platform and not the platform itself (Saxton et al., 2014). H7 showed that there exists a positive relationship between online IM and PEOU. This means that the image and reputation of the platform can affect how easy volunteers who support an NGO and its projects feel it is to use the platform.

The relationship between PEOU and PU (H8) was shown to have a positive result, which confirms the influence of how

easy to use a platform used by an NGO is believed to be when starting and promoting new projects on how useful these projects are believed to be. The relationships in H9, which studied the influence of PEOU and ATU, and H10, which investigated the influence of PU and ATU, were also confirmed. This showed how the perceived ease of use and usefulness of an NGO's platform influenced the attitude of volunteers toward using a platform of this type. The positive relationships in H11 and H12 were verified and showed that ATU and PU both positively influenced UI. H13, as has been discussed above, shows how the intention to use a platform positively influences the use of the platform by volunteers who support the NGO. This shows that this type of platform must be used to encourage the interest of volunteers.

Theoretical Implications

The theoretical implications of the research show that the proposed relationships were used to analyze the acceptance of platforms that promote NGO projects and their search for volunteers with constructs such as image and online reputation, visual identity, and online use of a volunteer platform. The results of this research can be used to improve and define efficient communication and marketing strategies for non-profit organizations using the theoretical and strategic results that have been found.

Likewise, it has been shown that strategic alliances in this ecosystem, using digital technologies such as social networks and the Internet, can help NGOs to express their values and projects effectively to volunteers. Platforms that promote social projects and need the support of volunteers and users who invest in their projects can use the results of this study to improve their presence on the Internet and expand their plans for digital communication and strategic alliances.

Practical Implications

The results of this research show that the communication strategies for NGOs and platforms that rely on volunteers are of utmost importance for successful results on digital channels. Managers and executives of NGOs and public institutions that have non-profit-making projects or that provide communication campaigns to promote NGOs can use the results of this study to identify the importance of visual identity, online reputation, and the use of NGO platforms.

The results of this research can also be used by NGO managers to modify and extend the scope of their communication strategies in order to recruit more volunteers into their projects. The most important messages to be communicated must give importance to the values of the organization and not be centered on the graphical and design elements of the NGO.

The limitations of this research are due to the size of the test group and the profile of the questioned individuals. Also, the sample could be extended to potential volunteers of other ages, as this study is biased toward members of Generation Z and against other cultures and countries other than Spain. Finally, a longitudinal study would allow the verification, or not, of the relationships over time. In this study, the research was carried out with potential young volunteers who are used to using social media and platforms on the Internet. This is positive

because a gap in the literature has been covered, although the theoreticalbasis of the variables was not applied to a wide enough range of participants for the relationships to be confirmed in all possible cases. It can be said, however, that the results of this study provide important contributions to the literature as a base for future investigations into NGOs and volunteer recruitment projects on digital environments.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors, without undue reservation, to any qualified researcher.

ETHICS STATMENT

Ethical review and approval was not required for the study on human participants in accordance with the local legislation and institutional requirements. Written informed consent from the participants was not required to participate in this study in accordance with the national legislation and the institutional requirements.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors listed have made a substantial, direct, and intellectual contribution to the work, and approved it for publication.

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The Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods of Seville: Servant Leadership in Social Action

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The religious fraternities and brotherhoods of Seville, Spain, are among the major agents of the social aid carried out in that city. Knowing the characteristics of the servant leadership that have been established by authors such as Greenleaf (1997), we interviewed several representatives of these institutions to determine if they would meet those characteristics and to what extent they configure their teams in charge of carrying out that social aid. Our aim was to verify, through the Rivera and Santos questionnaire (2015), which has been modified to refer to a legal person, if the characteristics that have been assigned to the concept of leader-server and that normally apply to a natural person can also be identified in such corporations. Moreover, we sought to take the opportunity to investigate this structure of work in social action and identify the common characteristics, if any, that make the fraternities and brotherhoods of Seville different from other private agents fighting against poverty.

Keywords: religious organizations, volunteer commitment, servant leadership, job satisfaction, implications of laity

INTRODUCTION

In contemporary society, the division of social classes based on financial capacity generates inequality among different sectors of the population. We find groups of people whose financial situation allows them to meet their needs, while other groups' capacity to do so is either very limited or practically nil.

This wealth/poverty dichotomy is manifested both in comparisons among states and among people within the same city. Therefore, to alleviate differences in financial capacity in regard to meeting needs, social assistance or action programs exist at different geographical levels.

To the traditional division of the first, second and third worlds, the idea of the fourth world has been added, which refers to those within the first world who lack financial capacity.

In Seville, Spain, a first-world city, these situations of need that the State fails to cover through its public administration are addressed through the intervention of private agents whose main activity – or a part of it – is social action. These agents include non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and religious organizations. However, because Spain is a country with deep roots in the Christian tradition, it also has other types of social agents: religious fraternities, brotherhoods and associations of the faithful.

The fact that the researchers are from the city of Seville allows us to better understand these corporations and their profile as social agents dedicated to social action compared to other agents of social intervention, such as NGOs or foundations.

While religious fraternities and brotherhoods are linked to the Catholic Church, they have a different origin than religious congregations. Religious fraternities and brotherhoods arise as associations of lay people centered on devotion to a titular image around which they organize cults for specific purposes. However, they are always linked to a social action and are usually related to a group linked to the corporation, due to their origins in medieval guilds.

According to the majority of authors, such as Moreno (1985), the common purposes shared by all such organizations are to promote the celebration of cults in honor of those for whom they are named, to bring about spiritual improvement among members and to provide charitable care for one another and for the needy in general. Along the same lines, according to other authors such as Valduérteles (2019, p. 2), according to ecclesiastical regulations, their characteristic purposes are the "*promotion of public worship, training of brothers, improvement of society in a Christian spirit, promotion of charity among the brothers (cc. 298 and 301 CIC),*" thus emphasizing the aspect of the opening the organization to society. Both authors point to charity as the ultimate goal of religious fraternities and brotherhoods, an aspect on which we will focus in this work.

Starting from the notion that social action in a city like Seville represents a social change project involving several actors, such as the State Public Administration and other social agents, we raise the possibility that Greenleaf (1977) idea of servant leadership applies to these lay organizations' fulfillment of their purpose of exercising social action for the needy in general.

In turn, and assuming that this is indeed true, we are interested in determining the specific characteristics of the teams that lead these organizations.

To do this, in addition to conducting the survey and processing the resulting data, we analyze the following: the concept, evolution and configuration of fraternities and brotherhoods; the translation of the concept of the leader-server to fraternities and brotherhoods as legal persons; the application of the concept of leader-server to fraternities and brotherhoods; the characteristics of the profile of fraternities and brotherhoods; and the new horizons explored through this research.

Previous Notions

In this research, we address the world of religious fraternities and brotherhoods, a subject that is of great interest at regional and local levels as it is a manifestation of the practically autochthonous popular religiosity of Spain and its former colonies, particularly in Andalusia.

This world, called the "cofrade," leads us into a social reality that possesses its own vocabulary and idiosyncrasies formed over centuries of history. Therefore, we find it pertinent, before going further into the subject, to discuss a series of previous notions that allow us to clarify some questions that may arise.

The first issue to address is that of language. It is necessary to define and distinguish among concepts and to clarify those terms that cannot be translated or whose translation can lead to error.

We begin with the terms "*hermandades*" and "*cofradías,*" words that could both be translated interchangeably as "brotherhoods." However, in Spanish, the terms are not the same.

In this work, we prefer to use the term "religious fraternity" for "*hermandad,*" which etymologically approaches but is different from the concept of a "college fraternity" or "fraternity," highlighting the aspect of religiosity. In addition, we prefer to use the term "brotherhood" for "*cofradía.*" In any case, "*hermandad*" can be used in a broad sense to also refer to brotherhoods, and hence, in this article, we will consider the same use of the concept of "religious fraternity."

Another construct that we must bear in mind is that of the "*asociaciones de fieles,*" which can be translated as "associations of the faithful" and which constitute a modality within these types of corporations that has an equivalent structure and purpose but occupies a different legal and ecclesiastical category from that of religious fraternities and brotherhoods.

These corporations should not be confused with religious congregations, which are founded by secular people and are usually constituted either only by secular people (such as the Sisters of the Cross), or by secular people and lay people (such as the Jesuits).

Within the internal structure of these corporations, we find the figure of "*Hermano/a Mayor,*" which can be translated as "big brother/sister." However, we will not use that concept; instead, we shall use "*alcalde,*" or "mayor," for we believe that this more political term more succinct, since the legal representative of the corporation is democratically elected by the adults in the corporation. We prefer the concept of "mayor" because one of the corporations includes that position, and its powers are identical to those of the "*Hermano Mayor,*" whose position is held by whomever serves as Archbishop of Seville. The term "president" ("*presidente*" in Spanish) would also be valid; however, the term is rarely used in these cases.

The members of the corporation are called "*hermano*" and "*hermana,*" or "brother" and "sister" in English (not to be confused with friars and nuns). However, in Spanish, the plural forms can be "*hermanos*" (only men), "*hermanas*" (only women), or "*hermanos*" (meaning both men and women). This is due to a linguistic norm called the "generic masculine," whereby the masculine plural of a word can be used to refer to both genders.

The problem is that the term "*hermanos,*" based on the norm of the generic masculine, creates confusion when translated as the neutral English term "siblings," since we are not talking about a family relationship in legal terms, but rather in spiritual terms (such as "brothers in Christ" and "children of God"). Therefore, it would not be entirely correct to use "siblings." Hence, we refer to those who belong to the organization as "members" ("*miembros*" in Spanish) or, by applying the Spanish concept of the generic masculine, as "brothers."

Other concepts that cannot be translated are "*priostía*" (a section of the corporation that is dedicated to the custody and maintenance of objects related to worship), "*rocieras*" (a modality of glory corporations), "*cristíferas*" (relating to avocations of Christ), or "*simpecado*" (flags or banners with the image of a Marian avocation).

Within this particular vocabulary, we must also take into account the "titular image," "titular of the brotherhood," or simply, "titular," which are the figures that exercise a spiritual patronage over the corporation. These may be the Blessed

Sacrament, "Cristíferas" avocations, Marian avocations, saints, beati, or "blessed souls" (or souls in purgatory).

These "titulars" are worshiped through the consecrated form, in the case of the Blessed Sacrament, or through paintings, *simpecados*, and, especially, sculptures. The latter are of particular historical/artistic importance in Andalusia and specifically in Seville, where, in addition to being worshiped in church, they are also carried through the streets in processionals.

Most corporations are governed under the General Council of Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods of Seville, or the Council, which is under the Archdiocese. This institution manages relations among all of the religious fraternities and brotherhoods, the archdiocese, and the public administration. Its functions include facilitating street processionals, promoting the resolution of conflicts between corporations, and distributing the financing they receive from the public administration.

In addition, this institution also carries out its own social action projects and others in conjunction with the religious fraternities and brotherhoods. Actually, in 2002–2004, the Council promoted the carrying out of an investigation into social action, the result of which was reflected in the "White Paper on Social Action": http://www.hermandades-de-sevilla.org/consejo/accion-social/la-accion-social-conjunta/libro-blanco-de-la-accion-social (accessed in March 2020). However, not all corporations of this type, such as the associations of the faithful, are subject to the authority of the council.

We must clarify that we can identify these corporations based on different criteria and categories. We have opted for the most used method of categorization, which is based on when the corporation ordinarily carries out its main procession; therefore, we distinguish the following categories:

(1) Religious fraternities of Penance: hold processions of penance at the Santa Iglesia Cathedral between Palm Sunday and Easter Sunday;
(2) Religious fraternities of Vespers: hold processions of penance at their location between the Friday of Sorrows and Saturday of Passion Week;
(3) Religious fraternities of Glory: hold processions at a different time than those of the religious fraternities of Vespers and Penance;
(4) Association of the Faithful: holds processions at a different time than those of the religious fraternities of Vespers and Penance; and
(5) Rociera religious fraternities: make a pilgrimage to the Sanctuary of the Virgen del Rocío in Almonte, Huelva, Spain.

The scientific literature on this "cofrade world" is limited, as the existing literature has traditionally focused on historical, theological, legal, and artistic aspects. Treatments in other fields, such as psychology, have been less abundant. In any case, on this topic, we must observe the considerations on the subject of religious fraternities and brotherhoods of Díaz (2011) and his compilation of publications related to the fields of history and law. In addition, although a considerable amount of material

exists, it is mostly informative, since thus far not much scientific interest has been generated beyond the local or regional level.

To understand the history of these corporations, it is easiest to turn to informative works. For a more in-depth exploration of their origins, in the absence of scientific publications that can cover all of those in existence, we refer to informative works, particularly the history sections of the websites of each corporation (if they have them), or, failing that, to the summaries on the website of the General Council of Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods of Seville: http://www.hermandades-de-sevilla.org/hermandades (accessed in September 2019).

Nonetheless, scientific publications do exist and can provide information regarding specific issues, such as when there were still blood-shedding flagellants or brothers (Fernández, 2000; Sánchez, 2000), which, along with other practices, were heavily regulated since 1604 and banned since 1777.

In our case, because social action is the topic being addressed, there is even less reference literature, since this is often created for people from "outside of the cofrade world" who are unfamiliar with it.

However, there happens to be a researcher who specializes in this area: Valduérteles, who is a doctor, university professor and researcher in the field of business, is currently mayor of one of these corporations, and has been publishing about religious fraternities and brotherhoods and their social actions for several years.

Valduérteles is probably the person in Seville who has done the most work in this area, with papers such as *Hermandades para el siglo XXI* (Valduérteles, 2011) and *Informe sobre la caridad en las hermandades de Sevilla* (I, II) (Valduérteles, 2014, 2017a). In recent years, he has published works on brotherhoods outside of the legal, historical or artistic fields, such as *Hermandades 360°* (Valduérteles, 2017b), published by the Cajasol Foundation, among other works.

These publications enjoy wide recognition and have served to raise awareness about the social action of these corporations and how it has developed over time, as we can see in the following article: www.diariodesevilla.es/cofradias-sevilla/Consejo-Accion-Social-Asistencia- Caridad_0_1107189956.html (Accessed in September 2019).

Also, thanks to the "White Paper on Social Action" contributed to the work of Roda (2003): *IV Simposio sobre Hermandades de Sevilla y su Provincia (2003).* Which present the issue of social action highlight the chapter of "*La acción social en las Hermandades: una perspectiva desde la historia y la actualidad*" by De Julios (2003).

For this study, local news articles or specialized articles on the "cofrade" world were of great importance because they offset the lack of information from scientific and current literature, which, from a local point of view, we can directly observe, but would be almost impossible to transmit in full.

This is also true of specific topics mentioned in the article, such as the following:

(1) The current role of women in religious fraternities and brotherhoods; for more on this issue, we recommend the following article: https://sevilla.abc.es/pasionensevilla/

actualidad/noticias/la-incorporacion-la-mujer-las-cofradias-ten-anos-after-125220-1521057497.html (accessed September 2019); and

(2) Marginality in Seville, where some of the poorest neighborhoods in Europe are located; information has been published in the media on May 29, 2019, according to the latest edition of "Urban Indicators" by the National Statistics Institute (INE) as part of the European Urban Audit project: https://sevilla.abc.es/sevilla/sevi-poligono-y-pajaritos-sevilla-barrios-mas-poor-espana-201905291330_noticia.html (accessed in September 2019).

Likewise, specialized websites regarding religious fraternities and brotherhoods have also been important. Most of these are local in scope and provide some information that can be extracted.

Regarding social action in particular, to learn about some of these projects, one must visit the websites of the corporations themselves, including the General Council of Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods of the city of Seville. Some examples can also be found on the website of the Provincial Delegation for Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods of the Archbishopric of Seville: http://www.hermandades-archisevilla.org/Accion-Social/index.ph (accessed September 2019).

MATERIALS AND METHODSOLOGY

Materials

We used previous studies in the field of servant leadership as references, such as Greenleaf (1977), Spears (1996); Page and Wong (2000), Marín and Páez (2014); Rivera and Santos (2015), and Blanch et al. (2016).

Method

Due to both the organizational structure of religious fraternities and brotherhoods and the lack of previous studies on the issue of their social action, we believed that the most suitable option was to conduct interviews based on the questionnaire by Rivera and Santos (2015) to determine whether these groups reflect the characteristics of servant leadership.

Using the same criteria used in this questionnaire, we modified the items to adapt them to the object of study (religious fraternities and brotherhoods), as shown in **Table 1**.

Next, a series of technical questions regarding the composition of the teams in charge of social action within the religious fraternities and brotherhoods was incorporated into the questionnaire, as shown in **Table 1**.

The data were obtained through semi-structured interviews conducted orally. The population selected comprised those occupying the position of mayor or a position equivalent to director of social action (or charity) at the religious fraternities, brotherhoods and associations of the faithful, regardless of the classification of their corporation.

It must be kept in mind that there are several classifications among religious fraternities and brotherhoods, the most common

of which distinguishes between "glories" and "penance," with a subgroup of the latter called "vespers." Groups with greater recognition are generally those within the "penance" category rather than "vespers," of which there is a total of 60 in the city of Seville. In total, there are ~126 corporations in Seville governed by the General Council of Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods.

Of the 30 corporations that participated in this study, at least 24 were penance groups, one was a vespers group, one was an association of the faithful, and four were glories (two of which were "rocieras"). The number of participants is a limitation of our study, because, as the surveys were conducted during the holiday period, it was not possible to locate the responsible members of all of the corporations as their usual activities were suspended.

Instrument

The first part of the survey follows the model used for Rivera and Santos (2015) questions regarding servant leadership, with the necessary modifications to adapt it to this research.

For the second part of the study, a series of *ad hoc* questions were asked to determine the organizational structure of the team. These questions were asked to clarify, among other aspects, issues such as the number of permanent and occasional members; the employment status of permanent members; gender distribution; participation of individuals with a confirmed disability; characteristics of the employment relationship, if one exists; and the level of satisfaction with the work of the permanent members.

RESULTS

The results of the investigation are collected in an explanatory legend (**Table 2**), and the answers are presented in a table (**Table 3**) showing the responses of the 30 corporations that we were able to survey, which were transformed into a score that varies from "completely disagree = -3" to "completely agree = 3." In addition, we added a "scoring" column based on the sum of the questions asked of each corporation; a column with the averages of the answers to the last three questions in the survey; the average numbers of women and individuals with disabilities in each corporation; and the average scores, evaluations, and percentages of women and individuals with disabilities.

Analysing the data obtained, we found some interesting results, as show the **Tables 4** and **5**:

(a) Regarding servant leadership:

Although **Table 3** presents the specific results obtained for each item, we shall highlight the following results:

(1) The lowest possible rating, "completely disagree" (a value equivalent to-3), was obtained for discussion with the team; integrity and role models received a rating of "disagree" (-1); service, setting objectives, services 2, vision, teamwork

TABLE 1 | Survey. First, the interviewee is greeted and introduced to the project. Subsequently, they are asked about their specific position.

Item/Dimension	Question
Servant leadership	
Service	The corporation is willing to make sacrifices to provide services to others
Teamwork	When the corporation collaborates with other agents, it values each of the other agents
Setting Objectives	The corporation sets realistic and clear goals
Service	The corporation seeks to serve rather than to be served
Empowerment	It produces great satisfaction within the corporation to help others develop their skills as fully as possible.
Vision	The corporation feels that it is called to do something great for society
Teamwork	When the corporation collaborates with other agents, it looks for ways to make use of the differences among the other agents
Management	The ideas of the corporation are normally accepted by others as useful and effective
Role models	The corporation never asks others to do what it is not willing to do itself
Courage	The corporation has the courage to do things that are morally right, even when doing so may harm it
Integrity	The corporation always keeps its promises and commitments to others
Humility	The corporation does not seek recognition (social renown) nor recompense (financial) for serving others
Care by the Team	The corporation listens actively and receptively to what others have to say
Team discussion	The corporation is willing to have its ideas questioned by people close to it

To examine servant leadership, they are asked, Can you tell us to what extent the following statements fit your way of being and thinking? Response options: Completely disagree, Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither disagree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree, Completely Agree.

To learn about the structure of the teams, the lead-in was as follows: *Please, we would also like to know the following information regarding the team that performs the corporation's social action.*

Item/Dimension	Question
Composition of the team	
Permanent physical members	Number of physical persons who permanently make up the team
Occasional physical members	Number of physical persons who occasionally join the team
Gender	Of the permanent members of the team, how many are women and how many are men?
Disability	Based on the legal criteria for disability, how many permanent members of the team qualify as disabled?
Occupation	Occupations of the permanent members of the team (retirees, working, studying, unemployed)
Hiring	How many participate through an employment contract with the corporation?
Remuneration	How many receive financial compensation for their participation?
Commitment	From your perspective, with 0 being very poor and 10 being very good, how would you rate the commitment of the permanent members to the social activity carried out by the corporation?
Work environment	From your perspective, with 0 being very poor and 10 being very good, how would you rate the work environment of the permanent members of the team?
Satisfaction	From your perspective, with 0 being very poor and 10 being very good, how would you rate the team's satisfaction with the work they do?

Response options: open.

TABLE 2 | Legend.

Item	Value	Item	Value	Item	Value	Item	Value	Answer	Value
Service	(1)	Role models	(9)	Volunteers	(17)	Hired	(25)	Completely disagree	−3
Teamwork	(2)	Courage	(10)	Women	(18)	Beneficiaries	(26)	Strongly disagree	−2
Setting Objectives	(3)	Integrity	(H)	Men	(19)	Weight of ratings	(27)	Disagree	−1
Service 2	(4)	Humility	(12)	Disability	(20)	Commitment	(28)	Neither agree nor disagree	0
Empowerment	(5)	Team Care	(13)	Retirees	(21)	Work Environment	(29)	Agree	1
Vision	(6)	Team Discussion	(14)	Worker's	(22)	Satisfaction	(30)	Strongly agree	2
Teamwork 2	(7)	Score	(15)	Students	(23)	Percentage of Women	(31)	Completely agree	3
Management	(8)	Fixed	(16)	Unemployed	(24)	Percentage with Disabilities	(32)		

2, and courage received a rating of "neither agree nor disagree" (0); and teamwork, empowerment, direction, humility, and team care received a rating of "agree" (1).

(2) The 75th percentile rating was "completely agree" (3); the 25th percentile ratings for service 2, empowerment, and humility were "completely agree"; in the same percentile,

TABLE 3 | Results.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
3	1	3	3	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	37	8
3	2	0	0	3	0	0	1	−1	1	−1	3	2	−3	10	1
3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	39	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	42	8
3	3	3	3	2	1	3	2	3	3	3	3	1	0	33	10
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	1	3	38	6
2	1	2	2	3	2	1	1	3	1	3	3	3	1	28	1
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	40	18
1	1	2	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	2	2	3	0	18	5
3	3	2	3	3	1	2	3	2	3	1	3	2	3	34	7
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	41	10
1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	16	2
2	1	3	3	3	3	1	2	3	1	3	1	1	−1	26	15
3	1	3	3	3	2	1	2	3	2	2	3	3	1	32	3
3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	37	35
3	1	3	3	3	3	1	1	2	1	3	3	3	2	32	4
3	1	1	3	3	3	1	1	3	1	3	3	1	1	28	2
0	3	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	3	2	23	6
3	2	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	1	1	3	1	1	28	7
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	42	25
1	3	3	3	3	1	1	2	2	3	2	3	3	1	31	10
3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	1	1	1	3	3	3	34	9
3	1	1	3	3	0	1	1	1	0	3	3	3	0	23	16
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	41	10
3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	38	3
1	1	3	1	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	22	9
2	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	35	4
2	2	2	3	3	1	3	2	1	1	1	3	3	1	28	10
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	40	4
3	3	3	3	1	0	1	1	1	0	3	3	2	0	24	10
													Average:	31.33	

(Continued)

TABLE 3 | Continued

(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31) %	(32) %
45	5	3	1	4	4	0	0	0	0	10.0	10	10	10	62 50	12.50
100	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	10.0	10	10	10	0.00	100.00
5	1	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	9.0	9	9	9	33.33	0.00
6	3	5	0	3	5	0	0	0	0	SO	8	8	8	37.50	0.00
20	7	3	0	5	3	1	1	0	0	8.67	9	9	8	70.00	0.00
30	1	5	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	8.67	8	9	9	16.67	0.00
3	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	9.00	8	9	10	100.00	0.00
23	15	3	0	0	14	4	0	0	0	10.0	10	10	10	83.33	0.00
3	4	1	0	0	4	1	0	0	0	10.0	10	10	10	80.00	0.00
20	2	5	1	0	4	3	0	0	0	8.33	7	9	9	28.57	14.29
4	7	3	2	2	5	1	2	0	0	10.0	10	10	10	70.00	20.00
5	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	7.67	8	8	7	50.00	0.00
40	8	7	0	1	6	7	1	0	0	8.33	7	9	9	53.33	0.00
2	1	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	9.00	10	10	7	33.33	0.00
10	20	15	2	10	15	6	4	0	0	9.33	9	10	9	57.14	5.71
20	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	100	10	10	10	000	000
30	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	10.0	10	10	10	0.00	0.00
47	0	4	2	2	4	0	0	0	0	6.67	7	7	6	0.00	33.33
50	5	2	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	9.00	9	9	9	71.43	0.00
75	16	9	0	0	22	3	0	0	0	9.33	8	10	10	64.00	0.00
6	3	7	0	4	6	0	0	1	0	8.00	8	8	8	30.00	0.00
9	7	2	1	2	7	0	0	0	0	9.67	10	10	9	77.78	11.11
10	9	7	0	10	6	0	0	0	0	10.0	10	10	10	56.25	0.00
80	4	6	1	1	6	3	0	1	0	8.67	8	10	8	40.00	10.00
40	2	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	10.0	10	10	10	66.67	0.00
4	2	7	0	3	5	1	0	0	0	9.00	10	7	10	22.22	0.00
20	1	3	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	8.67	9	9	8	25.00	0.00
50	5	5	1	4	5	0	1	0	0	9.33	9	10	9	50.00	10.00
15	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	6.67	7	7	6	0.00	0.00
30	5	5	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	8.67	10	10	6	50.00	0.00
									Average:	8.99				44.30	7.23

TABLE 4 | Analysis. Part 1.

	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Range	Minimum	Maximum	P25	P75
Service	2.5	3	3	0.861033861	3	0	3	2	3
Teamwork	2.23333333	3	3	0.93526074	2	1	3	1	3
Setting objectives	2.4	3	3	085500555	3	0	3	2	3
Service 2	2.66666667	3	3	0.75809804	3	0	3	3	3
Empowerment	2.766666667	3	3	0.568320777	2	1	3	3	3
Vision	1.96666667	2	3	1.06619961	3	0	3	1	3
Teamwork 2	2	2	3	1.050451463	3	0	3	1	3
Management	1.9	2	1	0.84486277	2	1	3	1	3
Role models	2.166666667	3	3	1.053183461	4	−1	3	1	3
Courage	1.9	2	3	1.028892944	3	0	3	1	3
Integrity	2.13333333	2.5	3	1.04166092	4	−1	3	1	3
Humility	2.733333333	3	3	0.63968383	2	1	3	3	3
Team care	24	3	3	085500555	2	1	3	2	3
Team discussion	1.56666667	1.5	3	1.5013404	6	−3	3	1	3
Score	31.3333333	32.5	28	8.36385216	32	10	42	26.5	38
Fixed	8.7	7.5	10	7.320966584	34	1	35	4	10
Volunteers	26.7333333	20	20	25.2776763	98	2	100	0.09375	10
Women	4.5	3	1	502922494	20	0	20	1	6.5
Men	4.13333333	3.5	3	3.03693736	15	0	15	2	5
Disabled	0.4	0	0	0.674664668	2	0	2	0	1
Retirees	1.766666667	0	0	2.725148947	10	0	10	0	2.75
Workers	5.4666667	4	4	4.5692626	22	0	22	6	1
Students	1.03333333	0	0	1 86590707	7	0	7	0	1
Unemployed	0.433333333	0	0	0.971430986	4	0	4	0	0
Hired	0.253708132	0	0	0.253708132	1	0	1	0	0
Beneficiaries	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Weight of ratings	8.988888889	9	10	0.944771185	3.333333333	6.666666667	10	8	10
Commitment	8.93333333	9	10	1 11210683	3	7	10	8	10
Work environment	9.23333333	10	10	1.00630198	3	7	10	8	10
Satisfaction	8.8	9	10	1.32352716	4	6	10	8	10
Percentages of fixed members	0.92%	0.26%	0.06%	2.91%	−	0.03%	16.00%	0.19%	0.39%
Percentages of volunteer members	1.48%	0.76%	0.67%	2.33%	−	0.06%	12.00%	0.28%	1.51%

the rating of "strongly agree" (2) was given for service, setting objectives, and team care; and all other variables received a rating of "agree."

(3) For teamwork, empowerment, humility of management and team care, only ratings of "agree" and "completely agree" were obtained.

(4) The mode of the answers was "completely agree," except regarding direction, for which it was "agree."

(5) The rating of "strongly disagree" (-2) was never given.

(6) The median rating, which is equivalent to the 50th percentile, was between "strongly agree" and "completely agree," with the exception of team management, which still had a median rating higher than "agree."

(7) The lowest score was 10 points, the mode was 28 points, the average was 31.33 points, the median or 50th percentile was 32.5 points, the 25th percentile was 26.5 points, and the 75th percentile was 38 points of the maximum value of 42.

This work is based on the hypothesis that the organizations analyzed largely conform to the servant leadership model. Therefore, we must assume with respect to the score that the hypothesis is confirmed when a corporation achieves a minimum rating 14 points, that is, the equivalent of an "agree" on each question.

We understood that in order to confirm the hypothesis, given the subjective and personal perceptions of each respondent, we must obtain an average score indicating an affirmative answer, meaning that the sum of the results is at least twice the minimum for the characteristics of servant leadership to indicate ratings of "strongly agree" or a score of 28 points.

Taking as a reference the results of the descriptive study and the data, we obtained another series of results: because the mode is 28 points, the average is 31.33 points and the median is 32.5 points, we could consider the hypothesis confirmed. In addition, we observed that the 25th percentile

TABLE 5 | Analysis. Part 2.

Contingency table

Service	Service 2				Total
	0	**1**	**2**	**3**	
0	0	0	1	0	1
1	0	2	1	1	4
2	0	0	1	3	4
3	1	0	0	20	21
Total	1	2	3	24	30

χ² Tests

	Value	df	P
χ²	28.4	9	<0.001
N	30		

Contingency table

Teamwork	Teamwork 2				Total
	0	**1**	**2**	**3**	
1	1	7	0	2	10
2	1	1	0	1	3
3	0	2	4	11	17
Total	2	10	4	14	30

χ² Tests

	Value	df	P
χ²	16.8	6	0.010
N	30		

Contingency table

Setting Objectives	Vision				Total
	0	**1**	**2**	**3**	
0	1	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	4
2	0	3	3	1	7
3	1	4	2	11	IS
Total	3	S	6	13	30

χ² Tests

	Value	df	P
χ²	17.4	9	0.043
N	30		

Contingency table

Empowerment	Courage				Total
	0	**1**	**2**	**3**	
1	1	1	0	0	2
2	0	1	1	1	3
3	1	9	4	11	25
Total	2	11	5	12	30

χ² Tests

	Value	df	P
χ²	7.92	6	0.239
N	30		

Contingency table

Management	Role models				Total
	−1	**1**	**2**	**3**	
1	1	6	1	4	12
2	0	1	2	6	9
3	0	1	2	6	9
Total	1	8	5	16	30

χ² Tests

	Value	df	P
χ²	7.92	6	0.244
N	30		

Contingency table

Integrity	Humility			Total
	1	**2**	**3**	
−1	0	0	1	1
1	2	1	5	8
2	0	1	5	6
3	1	0	14	15
Total	3	2	25	30

χ² Tests

	Value	df	P
χ²	5.67	6	0.461
N	30		

Contingency table

Team care	Team discussion						Total
	−3	**−1**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	
1	0	1	1	4	0	1	7
2	1	0	1	0	0	2	4
3	0	0	2	5	3	9	19
Total	1	1	4	9	3	12	30

χ² Tests

	Value	df	P
χ²	16.6	10	0.084
N	30		

Kruskal-Wallis test

	Range		
	1=Commitment; 2=Environment; 3=Satisfaction	**N**	**Average range**
Score	1	30	43.77
	2	30	50.40
	3	30	42.33
	Total	90	

Test Statistics

	Score
χ²	1.839
gl	2
Asymptotic Sig.	0.399

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of the scores (26.5 points) approaches 28; the 50th percentile or median exceeds 28 points, and the 75th percentile vastly exceeds it, with 38 points out of the maximum of 42 possible, which would be equivalent a rating of "completely agree" on the 14 questions.

Analysing the specific data, only 8 of the 30 corporations studied (less than one-third of the sample) had a score below 28 points, and only one obtained less than 14 points. This result does not imply that these corporations approach social action incorrectly but that their practices are perceived as less aligned with the servant leader model; this implies the existence of a different leadership model, which is not necessarily better or worse.

(b) Regarding the leadership team:

In this section, the survey posed some open-ended questions to which the participating corporations could respond freely. We did not expect any specific result, and nor did we propose any hypothesis. This allowed us to obtain information from the people involved in social action in corporations. No information was gathered regarding the number of members in each organization since the same person can be a member (brother) of several corporations and participate in all of them in different ways, which could cause some confusion. Therefore, we focused on specific data regarding social action.

It should be clarified that, when referring to permanent members, we refer to those who hold a permanent position or who always participate voluntarily in social action by directing it. Occasional members or volunteers are those who participate occasionally and do not direct social action.

Most of the survey items referred to the permanent members mentioned first. Based on the data obtained, the following information followed:

(1) No participant obtains economic gain from their collaboration.
(2) Of all the existing personnel in the 30 corporations, there were only two people hired – in different entities – with employment contracts not necessarily linked to social action.
(3) Regarding the employment status of the participants, the majority were employed, followed by retirees, students and, finally, the unemployed.
(4) On average, there were proportionately more women than men, and the maximum ratings were higher among the women. When we analyze the minimum scores and percentiles, we found that when the number of permanent members increases, women outnumber men in groups with more than six women. Therefore, the proportion of women with respect to men was higher in the 75th percentile of the study population, while men outnumbered women in the 50th and 25th percentiles of the study population.
(5) The percentage of permanent members with disabilities was low.

(c) Regarding respondents' assessments:

Regarding the assessments, because they were also open-ended questions, we did not propose any initial hypothesis. The data indicate that the results were positive, always higher than 5, and the average was equally high. The averages approached 9 out of 10 points, the median was 9 (except for the work environment item, which was 10), and the mode for all of the items was 10. Regarding the percentiles, the 25th percentile score was 8, and 75th percentile was 10.

(d) Regarding the relationships among the servant leadership variables:

To examine these relationships, we created contingency tables for the items that we thought could be dependent using the chi-square test of independence.

As a result, with a 95% confidence level, we matched the variables that seemed conceptually closer to one another:

(1) Service and Service 2:

In this case, the contingency table and the p-value indicate that the hypothesis that these two variables are related must be accepted; in fact, the greater the agreement for one of the variables was, the greater the agreement for the other variable was.

(2) Teamwork and Teamwork 2:

According to the contingency table and the p-value, the hypothesis that these two variables are related was accepted; in fact, when there was a higher level of agreement for one of them, there was also greater agreement for the other.

(3) Setting Objectives and Vision:

According to the contingency table and the p-value, the hypothesis that these two variables are also related was accepted; in fact, the greater the agreement for one was, the greater the agreement was for the other.

(4) Empowerment and Courage:

In this case, we can deduce from the contingency table and the p-value that we must accept the hypothesis that these two variables are not related and are independent.

(5) Management and Role Models:

Similarly, we can determine from the contingency table and the p-value that we must accept the hypothesis that the two variables are not related and are independent.

(6) Integrity and Humility:

Based on the contingency table and the p-value, the hypothesis that these two variables are not related, but rather are independent, was accepted.

(7) Team Care and Team Discussion:

Similarly, it follows from the contingency table and the p-value that the hypothesis that these two variables are not related must be accepted, as they are also independent.

(e) Regarding the relationship between participation and the number of brothers in each corporation:

For this part of the study, we considered the relationship between the number of brothers in each organization and the form of participation: fixed or voluntary.

For data protection reasons, the values of these variables cannot be shown in the tables, as some corporations can be identified by their membership numbers. However, the results of the descriptive study can be provided because, although they are of interest to the study, they are based on data that cannot be used to identify participating organizations.

During this study, the question of the possible relationship between the number of members (brothers) and their participation in social action was raised. Actual data on members are difficult to access and validate as they are subject to constant changes; hence, we cannot guarantee the use of a system of authentication or common verification.

For this reason, we used an estimate of the number of members published annually for all penance and rocieras corporations as a reference, however, this is approximate data because the number of members varies depending on how many join and leave. Estimates were published for 27 of the 30 corporations with which we worked, and we also have approximate data regarding the number of members in one of the remaining three that was provided by the corporation itself during the interview.

For the corporations for which we could not obtain an estimate, we chose to assign an approximate value based on their characteristics and the number of estimated members (maximum and minimum) in the rest of the corporations.

The consequences of this decision were as follows:

Not taking into account the corporations without published membership estimates, the Pearson's coefficient of variation was −0.09, which does not reliability indicate a linear progression.

When all the estimated data were used, Pearson's coefficient of variation was 0.8, which indicates the possibility of a linear progression. However, when we added the data for the corporation that provided an estimated number of brothers, which was the lowest estimate among those collected, Pearson's coefficient of variation remained at 0.8. This implies that the data would have a distribution close to normal for these variables, and hence, when one of them is known, the results for the other are more easily predicted.

In corporations with fewer members, the percentage of participation, both fixed and voluntary, is much higher because proportionally more group members participate.

On the other hand, when we increased the approximate number of members of corporations for which we estimated membership numbers, Pearson's coefficient of variation was also maintained at ∼0.8.

In this case, we observed in the descriptive analysis that the maximum percentages of permanent members who participate exceeds the maximum percentages of voluntary members who do so, although the results indicate that there were more volunteers than permanent members. This is because the group of volunteers is normally larger than that of organizers, however, in **Table 3**, we can observe some exceptions, which are affected by the number of members (brothers) in the corporation.

(f) Regarding the ratings:

We also analyzed the valuations using the Kruskal-Wallis test by ranks, for which we had to use a different distribution of the data.

As a null hypothesis of this contrast, we propose that the distribution of the valuations made by the different corporations is on average the same as for the last three issues raised.

The result shows that the p-value (or asymptotic sig.) is 0.399, higher than the usual level of significance of 0.05; thus, there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis as the distribution of the assessments is the same on average.

DISCUSSION

Concept, Evolution, and Configuration of Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods

To better understand the importance of religious fraternities and brotherhoods, we must bear in mind that we are talking about organizations with a corporate, democratic structure regulated by both canonic law and civil law, in which diocesan regulations also have a very important and direct role (Ribelot, 2000). Some corporations have more than 600 years of history and have been dedicated to social action in the city of Seville since their inception (Moreno, 1997).

Different divisions and classifications of these organizations exist, including those by Moreno (1985, p. 41–69) and Sánchez (2000), however, other criteria can be added, such as brotherhoods based on guild, ethnicity, class, neighborhood, open or closed nature, penitence, glory or sacrament, etc. It should be added that one cannot always identify a religious fraternity with a brotherhood since, in general, not all brotherhoods have the rank of a religious fraternity.

Religious fraternities and brotherhoods, especially penitential ones, with their participation in and organization of Holy Week, are part of popular religiosity (Fernández, 2000). The idea of the penance way in Holy Week (Estrada, 2000, p. 213–235) is undoubtedly the most well-known aspect of most of these corporations, and their other dimensions and purposes are often unknown.

The evolution of religious fraternities and brotherhoods (Sánchez, 2000) and Holy Week in Seville is part of the history of the city itself and has gone through different stages of boom and decline (Moreno, 2000). In fact, the adjective "popular" allows us to state that in some cases, these organizations have transcended their religious aspect to acquire a certain festive character, though they are always linked to ethical, social and traditional issues.

Many of the peculiarities, both current and historical, of these corporations have also been studied in the field of psychology. Such particular issues include the reasons for participation, class

differences, different forms of participation between men and women, or the matrilineal affiliation (by maternal line). These characteristics are common in many religious fraternities because they also reflect social evolution (Moreno, 1985).

The legal representative of the corporation is generally called the mayor (Ribelot, 2000), while the rest of the group are known as members (brothers). Alongside the mayor, there is a managing body called the governing board, whose members are democratically elected through universal suffrage among the adult members. Members of note include a deputy/counselor of charity, who is in charge of carrying out the corporation's charity works. These individuals are preferentially selected to constitute the population chosen for the survey.

Translation of the Servant Leader Concept to Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods as a Legal Person

Of great importance in this area is the study by Marín and Páez (2014), which applies the theory of servant leadership to organizations and defines some of its characteristics, focusing on entities that follow a business model with workers and clients. In this study, however, we examine religious corporations with volunteers and beneficiaries of social action, a perspective that has not been analyzed to date. This justifies the need for this study to publicize a previously unknown aspect, which allows the perspective of servant leadership to be applied to an organizational model whose purpose is service to society, rather than economic benefit.

Thus, we can compare the characteristics that identify servant leadership, with an understanding of both the natural person and the legal person.

Regarding the natural person as a servant leader, we note the characteristics highlighted in the study by Villalba (2018): listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, administration, commitment to people's growth, and community building. In addition, as Villalba (2018, p. 25) also states: "*This type of leadership does not seek recognition, since it believes that recognition comes without having been sought, and instead of monopolizing it and boasting, the leader always shares it with everyone involved, thanks to which others feel appreciated [and] have the desire to continue contributing to the work they perform (Hernández, 2017).*"

Regarding the legal entity as a servant leader, we follow the proposal of Marín and Páez (2014), which highlights the following characteristics: "*Caring for people, the most capable and the least capable serving each other, is the cornerstone on which a good society is built. Considering that, until recently, care was to a large extent given from person to person, now the vast majority is mediated through institutions that are often large, complex, powerful, and impersonal; not always competent; and sometimes corrupt. To build a better, more just and loving society, one that can offer better opportunities to its members, the best way to do so is by increasing both the ability to serve and the proper performance as servants of the main existing institutions through new regenerative forces operating from within them (Anderson, 2008: 6)*" (Marín and Páez, 2014, p. 112).

We cannot lose sight of the paradox of the "lead to serve" paradigm, which arises from the leader's natural predisposition not to identify him or herself as a "selfish leader" (Marín, 2015, p. 15). In these cases, the assumption is that the mentality of the corporation itself is the search for service itself. Along these lines, we see that, indeed, "*servant leadership is paradoxical because it is difficult to understand that one must lead to serve, not to be served. The servant leader chooses to serve first, and then lead, as a way to expand the spectrum of service to individuals and institutions*" (Marín, 2010, p. 34). These types of corporations seek to serve and expand their service to more people.

The concept of the natural person within servant leadership complements the vision of the characteristics that we have seen in the legal person. This constitutes a reality within these corporations since, given their origins, any new corporation that is created is linked to a certain social action related to the cult and the spiritual training of the members, although this can be modified over time.

We must not lose sight of the fact that many of these corporations have their historical origins in guilds, or of the influence of the Catholic Church in Spain and how it generated guilds (as occurred with freed black slaves or Romani) as ways of attending to the needs of their members and others close to that environment by establishing a legal association within the Church to raise money without relying on begging and to foster trust through the spirit of charity as a Christian virtue.

An example of this is in the guild, or group, origins of religious fraternities linked to potters, tailors, sailors and port workers, workers at the Royal Tobacco Factory of Seville, etc., and more modern groups such as the university, the Civil Guard and other military and police bodies, students at religious schools, and people in other circumstances, such as freed black slaves or Romani.

These groups were moved by the needs of the people around them, especially when they ceased to be productive, which prompted personal and family crises. The groups sought a way to assist those in need, either by promoting the construction of hospitals and hospices where members could end their days or by directly providing financial assistance to their neediest members. With this objective, the so-called "charity exchange" was created to assist widows or orphans and to exercise guardianship and legal representation.

The characteristics of the corporations have since been modified because their members are now associated with them mainly by family tradition, marriage, friendship with a member, or devotional matters.

In the same way, the social action performed by these corporations has evolved. The emergence of the modern state, which assumes a governmental responsibility aimed at achieving the characteristics of the welfare state, has caused social action to move toward other purposes or to complement the public administration by addressing objectives that it does not. Of particular importance is the elimination of dependence on the group as a requirement for beneficiaries of aid from a corporation; this change has resulted in the opening of social action to almost anyone who

requests it, with the exception of projects created for specific populations (such as single mothers or people with certain diseases or addictions).

In any case, the corporations continue to assume the objective of improving society by taking an ethical and charitable approach to those in need, regardless of whether they are members of the organization. We observe the characteristics previously proposed by Villalba (2018) and Marín and Páez (2014) in the corporations' perceptions of the purpose of their social action. Thus, it is noted that they seek to positively influence society and individuals, acting as their servants in situations of material need but without seeking direct recognition, since they understand that they serve society as part of their own institutional nature. Hence, in our survey, we did not find responses below the "agree" value on questions regarding humility.

Application of the Servant Leader Concept to Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods

Taking into account these approaches to servant leadership and analysing the characteristics of religious fraternities and brotherhoods as well as the results of the surveys, we can conclude that this type of leadership exists both in these corporations and in their relationships with their teams of volunteer workers, most of whom are laypeople, in the development of their social action.

Particularly striking is the fact that this leadership model is not one that was implemented recently; rather, it has been a defining characteristic of these corporations for several centuries, in some cases.

However, it is necessary to take into account that this study is based on the respondents' own perceptions, and we could not determine with total accuracy when this specific leadership model was used in each corporation or when a different one was used. However, we understand that based on the perspective and purpose of corporations whose vision is associated with the charitable nature of the corporation, this leadership model applies.

The corporations surveyed were unaware of the characteristics of this type of leadership and responded critically and sincerely as requested; as a result, the analysis of the data revealed positive responses regarding the characteristics of servant leadership. Therefore, we can state that the leadership of these corporations, for the most part, very closely fits the profile of the servant leader.

In fact, we believe that the variety of responses reflects the diversity of each corporation and the respondents and that both the size of the corporation and the amount of time the person surveyed had been responsible for the social action of the entity influenced the results.

Conducting the survey allowed us to verify that the general perceptions of those responsible for the social action of religious fraternities and brotherhoods in Seville are very close to the characteristics of the servant leader model, thus facilitating the comparison of these corporations with the servant leadership model.

Characteristics of the Workers in Religious Fraternities and Brotherhoods

The analysis of the results of the second part of the survey demonstrates the existence of some very interesting characteristics of these corporations, at least in the entities surveyed:

A very striking result was the number of participants, both permanent, ranging from 1 to 35 people depending on the corporation (the mode being 10, the median 7.5 and the total average 8.7 people), and volunteers, which fluctuated from 2 to 100 people (the mode and median were 20, and the average was 26.73 people).

The incompatibility of positions is a common characteristic of these organizations; thus, those with an official position in one council usually may not hold a position in another corporation (depend on the internal rules). Among the 30 corporations analyzed, there were ∼261 people (a figure resulting from summing the values for all corporations) who permanently work for free for social action in Seville, a city that has a population of close to 700,000 inhabitants and includes some of the poorest neighborhoods in Europe.

This figure for permanent staff contrasts with the percentage of members in each corporation, which may seem low. In relation to this, however, it must be taken into account that while posts are incompatible, membership in different religious fraternities and brotherhoods is not, and hence it is common for people belong to several different corporations but not participate equally in all of them.

Another influencing factor is that at present, not all members are residents of the city or the geographical setting of the corporation. Another factor is differences in ages and personal occupations, since the members of a corporation can participate in other sections (for example, in *priostía*) or as assistants and collaborators in social action projects (attending activities that are organized to raise funds for the charity exchange) since social action is one form of participation within corporations, but not the only one. Similarly, involvement is also based on personal factors, since one may participate on the basis of faith or for reasons of culture or tradition.

In any case, the number of volunteers depends on the size of the corporation in terms of its number of members; there are very significant differences in this area (entities may include 50, 2,000, 10,000 or more people), and size has a decisive influence on a corporation's financial and personnel capacities.

Another interesting aspect is the presence of women among permanent workers, a fact that is very clear in the proportions of women among the participants. The results indicate that, based the presence of six women in permanent positions, the representation of women will always be superior to that of men. However, in a greater number of cases, no women were involved in the social action of the corporation, compared to a single corporation in which no men were involved in social action.

Although women's presence in some brotherhoods has traditionally been minor – or even null – until the end of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century, the results of the present study reflect the success of this change, which was propitiated so that women could also participate in processions of penance and serve on the governing boards of corporations, becoming involved in decision-making and management.

On the other hand, the participation of permanent members with disabilities was not exactly high, taking into account the existence of various types of disabilities and the fact that participation is free and voluntary. Quite striking was the presence of people with a disability that prevents them from working who altruistically dedicate their time to managing projects to help others; this contrasts with the cases of NGOs, foundations and companies that specifically hire people with disabilities, which can provide tax benefits.

This also contrasts with the high number of people in fixed and voluntary positions in the corporations surveyed who were employed. Especially striking was the number of women, who, in addition to working and caring for their family (specifically, their children and parents), find time to devote to project management to meet the needs of others, voluntarily and free of charge.

New Horizons in Research

In conducting this study and examining the results, we verified the difficulty of addressing these types of questions in the absence of related scientific research, Valduérteles being the exception in the area of charity.

For those researchers who deal with the issue of inclusive and sustainable development, the possibility of learning about realities and research that offer different approaches to problems by trying to bring about improvements in society becomes especially important. This study proposes a different model for addressing the widespread manifestations of poverty and situations of social marginality, which underscore the importance of publicizing this model of organizations based in Spain and, specifically, in the city of Seville.

With this study, we wish to encourage research and analysis on what may be the least-known aspects of these institutions outside of the traditionally studied areas and those of more local interest, such as the fields of religious (given their link with faith), history (given their continued presence over time), the law (given their legal singularities), ethnological (given their status as cultural manifestations) and art (in terms of their artistic heritage).

We also believe that it would be interesting to deepen knowledge about this reality by comparing the results that we have obtained from the profile of the servant leader in these corporations with the profile of servant leadership among natural persons, other classes of legal persons (such as NGOs, foundations, religious congregations, etc.), or similar corporations in other geographical locations.

Finally, and from the perspective of inclusive and sustainable development, such study would allow comparisons with organizational models other than NGOs for religious congregations that seek to improve their interventions and achieve greater success in reducing poverty and integrating marginalized populations through private cooperation.

CONCLUSION

Given the findings of the study, we consider our main hypothesis to be valid: the religious fraternities and brotherhoods of the city of Seville, as private agents engaged in social action, operate with a profile very close to that of a servant leader, although these entities are legal persons.

Those surveyed demonstrated very natural responses to the types of questions posed, demonstrating a high degree of understanding and requesting only specific clarifications with the intention of adapting their response to questions that seemed ambiguous.

An example of this was that regarding the vision parameter, some respondents asked what was meant by "something big" since, based on their responsibility and perception, they accepted how limited a social action project can be with respect to number of people in need, the characteristics of the needs they could cover as an organization and their own resources.

Also noted was the fact that in the corporations' budgets, charity or social action accounts for the most significant fixed portion of income and expenses, highlighting the fundamental nature of social action for these corporations above other expenses.

Finally, we cannot finish without mentioning three important cross-cutting issues.

The first is the importance to a corporation of its titular image and motto. Titular images always reflect aspects and virtues of the Christian faith to encourage greater spiritual and personal growth among members, promoting ethical values among subjects in order to improve society through their particular participation in the corporation.

To reinforce that idea, corporations have a shield and a motto. Specifically, the motto serves to reinforce the spiritual mission and social action of corporations.

Consequently, the titular image, which historically is of a catechetical nature, and the motto, in its mission of promoting charity as a virtue among members, are what provide meaning to the membership of the corporation outside of the traditional or legal arena.

The second issue lies in the differences in the concepts of charity, solidarity and social action. In the sphere of corporations, the term "charity" is usually preferred; however, as Valduérteles (2019) states, charity is a theological virtue that lies in the person and is not quantifiable, solidarity is a human virtue that lies in the person and is not quantifiable, and social action is an activity that lies in the religious fraternity and is quantifiable. We sought to make this distinction clear in the article.

The final issue relates to the content of the social action of religious fraternities and brotherhoods. Throughout the article, we have discussed the existence of social action among these entities, but without specifying its exact content.

The aim of this work is not to analyze the specific projects of the different corporations to examine whether they meet their objectives, how many people they help, their budgets, etc. However, for the purpose of this study, it is important to at least provide examples of this social action.

Social action, as we said, was historically linked to assistance for persons belonging to a guild or collective; today, however, such assistance is provided by the public administration through free public services and financial assistance. However, the assistance provided by the state is not always sufficient or immediate, and in such cases, corporations play an essential role, either through assistance or mediation.

Corporations engage in very different forms of social action, which are conditioned by both the size of the entity and the circumstances. Among the perhaps countless number of actions, we can name the following interventions performed by corporations: paying occasional bills and invoices; obtaining services for free or at a better price through members; contributing funds or goods to social commissaries that distribute them to those who need them; distributing clothes, school supplies or toys; creating specialized foundations and centers for certain situations; creating specialized treatment centers; creating scholarships and study grants; cooperating with other agents for social purposes; helping people find employment; accompanying people who are alone; organizing summer camps for children; welcoming children from needy countries during the summer; helping convents and small religious communities to offset their external dependence or cover some of their needs, etc.

On the other hand, after interviewing the respondents and speaking with Valduérteles, who has researched the aspect of charity among these corporations, we must stress the following: beyond the numbers, money or goods that may be provided (which, at the discretion of corporations, is not fully known), there are other benefits that cannot be quantified, such as the happiness of those who feel accompanied, heard, or understood; those who feel that they have recovered lost dignity; those who are released from a debt or situation from which they see no exit; the happiness of those who have participated in a project that has served society; and the happiness of children who can maintain their childhood and enthusiasm despite their needs and illnesses.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

All datasets generated for this study are included in the article/supplementary material.

ETHICS STATEMENT

The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by Comité de Ética Universidad Loyola Andalucía. The participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

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Inside "Pandora's Box" of Solidarity: Conflicts Between Paid Staff and Volunteers in the Non-profit Sector

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Non-profit organizations (NPOs) are quite complex in terms of organizational structure, diversity at the workplace, as well as motivational mechanisms and value rationality. Nevertheless, from the perspective of organizational psychology, the systematic analysis of this context is scarce in the literature, particularly regarding conflicts. This qualitative study analyzes types, prevalence, and consequences of conflicts in a large NPO considering as theoretical framework several consolidated organizational psychology theories: conflict theory, social comparison theory, and equity theory. Conflicts were analyzed taking into account volunteers' perspective, who have been the consistent protagonist in NPO research, but also considering paid staff's perspective as one of the main stakeholders in these organizations, whose relative power has increased in the past decade due to the professionalization of the NPO's sector. Results confirmed the existence of four types of conflicts: task, process, status, and relationship conflicts. Relationship conflict is the least reported type, revealing the protection factor that values and engagement with a social aim have on this organizational context. The most relevant finding is the strong difference between paid staff and volunteers in conflict perceptions, showing paid staff, overall, higher levels of conflicts than volunteers. Findings also show stronger negative consequences for paid staff compared to volunteers. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: non-profit organizations, paid staff, volunteers, organizational conflicts, negative emotional consequences

INTRODUCTION AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The third sector in economy is used to define different kinds of organizations (e.g., non-profit organizations – NPOs – or charities) that do not fit in neither the public nor private sector (Corry, 2010). During the past decades, the third sector has acquired special relevance in areas such as employment wealth and social welfare (Cabra de Luna, 2016). Based on its ambivalence or

"hybridity" (Brandsen et al., 2005), these organizations are able to look out for social needs that neither public nor private institutions are able to fully satisfy, the former due to their difficulties to prevent and control these needs, and the latter due to their focus on profits (Corral-Lage et al., 2019). Third sector organizations not only demonstrated their resilience, showing a minor decrease on their unemployment rate during the last economic crisis (CIRIEC, 2012), but also promoted the personal well-being of those who lost their job by means of volunteering or participating in training programs (Kamerāde, 2015). This role was especially outstanding in countries that suffered a major impact during that period, such as Spain. In these countries, despite their own difficult financial situation, third sector organizations assumed a subsidiary role as opposed to the institutional role of the State, guaranteeing the social welfare and vulnerable groups' rights.

Third sector organizations are characterized not only by working toward a mission based on common values and commitment (Etzioni, 1973) but also by their institutional character, non-profit distribution, self-governing, and volunteerism (Salomon and Anheier, 1997). In the third sector, NPOs especially stand out for their diversity and heterogeneity of goals (Alcock and Kendall, 2011) as well as their organizational complexity in terms of motivational mechanisms, value rationality, and organizational structure (DiMaggio and Anheier, 1990; Will et al., 2018). Indeed, these distinctive features, together with the relevance that these organizations acquired during the last decades, turned NPOs into a growing research topic.

Among all, a main characteristic of NPOs is the coexistence of paid staff and volunteers as part of the same working teams (Corry, 2010). This NPO's distinctive trait is, at the same time, the source of mutual enrichment that contributes to achieving their social and organizational goals and a source of confrontation between these groups (Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011). One of the clearest examples of this dichotomy is the growing trend of "professionalism" in these organizations. This "professionalization," as a response to financial needs, directly clashes with volunteerism and prosocial ideals (Maier et al., 2016). Consequently, not only their social labor and effectiveness can be affected by potential conflicts but also their own job satisfaction and motivation (Netting et al., 2008). These prospective negative consequences justify further research on conflict in NPOs.

In this regard, previous literature on this topic highlights the existence of high levels of conflict between these actors in NPOs (Pearce, 1993; Netting et al., 2008; Macduff, 2012), however, the mechanisms underlying these circumstances are still unclear. Even though both stakeholders proved to be essential to maintain NPO activity, there is still a lack of awareness about how and why conflicts develop in this organizational context and which are the specific conflicts that take place between these actors. Indeed, those conflicts are not clearly defined in the non-profit research based on established conflict typologies, so their prevention and management area challenge both parties and organizations. These conflicts have been described in terms of "difficulties" between volunteers and paid staff due to their

different roles in the organization (Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011; McAllum, 2018). While the causes of these difficulties and the cognitive mechanisms involved have not been analyzed from the framework of grounded theories, their relevance and negative impact on job satisfaction have been widely confirmed (Netting et al., 2008). Overall, in light of the incidence of conflict, its consequences for individuals and organizations, and, above all, the lack of awareness about the mechanisms underlying these circumstances in NPOs, specific research on this matter is necessary and worth it.

The aim of this study is to make headway on the previous research findings analyzing conflicts in NPOs, contributing to their understanding, prevention, and management. Our research will be based on two relevant theoretical frameworks in organizational psychology: the conflict theory by Deutsch (1973) and the social comparison theory by Festinger (1954).

Deutsch (1973) explained that conflicts arise whenever incompatible activities or aspirations occur between parties, both in cooperative and competitive situations. According to this author, these situations can be triggered by (a) parties' characteristics (their values and motivations, aspirations, and objectives); (b) their prior relations (including expectations); (c) the nature of the issue rising the conflict or the social environment in which the conflicts take place; (d) their strategy managing them; and (e) conflict consequences. It has been pointed out that in NPOs, conflicts arise particularly due to unclear boundaries between the main roles in the organization (McAllum, 2018), definitively two different and changing organizational identities with different ways of doing their jobs. This complex interaction between paid staff and volunteers will lead to different types of conflicts, depending on the nature of the issues at stake.

To understand how conflict arises between these two profiles, it may be helpful to rely on the principles of the theory of social comparison (Festinger, 1954). This theory states that individuals create their perceptions and opinions by means of comparison with other social groups. Thus, paid staff and volunteers also evaluate their contributions to work, rewards, and efforts based on those of the other main group in their working context. Considering the equity theory referring to motivational mechanisms proposed by Adams (1963, 1965), if there is no perception of fairness as a result of that social comparison, this unbalance can lead to conflicts between these two groups or identities, affecting their motivation and job satisfaction. Particularly in this context, we hypothesized that paid staff would perceive more conflict than volunteers due to a perceived negative balance between their contributions to work and the rewards they obtain.

Based on these premises of organizational psychology theories, we intend to improve the understanding of conflict in NPOs, particularly between the main stakeholders of these organizations, in order to provide the needed background to prevent and manage these situations that impairs both organizational members' wellbeing and goals achievement. To do so, as specific objectives in this study, first, we will revise which types of conflicts can be found in NPOs, identified by paid staff and volunteers. Considering the actual roles of volunteers and

paid staff in NPOs as well as social and contextual challenges – such as professionalism – that this sector is facing nowadays, we will analyze four types of conflict: task conflict, process conflict, status conflict, and relationship conflict (Jehn, 1995, 1997; Jehn and Mannix, 2001; Bendersky and Hays, 2012). Second, we will explore who reports more conflicts, paid staff or volunteers, and therefore, who experience more negative consequences. In this regard, paid staff will be especially attended as, compared to volunteers, research on their perceptions on NPO dynamics and conflicts is still scarce.

Conflicts Between Paid Staff and Volunteers

As abovementioned, the relationship between the two main stakeholders (volunteers and staff) is nowadays an important topic of interest (Hwang and Suárez, 2019). To clearly understand the actual function of paid staff and volunteers as part of the same team in NPOs, Ariza-Montes et al. (2017) explain their different roles based on two criteria: professionalism and time available. Paid staff occupy responsible positions, overseeing complex activities due to their professional training, while volunteers collaborate on different tasks following a flexible schedule, based on their availability to participate and also their commitment (Ariza-Montes et al., 2015, 2017). However, paid staff's and volunteers' roles are sometimes not that easy to differentiate in NPOs. Their intricate organizational structure and the variety of tasks that they accomplish – sometimes considered incompatible activities – or their different aspirations not only make it difficult to clearly define their roles in the organization but also lead to disputes and conflicts among them (Deutsch, 1973). In fact, recent changes in the NPO sector, which imply more dependence on the external funding instead of on the NPO's partner donations, have increased the need for professionalization to survive (Eisenberg and Eschenfelder, 2009). Therefore, the technical staff role is becoming more significant in this new NPO's structure. However, despite its relevance, only some studies explored, and just in a descriptive manner, which are the conflicts that rise up in NPOs, as a consequence of paid staff's and volunteers' interaction. Indeed, it is not without a reason that Pearce (1993) described these conflicts as "one of the unpleasant secrets of non-profit organizations" (Pearce, 1993, p. 142). Further research is needed to clearly understand conflicts in NPOs.

In this regard, it is particularly remarkable how research has traditionally paid an unbalanced attention to both stakeholders: on the one hand, volunteers who usually capture the spotlight as protagonists of these organizations' values and, on the other hand, paid staff whose needs, contributions, and role in NPOs' dynamics are most of the times overlooked. As a matter of fact, recent studies deeply analyze the role of volunteers in NPOs, for instance, in terms of volunteers' involvement, considering both organizations' and the volunteers' perspectives on commitment, intention to leave, or working conditions (Nesbit et al., 2017). Also, volunteers' profiles, including their cultural and demographic correlates (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018), educational level, social resources, and volunteering

consequences have been studied on NPO research (see Wilson, 2000 for a review). Even so, specific leadership strategies have been analyzed in order to guarantee an appropriate volunteering management (Studer, 2016). Nevertheless, research on NPOs has systematically overlooked a main actor's perspective regarding NPO dynamics: paid staff's perspective.

A possible explanation for these circumstances is that volunteering is one of the key NPOs' social and human capital resources, understood as a proactive and committed behavior based on offering time freely to help others (Wilson, 2000) and providing a service to society (Farmer and Fedor, 2001). Cnaan et al. (1996) already highlighted that NPOs usually rely to a large extent on volunteers compared to paid staff. Therefore, previous studies mainly focused on the existence of volunteers, as a factor that determines both the organizational culture and identity of these organizations, where values, participation, and integration traditionally prevail over a managerial approach focused on effectiveness and efficiency (Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011).

This increasing interest resides on the importance that volunteers gained in order to maintain an optimal functioning of NPOs during difficult socioeconomic crisis periods (Baluch, 2012), particularly during financial constraints, both due to the absence of institutional support from public administration and the decrease in private donations (Salamon, 2010). Under these circumstances, NPOs were forced to recruit volunteers instead of hiring paid staff, blurring the lines between both roles. Consequently, some authors even consider that volunteers act sometimes as unpaid and low-skilled paid staff (Ganesh and McAllum, 2012). Thus, when both volunteers and paid staff evaluate their current situation in NPOs, considering the other role as a reference, it is likely that they feel their rewards are decreasing compared to the new demands imposed by the organization, particularly those related to work processes and power position (e.g., paid staff focusing on project management and volunteers assuming paperwork that keeps them far from face-to-face relationships with users) (Festinger, 1954). This comparison will contribute to the appearance of conflicts between these two stakeholders and, particularly, different types of conflict based on the issue that is raising the disagreement. Therefore, considering these NPO dynamics, paid staff's and volunteers' coexistence will contribute to the appearance of four types of conflict: process conflict, task conflict, status conflict, and relationship conflict.

These circumstances lead to the appearance of *process conflicts*, defined as disagreements about how a task should be accomplished, including issues such as who should do what and how much responsibility each member of the group should take (Jehn, 1997; Jehn and Mannix, 2001). Indeed, Mook et al. (2014) demonstrated that, on the one hand, 10.8% of volunteers reported that they replaced a paid staff member, with 3.1% of those cases permanently. On the other hand, volunteers also reported being replaced by paid staff: 7.6% reported being replaced, with 2.1% of those cases being permanently replaced.

However, during the last decade, paid staff are inevitably acquiring more prominence in NPOs due to their metamorphosis in business-like organizations, as a response to their context demands (Eisenberg and Eschenfelder, 2009; Maier et al., 2016).

Governments' policies, which nowadays rely on NPOs to provide basic social services to community (Henriksen et al., 2012), are setting proceedings to identify and finance the most effective NPOs (Salamon, 2015). This promotes the implementation of new procedures to maximize their productivity and adjust their methods to their applications' requirements (Berzin and Camarena, 2018; McAllum, 2018). These administrative procedures usually must be assumed by paid staff, as they require a constant supervision that cannot be guaranteed by volunteers, who usually have a very flexible work schedule as most of them have a remunerated job position elsewhere (Ariza-Montes et al., 2015, 2017).

This new scenario leads to the appearance of *task conflicts*, which are defined as disagreements or different opinions about the contents of a certain task (De Wit et al., 2012). The same blurred boundaries between professionalization and volunteerism that lead to process conflict also provoke task conflict. NPOs' professionalization does create discrepancies not only regarding who should accomplish each task (e.g., social assistance or administrative duties) but also concerning which task should be prioritized by the organization. Consequently, as Ganesh and McAllum (2012) explained, even volunteers are involved in administrative tasks at the expense of decreasing their time engaging with social issues due to professional restrictions.

To face their "professionalization" process, NPOs have adopted different measures as a transition method trying to maintain, to a greater or lesser extent, the rationale that would be expected from a volunteering-based organization. Thus, some NPOs transfer their direction to professionals or paid staff (e.g., Oxfam), while others maintain a traditional volunteer's leadership (e.g., Mans Units). Some NPOs, on the contrary, assign formal and informal roles to paid staff and volunteers in an attempt to maintain a balance between financial needs and values: (a) a formal and institutional leadership role, where the NPO board is composed of volunteers who are in charge of governance and leadership, and (b) the informal or managerial level, where paid staff have the responsibility for the operations and daily management of the projects, and volunteers should execute complete tasks or substantial parts of the tasks. Under these circumstances, volunteers report difficulties to manage this professionalization process due to the complexity that entails to identify how these new demands and procedures can be balanced with a volunteering ideology (Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011). However, for paid staff, this change has also a considerable impact, since their job demands increase exponentially. They must deal with several administrative duties, performance management, and bureaucracy, tasks they often consider less relevant than their social labor, hindering their job (King, 2017).

Overall, the hierarchical structure of the NPOs, combining paid staff and volunteers, as well as the complexity of their work that requires a great coordination among organization members, seems to be an appropriate scenario to elicit also the so-called *status conflict*. This type of conflict implies trying to challenge or alter the implicit or explicit established hierarchy (Bendersky and Hays, 2012). The motives and base for participating in the organization might also drive volunteers to challenge the – often formal leading – role and position of paid staff.

Also, paid staff might feel the need to reinforce their leading position to operational volunteers, while challenging the formal status of the board composed of volunteers with managerial responsibilities, who may have good intentions but not always agree with the new professionalism perspective adopted by NPOs (Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011).

Furthermore, previous research on this matter pointed out as a regular source of conflict the differences between volunteers and paid staff regarding which are their duties and responsibilities and their different criteria on how things should be done in the organization, for instance, in terms of volunteerism and professionalism clashes (Netting et al., 2008; Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011). Additionally, these disparities in criteria and even diversity among team members in the organization (e.g., in terms of backgrounds, age, and also roles) may even lead to a sense of identification in two different groups in the organization, paid staff and volunteers, that may justify a different perspective when it comes to described conflicts (Chenhall et al., 2016). This situation can also be a potential source of *relationship conflicts*, defined as the experience of personal incompatibilities or tensions that provoke feelings such as frustration or irritation (Jehn and Mannix, 2001). However, in NPOs, both volunteers and paid staff share a high commitment with their organization's social labor, mission, values, and ideals (Brown and Yoshioka, 2003; Alfes et al., 2015). This commitment and common values can act as a barrier that prevents the appearance of this last type of conflict. Indeed, as the results of the study of Benitez et al. (2018) point out, using avoidance as conflict management strategy buffers the link between relationship conflict and negative emotional consequences in teams. Likewise, paid staff and volunteers may prevent relationship conflict appearance or escalation overlooking their personal differences to guarantee their projects' success based on a common goal, that is, helping others in need. Moreover, the increasing job demands and hierarchical dynamics contribute to unbalanced paid staff's and volunteers' contributions–rewards ratio, and, as a consequence, not only they decrease their motivation but also, when they compare their situation with that of the volunteers, their perception of conflict increases, particularly for those types of conflict related with work processes (task and process conflict) and positions of power and influence (status conflict).

Therefore, considering the foregoing description of how paid staff's and volunteers' interaction and social comparison in the NPOs' actual context can lead to different types of conflict, we propose that the following:

Proposition 1: (*a*) *Conflicts in NPOs can be categorized based on the taxonomy task, relationship, process, and status conflicts and (b) more task, process, and status conflicts will exist, as opposed to relationship conflict that, although existent, will be less prominent in this context.*

The heterogeneity of NPOs' teams not only in terms of roles (paid staff and volunteers) but also in terms of background, age, or motivations can lead to disagreements regarding the content (task conflict) and who should conduct the tasks (process conflict). Given these circumstances, either paid staff or volunteers use their influence or positions to prevail or impose their perspectives or ideas as a reaction mechanism to face these

organizational changes (status conflicts). Finally, such diversity is fertile soil for personal frictions between team members (relationship conflict); however, this last type of conflict may be mitigated due to both paid staff's and volunteers' commitment with their social labor and organizational values, who focus on a common goal instead of on their personal differences.

Differences Between Paid Staff and Volunteers on Conflict Experience

As described before, previous research pointed out that the differences between volunteers and paid staff regarding which are their duties and responsibilities, as well as their different criteria on how things should be done in the organization, are regular sources of conflict (Netting et al., 2008; Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011). Indeed, as it was previously mentioned, these criteria's disparities may even lead to a sense of identification in two different groups in the organization, paid staff and volunteers, that based on the social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) and the equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) justify their different perspective when it comes to describing conflicts (Chenhall et al., 2016). Considering that the new trends in NPOs are increasing paid staff demands and responsibilities (e.g., professionalization; Maier et al., 2016), but their returns, in terms of recognition in the organization, salary, reputation, or sense of achievement, are still the same – or less – compared to volunteers, their perception of conflict and the negative effect of those perceptions on their satisfaction may be higher.

In order to evaluate how both paid staff and volunteers experience conflicts in NPOs, and therefore their consequences, context variables should also be taken into consideration. Thus, despite the large number of volunteers in these organizations (Cnaan et al., 1996), paid staff may be particularly vulnerable to experience conflicts in their teams. A main reason is that NPOs' professionalization process would require also a change of the employees' profile (Blake, 2012), encouraging an economic instead of social or vocational orientation (Piñón, 2010).

Nevertheless, paid staff profiles in NPOs are, on a normal basis, far away from these requirements, as they usually have a very prosocial background in terms of training (e.g., as health or human services professionals rather than as business professionals). However, instead of focusing their work on social intervention, paid staff have to, first, deal with volunteers who are in the board of their organization, to whom they have to report and, second, lead projects in which they depend on volunteers to do large parts of the job. In this matter, they must rely on the goodwill and commitment of these volunteers, experiencing a lack of formal power, even though they have responsibility and related authority (Medina et al., 2008).

These complex dynamics create internal conflicts between volunteers and paid staff (McAllum, 2018), being particularly detrimental for the latter, who are ultimately responsible for the technical implementation and administrative management of the different NPOs' projects. Volunteers, on their behalf, feel less pressure to maintain their collaboration with a specific NPO in case they are not satisfied or they consider that their psychological contract with the organization has been breached

or violated; since they are not bound by an employment contract, they feel free to contribute to their social causes somewhere else, leaving the organization and, therefore, avoiding negative conflict consequences to a greater extent compared to paid staff (Vantilborg, 2015). Overall, paid staff typically are "in-between," usually working (more than) full time and in coordinating positions. Given their labor contract, they are also in different ways dependent on the organization. Therefore, their final contributions–rewards balance in the actual NPO situation is negative compared to volunteers, whose rewards from their prosocial behavior usually exceed their flexible contributions to the organizations (Festinger, 1954; Adams, 1963, 1965; Penner et al., 2005).

For that reason, we propose that the following:

Proposition 2: In NPO contexts, paid staff report more conflicts (task, process, status, and relationship conflict) than volunteers and suffer also more negative consequences.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants

We examined a large and representative NPO in Spain, focusing our research on their regional division in the Community of Madrid, composed of 20 local divisions (806 paid staff members and 8,442 volunteers). Although this study focuses on a division, this is a worldwide organization that replies the same functional and hierarchical structure in every country. Therefore, our results can also be applicable to all the divisions of this NPO. Concerning its functional constitution, a strong hierarchical management structure is combined with a democratic decision-making body (the so-called "Committees") where volunteers occupy the top positions of the organization both at regional and local levels (called "Presidents"). These Committees are responsible for acting in accordance with the general objectives, policy, strategy, and criteria established by the Institution's higher bodies. However, daily activities and strategic decisions concerning their ongoing projects are made by paid staff. Finally, social projects are run in each local assembly. These projects are developed by teams composed mainly not only by volunteers but also by paid staff. On the one hand, volunteers collaborate with the organization part time with a flexible schedule, depending on their personal circumstances. Also, they have very different profiles in terms of age, professional background, experience working with users, or even seniority in the organization. On the other hand, a reduced number of paid staff are in charge of coordinating these projects, both in terms of administration and social intervention, and also supporting and guiding volunteers on their activity. Most paid staff participants are social workers and psychologists, and have experience dealing with vulnerable collectives and users in social risk.

A total of 60 participants (35 women, 25 men) belonging to different groups of stakeholders in the organization (paid staff and volunteers), working at the headquarters of the NPO in the Comunidad de Madrid and at each local assembly (a total of 10 local assemblies), were part of the collecting data process: 36 paid staff (13 women, 23 men)

and 24 volunteers – regular volunteers (8 women, 8 men) and volunteers with management responsibilities, the so-called Presidents (4 women, 4 men). Regarding their educational background, paid staff are university graduates, most of them on health and social sciences. Volunteers report a wide variety of educational background (graduates, professional training, secondary and primary education) and occupations (for example, managers, civil servants, housekeepers, or retired professionals). Regarding participants' age, on the one hand, paid staff are between 35 and 47 years old and, on the other hand, volunteers are between 19 and 73 years old, which is representative of the diversity in this organization, particularly among volunteers.

Procedure

Data were collected in two shifts between December 2016 and February 2017 to minimize possible disruptions of the organization's activities. Qualitative methodology based on focus group was used for several reasons: first, because of the aim of exploring the existent conflicts in non-profit organizational context; second, the heterogeneity of NPO's activities and projects created doubts concerning the appropriateness of a quantitative analysis; and third, because there was the opportunity of collecting data from the reduced number of volunteers with leaderships responsibilities, which could explain the internal conflict dynamics in depth. A total of seven homogeneous focus-group discussions were organized based on the main groups of stakeholders: four groups of paid staff (from the headquarters and local assemblies), two groups of volunteers, and a group of volunteers with leadership responsibilities (Presidents). Each group was formed by 8–10 key informants who were willing to share their knowledge, experiences, and thoughts regarding conflicts in the organization (Kumar et al., 1993). Participants were invited by e-mail and voluntarily agreed to join the activity that finally took place at the headquarters of the organization. Regarding participant selection, participants were recruited based on the projects ongoing during the data collection (for volunteers and paid staff). Also, paid staff occupying coordinating roles (headquarters) and Presidents (volunteers) were all invited to participate.

During the focus-group discussions, participants described different conflict situations they experienced in their daily work, as well as how they handled them. These discussions were organized following a previously designed semistructured interview, including the following guide questions: (a) presentation of the participants and their role in the organization; (b) organizational structure and work procedures; (c) experience of conflicts in the organization; (d) conflict management strategies; and (e) conflict consequences. Sessions lasted between 60 and 90 min. Confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed. Afterward, participants gave their consent, and sessions were recorded in audio and transcribed verbatim.

Transcripts were analyzed using the software for coding qualitative data Atlas.ti 7 (Friese, 2013). Following a template analysis approach (King, 2004), a list of codes was defined based on the main themes identified on the focus groups' transcripts (see **Table A1**). Some of these codes were defined *a priori*, based on the themes included in the semistructured interview scripts. However, *a posteriori* codes were added while reading and interpreting the texts to complete an exhaustive analysis (King, 2004). To ensure coding reliability, all the authors codified the first transcript separately and then compared their results to standardization purposes. Based on that comparison, codes that differed across these preliminary results were deleted for further analysis, which were carried out by the first author. A total of 93 codes regarding existing conflicts and its consequences were obtained (see **Table A1** for the coding list). These codes were grouped in 37 families of codes for reporting purposes.

RESULTS

Focus-group discussions were highly participative, and results were consistent across the different groups of stakeholders. Most conflicts reported were related to the cooperation between paid staff and volunteers. Among volunteers, those with leadership responsibilities – presidents – reported more conflicts with paid staff than volunteers who collaborate in projects attending users, but also related to role conflict and organizational complexity. Fewer conflicts were reported among paid staff (including hierarchical conflict) or among volunteers. There is an exception for paid staff in a coordinating role (headquarters), which regularly creates communication problems, and who are sometimes considered outsiders by paid staff working at local assemblies due to their focus on administrative issues. Regarding the analysis of the different types of conflicts, the expected four conflicts were reported by paid staff and volunteers: task, process, status, and relationship conflict.

As it was expected in Proposition 1a, task, process, status, and relationship conflicts are identified in non-profit organizational context. Also, as it was proposed in this study (Proposition 1b), relationship conflicts are less reported by both groups of stakeholders. **Table 1** presents examples of such conflicts, from both perspectives: paid staff and volunteers. Proposition 2 is also confirmed since, as it was abovementioned, paid staff report more conflicts (task, process, status, and relationship conflicts) than volunteers, identifying also more negative consequences.

As **Table 1** shows, both paid staff and volunteers report all types of conflict; however, these are not precisely about the same issues. It is also important to note though that, depending on the hierarchical and functional position, participants' reasoning about the conflict issues differs. That is the case for volunteers and paid staff, whose perspectives are occasionally even opposite.

Task Conflict
Project Coordination Complexity, Task Diversity, Deadlines, Task Prioritization, and Quality of Attention
Paid staff
"This is a complex organization, we are lot of people, we manage a lot of things and, above all, everyone looks for immediacy" (R.A., Paid Staff, headquarters). Participants highlight the NPO's

TABLE 1 | Examples of task, process, status, and relationship conflicts described by paid staff and volunteers.

Role in organization	Volunteers	Paid staff
Conflicts mentioned		
Task	"Projects are conditioned by application deadlines, subsidies, budget estimation… if this workload is not assumed by a previously established structure, administrative duties surpass taking care of our users." (S.A., President, Volunteer)	"Goals and how we are supposed to achieved them change along the year, then, it is impossible… that generates conflict among both paid staff and volunteers. (S.U., Paid Staff)
Process	Responsibilities are passing to technical directions (paid staff). And I think that it takes away our prominence, because at the end of the day we forget that this is an entity formed by volunteers (S.A., President, Volunteer)	"I think that sometimes conflicts between departments… are provoked by the intricate procedures we have to follow…" (V.E., Paid staff)
Status	"What is government and what is administration? I think that everything is government (…) In my opinion, recently, less importance is given to government council (volunteers) work and more importance to paid staff work" (B.E., President, Volunteer)	"So many times, the government council (volunteers) made decisions without considering paid staff's perspective or even asking for our opinion or advice… Then, after several months, they conclude the same as we do only in three days working on social intervention." (A.L., Paid staff)
Relationship	"I have close friends in (the organization). However, some people may be your friend, and some people may be not. Those tell me, "You (as volunteer) are here stealing a job position…" (S.E., Volunteer)	"They've got this idea of being a volunteer… suddenly they send emails, very annoyed because they are not treated well in the organization, and it was just a misunderstanding… (B.L., Paid staff)

complexity, in terms of internal structure, different collectives working together, and task diversity. Besides their work as social workers or psychologists, paid staff are responsible for administrative tasks (e.g., project justification) to obtain the financial support. This is a very demanding and time-consuming task; procedures are constantly changing, and they feel overwhelmed by deadlines. They are requested to register quantitative information using changeable and complex software programs, which even duplicate processes: *"We live under pressure: this data must be in the Economic Department right now. And I have 50 users here that I must attend"* (M.U., Paid Staff).

In this regard, paid staff and volunteers dissent from the headquarters' management regarding the prioritization of issues. From the headquarters, project justification is highlighted as a priority to maintain the financial support needed to carry out their social labor; however, paid staff, in the same line as volunteers, would like to focus on social intervention, preventing a decrease on the quality of the attention they provide to users.

Volunteers
These conflicts, specially working toward a deadline and the project's coordination, are reported also by volunteers, particularly by Presidents, who also deal with administrative and coordination duties. They are aware of task diversity and the importance given by the regional office to project justification, but they are also concerned about the quality of users' attention sharing the same perception as local paid staff; attending users should be their priority.

"The problem is that there is a lot of work that is being devoted by social workers to fulfill administrative tasks instead of being focused on social intervention" (S.A., President, Volunteer).

Lack of Personnel and Resources
Paid staff
"If these are the resources, we have to work in a different way to achieve everything that is asked from us, we have to increase our own resources" (A.R., Paid Staff). Paid staff pointed out that they

must be in charge of several activities during their work day due to the organization's lack of personnel and economic resources, *"if we plan an activity, and we are supposed to be seven, but then we are three, or less, and someone gets sick… that is our daily routine"* (I.M., Paid Staff).

They are also worried about how would volunteers cope with difficult and emotional situations with users; due to their lack of training or previous experience, it is more likely that they made wrong decisions allocating resources among users:

"A volunteer, who is the sixth time that he or she faces that situation, obviously stands up for users because he or she feels closer to them than us… delivering an emergency aid and then the organization gives forty euros that was meant to be for food" (E.L., Paid staff).

Volunteers
"You can have 21 paid staff employees in a project team today, none in 3 months and then 20 different employees" (S.A., President, volunteer). Presidents described how they usually invested time and effort creating well-coordinated teams as well as training paid staff in specific issues of the project. However, due to the lack of personnel also at the regional level of the organization, well-trained paid staff employees are transferred to the regional assembly. Therefore, local teams must start again bringing together a new team:

"We have invested a lot of work creating teams, and, when that employee is already trained, he or she is transferred to a different local or regional assembly" (A.E., President, Volunteer).

Lack of Communication and Commitment
Paid staff
"I've lived many situations, and nothing has been finally achieved… there is a lack of commitment, maybe from both sides, but above all, from management itself" (I.M., Paid Staff).

Due to communication deficiencies and the perception of inactivity of the regional assembly, distrust is a main source of

conflict. Paid staff and volunteers distrust regional assembly's management capacity and do not agree with the communication policies, not only regarding internal issues but also about how information is made public (e.g., malicious rumors about their charity activities not refuted).

Overall, the head office is not consistently implementing new procedures or activities to promote well-being and job satisfaction among paid staff and volunteers, and it is usually unapproachable to transfer problems' information. This situation increases distrust and emotional discomfort among the members of the organization as well as an overall lack of credibility of regional management. The head office is aware of this problem, however, managers there blame the organization's multitasking method: paid staff are working on different projects simultaneously, receiving instructions and requirements from different supervisors who set their own priorities, and there is no communication between them.

Volunteers

Since volunteers especially identify themselves with the organization's goals and values, they feel personally attacked when it is criticized, or it suffers any discredit accusation not being refuted by the headquarters. "It is essential that higher hierarchical levels transmit the values of this organization, especially when its public image is attacked" (F.E., Volunteer).

Volunteers also consider that additional conflicts (such as paid staff transferring among assemblies) influence paid staff commitment, both with their tasks and with the organization. Therefore, sometimes it is extremely hard to find someone that may help them out when there is a problem, or they need advice.

"If managers are constantly changing, we all wait for someone else to take charge on things, so they never get done... Here nobody takes the phone. There is a great lack of communication" (S.E., Volunteer).

Process Conflict
Undefined Tasks
Paid staff

"*Undefined tasks generate daily conflicts among teams*" (J.E. Paid Staff, headquarters)

Paid staff must adopt a multitasking approach to cope with the highly diverse task flow. Furthermore, both volunteers and paid staff report that the lack of personnel stands in the way of efficiency. Thus, volunteers are required to support paid staff to offer an appropriate attention to users and meet financial justification requirements, "*many times we asked volunteers to help us to finish administrative duties instead of what they would like to do, that is helping users*" (C.R., Paid Staff).

Volunteers

Volunteers, on the contrary, consider that their role should be mainly to attend users, while paid staff, who receive economic retribution and are responsible for the NPO's activity, should also accomplish administrative tasks.

"*Volunteering moves the organization. I have noticed in a way, the idea that volunteers work or have to do paperwork,*

making paid staff's lives easier and it should be just the opposite" (Y.O., Volunteer).

Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity
Paid Staff

"*There is A Problem, Which is Caused By... Economic Crisis. Less Money Means Less Paid Staff, So We Recruit Volunteers*" (E.L., Paid Staff). Due to the recent economic crisis, NPOs' hiring capacity decreased dramatically. Therefore, volunteers' activity has supported the organization more than never.

Paid staff consider volunteers' contributions essential, however, they are also worried about their job positions; considering the voluntary character of the organization, their perceived role ambiguity, and the lack of economic resources, they are concerned about being replaced by "unpaid" volunteers. Furthermore, they are concerned about how volunteers may cope with users' problems, without specific training, since it is a high emotional and demanding work that should be managed carefully.

Volunteers

"There are people who do not want volunteers; because in the end we let ourselves be handled by users... We distort their work a lot, they do not see us as a help" (P.A., Volunteer).

Although they understand paid staff's reservations, overall, volunteers consider that they are very capable of attending users. Indeed, they demand more responsibilities on this matter, since volunteering is one of the main pillars of the institution's ideology. Moreover, volunteers argue that users may perceived that paid staff members are acting as professionals instead of just providing social support, so they can establish a closer relationship with them. "*As volunteers, we want our role to be more interactive with users because I think that they may be more comfortable talking to us, than with someone with more authority*" (A.R., Volunteer).

Although volunteers' and paid staff's opinions differed regarding their role with users, both demand specific training. Each project has specific characteristics that require different competences, which are usually not covered during their initial training.

Status Conflicts
Hierarchical Structure and Leadership Based on Power
Paid staff

"Ours is a top-heavy hierarchical structure" (O.L., Paid Staff). The very structured and vertical hierarchy hinders both decision-making processes and communication. Paid staff explain that leadership is usually based on power, and decisions made at higher hierarchical levels must be obeyed even when that entails changes in the normal functioning of the organization: "*Instructions are passed by from the higher levels of the hierarchical structure and it is not egalitarian under any circumstances... the basis of this type of leadership is fear*" (O.L., Paid Staff).

Volunteers

Overall, local volunteers do not perceive that the prevailing leadership based in the organization is based on power. However, presidents report conflicts related to the very hierarchical structure of the organization that prevent top levels of knowing the local assemblies' reality.

"Those at the top do not share the same vision. They must be aware that the national, regional and local structure are different, because unlike them that usually work with paid staff, I'm working mostly with volunteers" (C.M., Volunteer, President).

Distrust on Head Office Management

Paid staff

Paid staff consider that they can provide first-hand information about intervention and users' needs, so they should contribute to decision-making processes in a more active way. In fact, not being able to do so is very stressful and even frustrating: *"When 'higher' levels plan everything, no one asks us, so we have the feeling that we are just services' vending machines" (O.L., Paid staff).*

Overall, strategic decisions are made by head office's personnel, who are usually not aware of each local assembly's particularities. Due to the lack of communication between hierarchical levels, relevant information to plan interventions and distribute resources is missing. Thus, when there is a problem inside the organization or even situations that need to be promptly sorted, it is not easy to find out who should make the decisions to solve it.

Nevertheless, regional staff managers consider that sometimes, participation in decision-making processes is taken for granted. It is seen as a right instead of as a deference or positive characteristic whose aim is to create a democratic work environment where everybody can contribute: *"In this organization we have made participation and consensus something that instead of being a positive attribute, ends up becoming a requirement: if I do not participate and I make decisions I do not get involved" (B.L., Paid staff, headquarters).*

Volunteers

Volunteers who are part of the government body (Presidents) claim that, according to their role expectations in a volunteering organization, they should be able to participate in strategic decisions in their local assemblies. Instead, they receive instructions from regional paid staff, who only gather information about social intervention from paid staff or during periodical meetings:

"As local president, I make non-important decisions on a daily basis, because the guidelines, relevant decisions, rules, and objectives are determined by the Head Office (run by paid staff)" (I.D., President, Volunteer).

Performance Evaluation, Poor Feedback, and Ways to Transmit Problems

Paid staff

Paid staff consider that the organization is reorienting their performance evaluation, basing it on quantitative parameters instead of qualitative ones: *"I think that sometimes our supervisors' value more how do we organize administrative tasks instead of*

what really is our aim here and why we studied our degree, social intervention, and working with users" (M.O, Paid staff).

Additionally, they point out that they do not receive enough feedback during the evaluation process, and they are not able to give feedback to their supervisors. Although the evaluation procedure was supposed to be a 360° evaluation, it is vertical and top–down. Therefore, problems are not solved since the responsible person is not even aware of them.

"It is a pity, because the idea of being evaluated... is interesting... a way of improvement..., but if there is a two-way flow communication" (E.M., Paid staff).

Volunteers

"We are not evaluated, they just say you are it doing wrong" (A.L., Volunteer, President). Both paid staff and presidents (volunteers) explain that not only it is difficult to transmit their concerns to higher hierarchical levels, but also they claim for their constructive feedback. Based on the performance evaluation procedures, they consider that only their mistakes are highlighted without having the chance to discuss which problems or difficulties they have.

Power Imbalance

Paid staff

Paid staff explain that volunteers are more powerful since they are protected by the organizational vision (voluntary organization), values, and even policies. Thus, paid staff perceive their contract as a bond that entails not only obligations but also detrimental consequences in terms of power imbalanced compared to volunteers; they can leave the organization whenever they want or issue a complaint against paid staff without assuming any occupational risk. Overall, they considered that, when there is a conflict situation, volunteers' rights may act against paid staff's rights:

"When a volunteer confronts you or questions your work, many times you do not have capacity to confront him. Because they have nothing to lose" (P.A., Paid Staff).

Volunteer

On the contrary, volunteers consider that, because they are employees, paid staff must cope with certain tasks, but they are also supported by HR and they can demand changes by means of their labor contract. In return, they consider that paid staff are responsible for keeping the organization functioning smoothly:

"They are the ones who have the power, that are remunerated, and they always know what their job is... each of us have our status. I am here to offer my time, and my help. If the situation does not convince me, I leave... In return, you can call HR department saying I want to be in a different project, I do not feel good where I am" (P.A., Volunteer).

Paid Staff Transferring

Paid staff

"As an organization, we have not got a clear procedure to follow in certain conflicts; therefore, it is solved by transferring the people involved to a different project team" (I.S., Paid Staff). Paid staff transferring is not only used as a strategy to relieve the lack

of personnel; paid staff consider it as also used as an avoiding conflict management strategy. The organization transfers those members involved in team conflicts to another assembly, instead of trying to find a solution that could prevent its reoccurrence. Consequently, on occasion, those teams receiving staff transfers decrease their performance and motivation, since new members do not fit with the group or they create new problems, so conflicts spread out to different teams: *"There are people who work great, who are super motivated, and you can see that, because of a transfer, that person is decreasing his or her motivation, and passing on that demotivation to the team" (J.E., Paid staff).*

Paid staff reported an additional problem related to personnel transferring; when they truly want to leave a certain team, they do not receive any answer to their petition from management. Therefore, they feel that the organization does not look after their needs and does not listen to their requests; *"there are workers who are caught up in their positions, we are not transfer anywhere else even if we ask for it (I.S., Paid staff).*

Although this problem is also detected at the regional level, conflict escalation seems to increase their difficulties to find a straightforward solution and they solve it by moving those employees involved:

"Sometimes if it would had been detected before or if it would had been discussed, I think it could have been solved, could it? Now there is a situation of tension, of labor conflict, because people had to be transferred, because now they are afraid" (R.A., Paid Staff, headquarters).

Volunteers

Volunteers perceived that these transfers affect paid staff's commitment with the organization and the task they oversee. Although the number of volunteers may buffer the negative effect of their changeable situation, that is not the case of paid staff who are employed by the organization and should fulfill certain duties. Volunteers explain that their personal and professional circumstances affect how much time they can spend collaborating with the NPO; *"our strength is that there is a lot of volunteering, and our weakness is that, finally, volunteers, no matter how much committed they are, have obligations outside the organization, with its ups and downs" (Y.O., Volunteer).*

Relationship Conflict
Personal Disagreements and Unresolved Personal Issues
Paid staff

"We are like a big family; we do not always get along with each other and we usually do not agree with the inheritance" (M.T., Paid staff). Paid staff explained that volunteers' personal characteristics usually lead to conflict in their teams. Since there are no selection procedures in the organization to either accept or assign volunteers to projects, only their personal preferences, sometimes they do not fit with the team or they try to impose their own way of doing things. Under these circumstances, paid staff explain that, due to their volunteer status, they manage these misunderstandings reporting their complaints to the highest hierarchical levels, denouncing that they are not feeling well treated by paid staff. This behavior is considered by paid staff as

a lack of respect and recognition of their work, even generating resentment among team members.

"Volunteers have their own ideas and some of them try to impose them...there are troublesome volunteers, very difficult ones, or those whose their personal characteristics just do not fit in the project or local assembly and if we do not change our way of doing our work based on their ideas they create problems in the team" (A.R., Paid staff).

Volunteers
"Do not tell me what I have to do, if you are burnt out do not pass your frustration on me" (S.E., Volunteers). Volunteers explain that paid staff sometimes see them as a threat, someone that can replace them for free supported by the organization's values, as it was previously mentioned. These circumstances not only lead to role conflict and role ambiguity but also create personal incompatibilities between them.

"I have close friends in (the organization). However, some people may be your friend, and some people may be not. Those tell me, 'You (as volunteer) are here stealing a job position...'" (S.E., Volunteer).

Consequences of Conflicts
Frustration and Anxiety
Paid staff

"Some people are so frustrated" (I.S., Paid staff). Paid staff report a frustration feeling stemmed from work overload, for example, due to the slow pace of administrative duties and the lack of trust in regional decision-making processes. They are not able to transmit their concerns or doubts to higher hierarchical levels due to the lack of direct communication channels; therefore, they are very insecure if they have to act without consulting with their supervisors what should be done, which occurs quite often due to the urgency of their activity with users: *"I think that HR department usually do not know what their own employees do and the difficult situations they have to deal with" (I.S., Paid staff).*

Volunteers
Volunteers explain that, in some way, paid staff transfer their anxiety and stress to volunteers in an unconscious manner. Since they feel pressured by their working conditions and the obligatory nature of their tasks, they discharge their frustration on volunteers, increasing their demands instead of supporting them:

"I understand that a person has to channel those problems or manage them somehow, but it overloads and stress out volunteers, that is the reason why some people decide to leave this organization and go to a different entity" (Y.O., Volunteer).

Insecurity to Act Without Consulting, Fear of Reprisals, Lack of Motivation, and Emotional Exhaustion
Paid staff
Besides suffering long-term frustration and anxiety, paid staff feel vulnerable and not supported or protected by the organization, even afraid of suffering reprisals if they make a mistake: *"our stress level is quite high since we are constantly trying to transmit our*

problems and concerns but that they have not listened to us for a long time" (O.L., Paid staff).

Therefore, teams' motivation, organizational commitment, and satisfaction with their activity decrease, and overall team emotional exhaustion takes place: *"if they do not watch over you, how are you going to look after those you are supposed to be taking care of?"(I.S., Paid staff).*

"Volunteers are lost, paid staff have a different nuance" (E.V., Paid staff). Due to their different position in the organization, paid staff's and volunteers' responses to this lack of job satisfaction are quite different. Paid staff generally try to cope with the situation during extended periods of time in order to keep their job position, which leads to a transferring request or even absenteeism.

"Losing volunteers and losing workers, because workers do not get lost because they leave the organization. In my previous position, I lost motivation and, therefore, I was less useful. . .they lost me as a worker" (D.A., Paid staff).

Volunteers

When volunteers are not satisfied with their activity in the organization, they do not perceive an obligation to stay there under unpleasant circumstances. Due to their commitment values and motivation to help, they try to carry on asking also for a new project to collaborate with, but if their situation does not change, they just leave the organization.

"I am here to offer my time and my help, if the situation doesn't convince me, I leave" (P.A., Volunteer).

Additionally, as stated in Proposition 2, we also analyzed who report more conflict and who will suffer more negative consequences derived from this experience of conflict. In this regard, as **Figure 1** shows, results support this proposition; overall, paid staff experience more conflicts (considering the fourth types analyzed) and, as expected, report suffering more negative consequences due to this conflict experience. In NPOs' contexts, paid staff report more conflicts (task, process, status, and relationship conflicts) than volunteers, suffering also more negative consequences.

Power imbalance together with role conflict, role ambiguity, and intention to leave are the most reported conflict issues among volunteers. However, paid staff are more concerned about administrative duties and multitasking methodology, although they also report role conflict and role ambiguity as a main cause of conflict, since they would expect their job to be based on their academic and professional background instead of being related to administrative tasks. Compared to volunteers, paid staff reported higher levels of fear of reprisals and insecurity to act without consulting.

Among paid staff, those working with volunteers as part of same teams at local assemblies are the groups reporting more conflicts, particularly related to role conflict. Among volunteers, presidents, due to their managerial role, report more conflicts that local volunteers. Indeed, presidents report similar levels of role conflict and distrust on the headquarters to paid staff, illustrating the effects of the intricate power dynamics and hierarchical complexity in the organization.

Based on these results, our two propositions are supported. Paid staff and volunteers differed on their perceptions of these types of conflicts, their prevalence, and causes: paid staff not only perceive more conflicts but also report more negative consequences. **Table 2** shows a summary of the main specific conflict issues and consequences reported by our participants.

DISCUSSION

The main objective of this study was to progress on the previous research findings analyzing conflicts in NPOs, considering as theoretical framework several consolidated organizational psychology theories: on the one hand, the conflict theory (Deutsch, 1973) to analyze how conflicts arise in this context, and, on the other hand, the social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) and the equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) to analyze the differences between paid staff's and volunteers' perceptions regarding these conflicts, as well as their consequences.

This study demonstrates that, in order to understand NPO conflicts, we need an extended conflict taxonomy: task, relationship, process, and status conflict. The well-known taxonomy of organizational conflicts that differentiate between task, relationship, and process conflict (Jehn, 1995) is insufficient to understand the conflict nature in NPOs. Our results also highlight the importance of how these conflicts develop in NPOs and which situations or issues trigger their appearance, providing the opportunity to not only manage but also prevent conflict situations in this organizational context by means of understanding the phenomenon and how it is developed. This is particularly relevant considering NPO particularities such as work organization, role dynamics, and contributions–rewards balance between paid staff and volunteers, which make the difference and create the perfect "breeding ground" to conflicts.

For NPOs, maintaining and protecting their reputation and donors' trust is essential in order to guarantee, to a greater extent, their projects' survival (Müller-Stewens et al., 2019); therefore, internal conflicts are concealed. However, there are two main factors that are increasing research interest in this issue and therefore evincing the problem. First, volunteers are essential to NPOs' labor; otherwise, they would not be able to reach their organizational goals only by means of employees (Englert and Helmig, 2018) and, by extension, governments that rely on these organizations to attend social issues (Henriksen et al., 2012). The second factor is the professionalization of NPOs and the implementation of managerial practices to guarantee their efficiency, which usually clashes with their volunteering values (Ganesh and McAllum, 2012). In this regard, our results analyzing these two stakeholders' perspective are indeed consistent with their previous studies analyzing paid staff's and volunteers' interaction as a trigger of conflict in NPOs (Macduff, 2012; Rimes et al., 2017). However, our study goes a step further identifying and labeling the existing types of conflicts provoked by these dynamics and these organizations' characteristics and, therefore, facilitating that actions to prevent or manage them are promoted in NPOs.
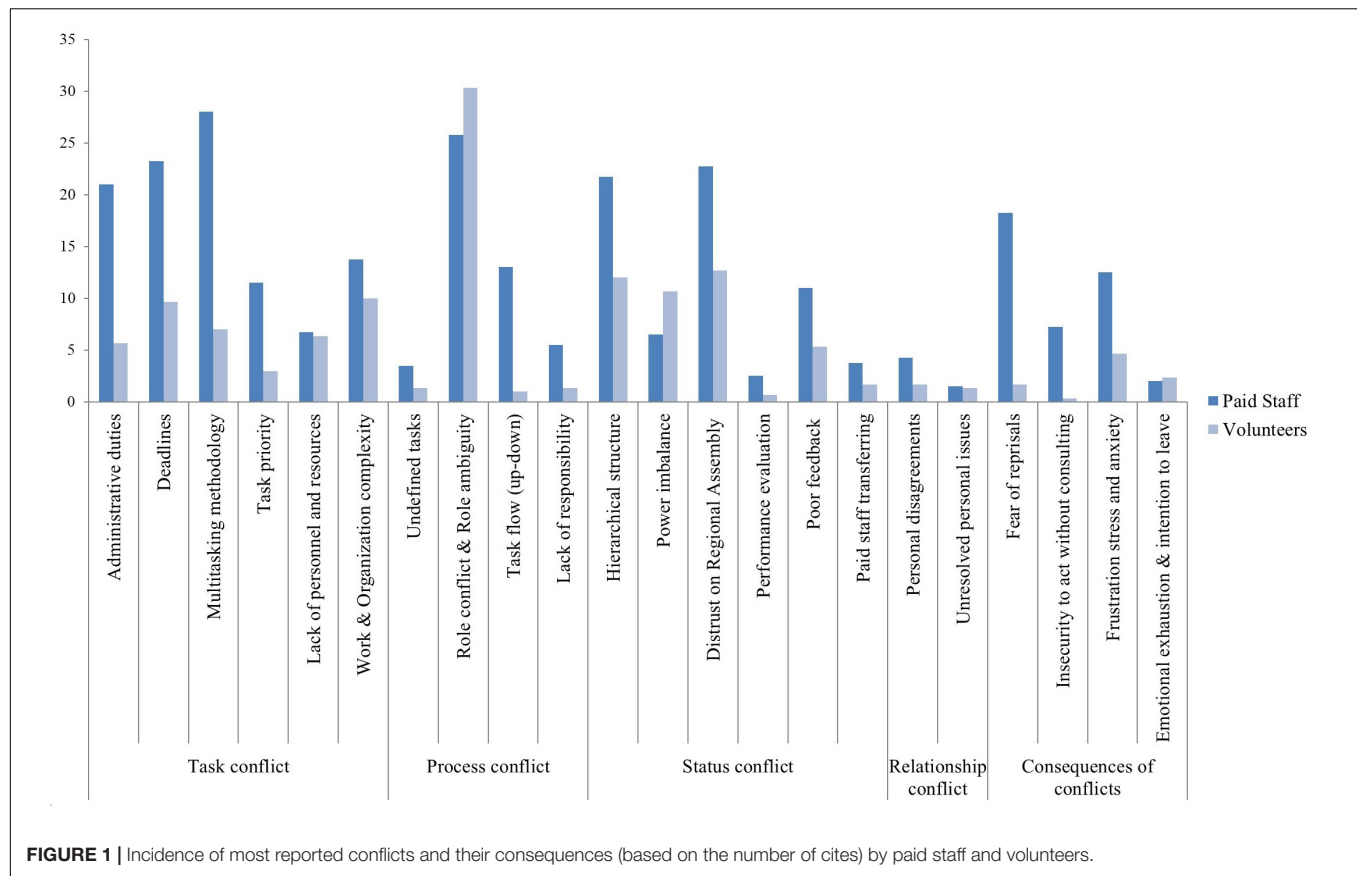
FIGURE 1 | Incidence of most reported conflicts and their consequences (based on the number of cites) by paid staff and volunteers.

TABLE 2 | Conflicts detected in NPOs considering traditional conflict taxonomies and their reported negative consequences.

Types of conflicts				Negative consequences of conflicts
Task conflict	**Process conflict**	**Status conflict**	**Relationship conflict**	
Deadlines	Assumption of responsibilities	Paid staff transferring	Personal disagreements	Frustration/anxiety
Quality of attention	Actual and expected functions	Evaluation differences	Unresolved personal issues:	Lack of motivation
Administrative duties	of paid staff and volunteers	Performance evaluation	– Lack of respect	Insecurity to act without
Task prioritization	(Role conflict)	Poor feedback/ways to transmit	– Lack of recognition	consulting
Multitasking methodology	Role ambiguity	problems	– Resentment	Fear of reprisals
Project coordination's	Undefined tasks	Power imbalance		Absenteeism
complexity	Task flow (up-down)	Regional assembly's inactivity		Emotional
Lack of personnel/resources	Lack of responsibility	Distrust on regional assembly's		exhaustion/intention to
Commitment	Differences between	decision-making processes		leave
Work complexity	assemblies	Regional assembly's competences and		
Lack of communication		knowledge about local assemblies		
		Leadership based on power		
		Hierarchical structure		
		Local decisions made at regional level		

In this regard, work overload and work dynamics, including resources investments, are promoting both task and process conflicts. The implementation of business-like policies (Maier et al., 2016) as part of a "professionalism" or "managerialism" trend in NPOs (Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011; McAllum, 2018) is increasing not only task conflicts due to the implementation of multitasking methods but also administrative duties and deadlines. The lack of personnel and resources as well as

communication deficiencies make this situation worse. Process conflicts are mainly provoked by both paid staff's and volunteers' role ambiguity and role conflict who are not sure of their exact role in the organization and even feel they are fulfilling the duties of two different positions. Work dynamics and shortage of resources together with decision-making processes lead to status conflicts in NPOs. The very hierarchical structure in this organization prevents feedback between different levels

and promotes power imbalance perceptions, uncertainty, and distrust not only between paid staff and volunteers but also between different hierarchical levels. However, although it is reported by both stakeholders, among these four types of conflicts, relationship conflict is the least reported conflict by both volunteers and paid staff. This result is remarkable since it highlights that, although our results also coincide with previous studies regarding volunteers and paid staff identity differences (Kreutzer and Jäger, 2011) that may create personal incompatibilities, in NPOs, the importance of values and engagement with the social aim of the organization can be considered a protective factor against conflicts' negative consequences, especially for volunteers. An interesting future line of research is the analysis of how the type of job protects employees to the appearance of relationship conflicts. Data in this study suggest that working on social issues with vulnerable people (refugees, children, human trafficking, etc.) protects employees from negative relationship conflict since they give priority to their common goals instead of to their personal incompatibilities. Therefore, reflecting on the equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965), for relationship conflict, the contributions–rewards balance is closer to equilibrium than for those conflicts related to work processes and power position in the organization. This effect is also demonstrated by the fact that both groups report low levels of turnover intention, despite the high rates of conflict reported, especially for paid staff.

Likewise, regarding the identities' differences and the social comparison between volunteers and paid staff, both stakeholders demand, to a certain extent, leading the organization: volunteers based on organizational values and position, and paid staff based on their expertise (Munduate and Medina, 2017). This also relates to motivation and expectations; when managerial structures are introduced in this kind of organization, particularly volunteers report that administrative duties are not their aim or even responsibility, as a natural reaction to maintaining their great positive balance between their contributions and the emotional rewards obtained from volunteering.

Overall, results show that paid staff report more conflicts than volunteers. Indeed, based on the number of reported conflicts, it can be concluded that paid staff are absorbed in a loss conflict spiral, starting with workload and administrative duties, getting worse with discrepancies regarding decision-making process and ending with fear of reappraisal and anxiety, even considering their employment contract as a disadvantage, which forces them to stay in the organization. Paid staff report the greatest number of conflicts for all types of conflicts, but especially for multitasking methodology and administrative duties and role conflict. These results highlight the importance of considering paid staff perspective when analyzing conflicts in NPOs.

Paid staff indeed experience more conflicts than volunteers. Even so, previous research has traditionally put a spotlight on volunteers, overshadowing both their needs in their working context and the consequences of leaving them out. Volunteers, on the contrary, who are free to leave the organization, decide to stay because their social contribution is more important for them than those conflict situations they may experience in the organization. An exception in this group are Presidents,

volunteers with managerial responsibilities, who identify more conflicts than local volunteers and even similar or more conflicts than paid staff, on certain issues. This difference can be explained by the nature of their job that implies fundamentally different power positions toward paid staff; Presidents consider that paid staff with management duties at the headquarters are the ones who really plan all the lines of action without involving them on their decisions, and simultaneously, they deal with volunteers' coordination.

These results also reflect the effects of the intricate role dynamics that prevails in many NPOs, and the consequences of professionalization, not only for volunteers, who report higher levels of role ambiguity (process conflict) due to this transition, but also paid staff, since they have to deal with the administrative processes. In this regard, considering the organization's voluntary character, Presidents, who are volunteers with management responsibilities, feel that their managing role is being taken away by paid staff. Moreover, paid staff do not agree on focusing on administrative tasks instead of attending users, since they consider it as not congruent with their formal training.

Therefore, regarding the consequences of conflict, findings suggest that paid staff suffer more negative consequences than volunteers, mainly frustration, stress, and anxiety, whereas emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions are low. As it was abovementioned, it is interesting to remark the low level and intensity of the relational conflicts perceived both by the paid staff and the volunteers. The negative consequences that this type of conflict has for the organizations and those who suffer from it are well known (Medina et al., 2005). Thus, this may explain the low levels of emotional exhaustion and turnover intention for both groups, paid staff and volunteers (Benitez et al., 2011). It is also relevant how this NPO's prosocial work seems to protect workers from relationship conflict and their negative consequences, such as the desire to leave the organization or emotional exhaustion.

Practical Implications

Our results suggest several practical implications. First, organizations where paid staff and volunteers work together, such NPOs, should be aware of the existence of task, process, relationship, and status conflicts in their context and particularly between these two main stakeholders. Second, these conflicts are embedded in the organization's procedures and characteristics; the structure, work nature, and even the understanding of organizational values promote them. Therefore, using our results as a checklist, supervisors and team leaders can identify and therefore manage adequately or even prevent these conflicts. Third, it is important for HR departments to focus in the situation of paid staff, who deserve special attention. Although the focus has been traditionally put on volunteers, based on our results, paid staff perceive more conflicts and have a more negative situation in organizations. Thus, as a general advice, paid staff in NPOs should be paid not only a salary but also attention and care from their organization.

Potential Limitations and Future Studies

This study has some limitations that must be considered in order to generalize the obtained results. This study was conducted

in an only NPO branch, so future studies should replicate the analysis in different NPOs to confirm that our conclusions are applicable to different organizations. Nevertheless, as a positive aspect of our participant NPO, this is a worldwide organization that replies the same functional and hierarchical structure in every country, so these results can potentially be generalized to all these divisions around the world. Moreover, despite the possible differences among NPOs, our results are consistent with previous studies. Furthermore, qualitative data limit the explanatory potential of the study and the number of participants involved in the research. However, they also provided the opportunity to understand and explore the complexity of NPOs and the existing conflict dynamics in this singular work environment. Future studies should analyze conflicts in these organizations using also quantitative approaches that make possible to conduct a deeper analysis of conflict situations and those variables influencing them.

CONCLUSION

This study constitutes a remarkable contribution to NPOs' knowledge from a theoretical and practical perspective. From a theoretical view, this study not only analyzes specific types of conflict in NPOs (task, process, status, and relationship conflict) but also considers doing so from paid staff's and volunteers' different perspectives. Additionally, it is built up on three consolidated theories: the conflict theory (Deutsch, 1973), the social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), and the equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965). From a practical perspective, some general recommendations to NPOs can be extracted from our results. First, explicitly identifying conflicts in these organizations helps parties to manage them; however, training is crucial, particularly for those who have management responsibilities, usually paid staff. NPOs' leaders can prevent or minimize these conflicts and their consequences by introducing some routines in the organization, such as monitoring paid staff's and volunteers' relationship, combining qualitative and quantitative data. Second, it must be taken into consideration the organizational changes that NPOs are facing (e.g., decrease in economic resources, professionalization), which results on paid staff not only experiencing more conflicts but also suffering more negative consequences. These organizations should especially be concerned about paid staff's needs, as much as for volunteers', in order to guarantee the achievement of their social aims. Overall,

promoting transparency between stakeholders and training to overcome differences would contribute to improving NPOs' functioning both internally and externally.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The datasets for this article are not publicly available due to funding requirements until the end of the ongoing research project. Requests to access the datasets should be directed to the corresponding author.

ETHICS STATEMENT

The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Psychology (University of Seville, Spain) and the Ethics Committee of the participant non-profit organization. Written informed consent was not provided because participants agreed to join the study upon invitation after receiving all the information regarding the research purpose, procedure and data treatment. They gave their explicit informed consent during the Focus Groups sessions recordings.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All the authors contributed to the conception and design of the work and the acquisition, analysis, and interpretation of data. They drafted the work and revised it critically. The authors gave the final approval of the manuscript before the submission. They participated at every stage of the research process.

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APPENDIX

TABLE A1 | List of *a priori* and *a posteriori* codes.

A priori codes	*A posteriori* codes	
Conflict regarding decision-making processes	Take others' responsibilities	Lack of institutional socialization
Relationship conflict in teams	Commitment	Lack of volunteers
Conflicts between volunteers and paid staff	Distrust on headquarters' decisions	Communication
*Empathy between working positions	Lack of headquarters' competences	Promotion of labor climate
Volunteers and paid staff roles	**Lack of empathy between working positions**	Volunteer training
Volunteers' power	Insecurity to act without consulting	Paid staff training
Work complexity (working with users)	Discomfort among team members	Frustration
Conflict escalation	Participation and consensus as an obligation	Schedules that differ from the established
Organizational complexity	Privileges as rights	timetables
Project's coordination complexity	Lack of responsibility	Public image
Deadlines	Undefined tasks	Paid staff's involvement
Differences between local assemblies	Volunteers' role enrichment	Volunteers' emotional labor
Communication	Absenteeism	Relationship with management
Training	Volunteers' attitude	Importance of paid staff
Leadership	Positive aspects of the evaluation	Importance of volunteering
Planning	Organizational change	Influence of personal characteristics
Volunteers temporariness	Positive consequences of change of management	Improvement detected
Decision-making processes	Negative consequences of volunteers' inexperience	Project justification
Organizational members' vocation	Inactivity and lack of awareness of regional assembly	President's role
Time management	Paid staff vulnerability	Slowness, lack of reaction of the organization
Differences in conflicts due to seniority	Evaluation differences	Amount of information managed
Quality of attention	Difficulties in the organization and coordination of	Organizational improvements
	events	Multitasking methodology
	Burned out teams	Need of enrichment of meetings
	Stress and anxiety	Transferring responsibilities
	Vertical evaluation of performance	Prioritization of the activity
	Lack of alternatives to transmit problems	Different local realities for training
	Lack of coordination	Cut back on social intervention
	Lack of effectiveness of management	Resistance to change
	Lack of spaces	Paid staff supporting volunteers
	Lack of feedback between hierarchical levels	Rumors
	Lack of intervention methodology	Volunteer satisfaction
	Lack of motivation	Somatization
	Lack of paid staff	Duplicate tasks
	Lack of resources	Administrative duties
		Paid staff transferring
		Task flow (up-down)
		Quantitative assessment
		Volunteers acting as paid staff

(*) This a priori code was modified and replaced by the a posteriori code in bold font.

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Credence in the Organization's Ability to Respond to Change – Implications on Work Engagement and Job Satisfaction in the Church of Sweden

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As part of society, religious organizations are exposed to contextual conditions and challenges. However, adapting to external conditions is an act of balance since too much compromising may risk having a negative effect on employees' perception of organizational authenticity and, in turn, employees' well-being and attitudes toward work. In this study, we examined how specific characteristics of the work, in terms of job demands (role conflict and emotional demands) and job resources (influence at work and social community at work), as well as employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change, relate to employee well-being within the Church of Sweden. In total 2,112 employees (58% participation rate) answered a web-based survey. The results of regression analyses showed that job resources and credence in the organization's ability to respond to change provided a clear contribution to the explanation of variance in work engagement and, especially, job satisfaction. However, the contribution of job demands was less clear. Moreover, to further the understanding of the association between employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change and employee well-being, the mediating effect of job resources was tested. The results showed that the association between credence and well-being is in part mediated by job resources. In sum, the study demonstrate that employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change is important to consider for understanding employee well-being within religious organizations. In conclusion, our study suggest that organizations that are built up on strong values and institutionalized beliefs, such as religious and faith-based organizations, need to tread carefully in the process of adapting to conformal pressure for change. This, since the actions and choices of the organization are important for employees' credence in the organization and, in turn, employee well-being. Implications and recommendations for future research are discussed.

Keywords: religious organizations, change, credence, job satisfaction, work engagement

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, increased attention has been paid to the societal importance of religious organizations as well as the well-being of the employees in these organizations (e.g., Roof, 2015; Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). As provider of a wide range of welfare services (e.g., social care, daycare, deaconry, and elderly care), religious organizations not only give believers a community to belong to, but they also are subject to societal challenges. Hence, as part of society, religious organizations are not bound to one institutionalized community but exposed to external challenges, expectations, and norms other than merely religious ones (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Suchman, 1995; Deephouse and Suchman, 2008). These logics and rationalities of organizational structures, management conceptions, and operational standards constitute a conformal pressure on the organization to adapt to (e.g., Brunsson and Jacobsson, 2010; Brunsson et al., 2012). However, religious organizations are based on beliefs and collectively shared traditions, often expressed through ceremonies that in turn shape identity, meaning, and engagement for employees (e.g., Roof, 2015). Furthermore, even the organizational structure of religious organizations carries a congregational heritage (e.g., spirituality and authenticity), which influences working conditions as well as employees' attitudes toward work (Roof, 2015; Ariza-Montes et al., 2017). Thus, initiating organizational adjustments to meet external pressure in ways that compromise or neglect core values may have negative effects on employees' well-being. Moreover, the associations seem to be complex, as the ability of organizations to handle change in a constructive manner is dependent on the commitment of the employees (Elias, 2009).

Based on these considerations, the aim of the present study was to investigate the role and importance of credence in the organization's ability to respond to changes in relation to employee well-being in religious organizations. Specifically, in a larger sample of employees of the Church of Sweden, we investigated how specific job characteristics (i.e., job demands and job resources), and employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to contextual changes, relate to job satisfaction and work engagement.

Job Demand and Resource Theory

Working conditions and employees' well-being are major concerns for the strategic and long-term performance of organizations (Bakker, 2017). Research on the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) theory suggests that job demands and job resources explain motivational and/or health-impairment processes (e.g., Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Bakker and Demerouti, 2017, 2018). Job resources foster intrinsic motivation through sense of belonging, competence, and autonomy, and contribute to higher levels of meaning and responsibility in work. When the levels of resources are higher, it is more likely that individuals experience higher job satisfaction, work engagement, and commitment to work. However, the opposite applies at higher levels of demands and lower levels of resources. According to research, the balance between job demands and resources explains the motivational and the health-impairment processes,

which in turn determines employees' occupational health and well-being (e.g., Bakker and Demerouti, 2017, 2018; Lesener et al., 2019). In occupations with higher levels of demands, such as contradictory and emotional demands, there is an obvious risk of lower levels of employee well-being, higher stress-related sick leave, and staff turnover (Bakker and Sanz-Vergel, 2013; Bakker, 2017). In contrast, in operations with higher levels of job resources, such as sense of influence in work or social community, it is more likely that employees experience goal accomplishment, learning, personal growth and development, as well as higher levels of work engagement and job satisfaction (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008; Bakker, 2011). In line with the basic propositions of the JD-R theory, the present study investigates the significance of specific job demands and resources in relation to employees' well-being within a religious organization. Furthermore, in this context, we introduce and investigate the role of employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change.

Occupational Well-Being – Job Satisfaction and Work Engagement

Employees' attitudes to work and subjective perceptions of working conditions have been the focus of research in many different disciplines and studied through a vast variety of constructs (Judge et al., 2017). Job satisfaction, as an assessment of workers' positive or negative attitudes to their job, is seen as a significant indicator of employee well-being (Judge et al., 2017). Furthermore, work engagement is an aspect of employee well-being that refers to vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Bakker, 2011). Even though the two concepts target essential aspects of employee well-being, they are differentiated, as work engagement involves some extent of activeness, whereas job satisfaction is considered to be a more passive state (e.g., Bakker, 2011; Judge et al., 2017). Moreover, employees' job satisfaction and work engagement are important aspects of well-being and relate to retention (e.g., Freund, 2005; Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2008; Geisler et al., 2019b). In addition, the focus on job satisfaction and work engagement is in line with the positive psychology approach and the framework of healthy organization, by emphasizing the importance of meaning in work and occupational well-being (e.g., Gable and Haidt, 2005; Di Fabio, 2017).

Occupational Well-Being Within Religious Organizations

The existing evidence suggests that the basic assumption of the JD-R theory could be applied to assess employees' well-being in a broad variety of organizations (e.g., Schaufeli and Taris, 2014; Lesener et al., 2019). However, it has been noted that specific investigations of employees' well-being within religious organizations are rather limited (Bickerton et al., 2014; Miner et al., 2015; Roof, 2015; Ariza-Montes et al., 2017; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Furthermore, previous research on employee health and well-being within religious organizations has predominately focused on stress and ill health. For instance, it has been suggested that burnout among clergy can be explained by the human

service aspects of the job (e.g., Adams et al., 2017). Findings within similar human service occupations, such as health care (Mauno et al., 2017) and social work (Lloyd et al., 2002), suggest that jobs characterized by a "helping nature" are associated with stress and emotional exhaustion due to emotionally demanding interpersonal relations (Dollard et al., 2003).

However, recent reports suggest that in order to understand occupational health and well-being among employees in religious organizations, research needs to address occupation-specific variables such as the unique dimension of faith and the double identities that employees may have vis-à-vis their work (e.g., Innstrand et al., 2011; Bickerton et al., 2014; Frederick et al., 2018). For example, a calling, the experience that one is destined to fulfill the virtues of one's profession, is a characteristic that has received attention in previous research (e.g., Thompson and Bunderson, 2019). Through their work, in general, and within religious organizations, in particular, employees can experience fulfillment of "a greater purpose," which provides meaning on a personal and/or a professional level. However, if employees feel that organizational initiatives put the authenticity and meaningfulness of work at risk, this can lead to employee disengagement and cynicism (e.g., Bailey et al., 2017).

Taken together, employees in religious organizations can often be considered to have both a personal (e.g., personal faith, personal calling) and a professional (e.g., being an employee/a representative of the organization) identification with work. The extent that employees within religious organizations experience congruence between the two dimensions of identification can be expected to influence occupational well-being. Thus, in addition to working conditions in terms of demands and resources, it is important to investigate the role of employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change (e.g., external and societal conformal pressure to change and adapt) in order to understand employees' well-being in religious organizations.

The Church of Sweden – Contextual Change and Occupational Well-Being

In the last few decades, the Church of Sweden (Lutheran) has undergone substantial changes. In the year 2000, the formal relationship between the Swedish State and the Church of Sweden ended. As a result, many people decided to end their membership in the Church of Sweden, which led to financial losses for parishes. Not as a consequence of the separation, but as part of a continuous decrease in the number of parishes (roughly from 2500 to 1400), the Swedish National Church Council decided in 2012 to undertake a major organizational change by amalgamating parishes (Hansson and Andersen, 2001; Hansson and Hansson, 2018). This decision was a response to the contextual changes of the institutional conditions for the Swedish church, resulting in a change from smaller parish units to larger organizational units (Hansson and Hansson, 2018).

Current studies of working conditions and well-being among the employees within the Church of Sweden are limited. However, the Swedish Work Environment Authority has conducted workplace inspections (2007), resulting in the reports of work-environment concerns in terms of high levels of stress

and a lack of an organizational support for the employees. Furthermore, some studies suggest that employee well-being within the Church of Sweden relates to the extent that personal values are in line with those of the parish. In a study within the Church of Sweden by Hansson et al., ~18% of the respondents expressed a sense of misfit between their personal values and the values of the congregation. Moreover, respondents who experienced a misfit also reported lack of employer support, inadequate workplace communication, and higher absenteeism (Hansson et al., 2014). More recently, the results of a study by Hansson and Hansson (2018) among union members employed within the Swedish Church showed that although the majority (82%) of the respondents reported that they found their job joyful and stimulating; every other respondent reported that the workload was too high (i.e., 43%) and that they had considered quitting their job during the last few years (53%). In addition, 20% of the women and 12% of the men reported having been absent due to work-related sick leave in the last year. Overall, the findings by Hansson and Hansson (2018) suggest that challenges in well-being relate to lack of goal clarity, discrepancy between work tasks and competence, lack of adequate management, lack of coworkers, and high level of fatigue.

In all, previous reports suggest that working conditions within the Church of Sweden are stressful, where the combination of structural organizational challenges, high demands, and a lack of resources contribute to the explanation of the negative work environment. Furthermore, most previous studies have been based on case studies or qualitative designs, whereas quantitative data of employees' well-being on the national level are lacking.

Credence in the Organization's Ability to Respond to Change

In the context of religious organizations, the role and significance of how employees' perception of the organization's ability to cope with challenges relate to employees' well-being has been overlooked. Based on the consideration that employees in religious organizations both have a personal and a professional identification with work (e.g., Innstrand et al., 2011) and that the (mis)fit between personal and organizational beliefs is important for understanding employees' well-being (Hansson et al., 2014), this is somewhat surprising. The ability to cope with challenges is at the core of research on the theoretical construct of resilience. In essence, resilience refers to individual's ability to "bounce back" after dramatic disruptions or disasters (e.g., Kantur and Iseri-Say, 2015; Linnenluecke, 2015; Mallak and Yildiz, 2016; Crowe et al., 2017). Thus, on the individual level, resilience is associated with an employee's ability to recover and persevere, as well as the capacity to innovate and mobilize strengths in times of adversity. However, research has also attended to organizational resilience, related to the strength of the organization, its ability to recover, and/or its capacity to find innovative solutions to contextual challenges (Linnenluecke, 2015; Mallak and Yildiz, 2016). Furthermore, in the context of occupational health and well-being from an organizational perspective, recent research suggests that organizational resilience is an upstream factor that

has an indirect, positive relationship to individual resilience and work engagement through job resources (Taylor et al., 2019).

However, the theoretical conceptualization of the resilience construct is somewhat unclear, as a variety of definitions and measurements are used within and across different research fields. Still, a common denominator is that resilience refers to the ability to cope with change (Linnenluecke, 2015; Crowe et al., 2017). Furthermore, it has been proposed that the core components of organizational resilience pertain to robustness, agility, and integrity (Kantur and Iseri-Say, 2015). When applied in the context of religious organizations, employees' perceptions of the organization's capacity to respond to conformal pressure (in ways that protect basic values, is constructive, and supported by its members) basically reflects the extent to which these actions and adjustments comply with the personal values of the employees. Thus, in the present study, assessment of organizational resilience was used to operationalize employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to changes.

The Present Study

Based on previous research on occupational health and well-being within religious organizations (Hansson, 2006; Bickerton et al., 2014; Hansson et al., 2014; Adams et al., 2017; Hansson and Hansson, 2018; Thompson and Bunderson, 2019), and the theoretical framework of the JD-R model (e.g., Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Bakker and Demerouti, 2017, 2018), the aim of the present study was twofold. First, we investigated how specific characteristics of the job, in terms of certain job demands (role conflict and emotional demands) and job resources (influence at work and social community at work), contribute to the explanation of employee well-being (work engagement and job satisfaction) within the Church of Sweden. Second, acknowledging that religious organizations face challenges and a need to respond to contemporary pressure for change, and that organizational response and adjustments to these requirements may in turn influence employees' attitudes toward work, a further aim of the present study was to examine the extent to which employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change may be related to well-being.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants and Procedure

The data for the present study was collected as part of a larger workplace survey conducted within the Church of Sweden. Initially, a dialogue between the researchers and representatives of the National Employer Organization of the Church preceded the survey. The National Employer Organization distributed information regarding the survey to all employees by the use of a weekly newsletter. Information was also given separately to Union representatives and a reference group of five employees were asked to give feedback on the questionnaire design. These email addresses were handed to the researchers by the National Employer Organization of the Church of Sweden, and were used for distribution of the link to the survey. The web-based survey was distributed by the researchers by email to a total

of 3,652 ministers and deacons to the survey employed within the Church of Sweden. In total, three reminder emails were sent out in a period of 2 months. The survey took about 15–20 min to complete. In all, 2,112 employees answered the survey (58% participation rate: 72% ministers, 28% deacons; 62% women, 37% men, 1% indicated their gender as other; mean age = 52 years, SD age = 9.6 years). Furthermore, the sample was differentiated in terms of professional tenure: <5 years = 48%; >5 years = 52%). The study was approved by the Swedish Ethical Review Board, Regional secretariat in Lund (dnr: 2017/655). Participants received written information about the research project in the email and were provided with a link to the survey. Informed consent was obtained from all participants.

Materials and Measures

The data were primarily collected by the use of specific scales of the validated Swedish version of the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ II: Pejtersen et al., 2010; Berthelsen et al., 2018), pertaining to employees' perceptions and experiences of their work conditions and work-related well-being. Items on the COPSOQ were rated on 5-point Likert-type scales, and the scores were then converted to the scale 0–100 (i.e., 0, 25, 50, 75, and 100) before the calculations of the mean item score. Respondents who answer less than half of the questions were set as missing (cf. Berthelsen et al., 2017; Geisler et al., 2019a). Furthermore, the data collection included a scale for organizational resilience (Kantur and Iseri-Say, 2015), in order to assess employees' levels of credence in the organization's ability to respond to changes. The study also included measures of employees' occupational well-being, in terms of work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2017) and job satisfaction (COPSOQ II: Berthelsen et al., 2018).

Independent Variable

Role conflict (Cronbach's alpha = 0.79) was assessed by two items from COPSOQ II (Berthelsen et al., 2018; c.f. Cronbach's alpha = 0.65), rated on 5-point scales from 1 ("to a very low degree") to 5 ("to a very high degree"). The items were "*Are some things that you do at work accepted by some people but not by others?*" and "*Are contradictory demands placed upon you at work?*"

Emotional demands (Cronbach's alpha = 0.73) were measured by two items from COPSOQ II: Berthelsen et al., 2018; cf. Cronbach's alpha = 0.80, rated on 5-point scales from 1 ("to a very low degree") to 5 ("to a very high degree"). The items were "*Is your work emotionally demanding?*" and "*Do you get emotionally involved in your work?*"

Influence at work (Cronbach's alpha = 0.75) was assessed by two items from COPSOQ II: Berthelsen et al., 2018; cf. Cronbach's alpha = 0.74, rated on 5-point scales from 1 ("to a very low degree") to 5 ("to a very high degree"). The items were "*Is it possible for you to influence important decisions about your work?*" and "*Can you influence your work?*"

Social community at work (Cronbach's alpha = 0.84) was measured by three items from COPSOQ II: Berthelsen et al., 2018; cf. Cronbach's alpha = 0.80, rated on 5-point scales from

1 ("never/almost never") to 5 ("always/very often"). An example item is "*Do you feel part of a community at work?*"

Credence in the organization's ability to respond to change (Cronbach's alpha = 0.87) was measured by the use of seven out of the nine items on the Organizational Resilience Scale developed by Kantur and Iseri-Say (2015; cf. Cronbach's alpha = 0.92). The scale consists of the three dimensions: robustness (two items, Cronbach's alpha = 0.76), agility (three items, Cronbach's alpha = 0.84), and integrity (two items, Cronbach's alpha = 0.75). Two items on the robustness dimension were excluded from the present study, as they were considered to be irrelevant in a Swedish setting and in the context of the Church of Sweden. The excluded items were "*shows resistance to the end in order not to lose*" and "*does not give up and continues its path*"). Participants were asked to rate, on 5-point scales ranging from 1 ("disagree") to 5 ("agree"), the extent that they agreed with each item statement based on the overall instruction "*My organization as a whole (i.e., the Swedish church)….*" Items examples are: "*…stands straight and preserves its position*" (robustness), "*…develops alternatives in order to benefit from negative circumstances*" (agility), and "*…is successful in acting as a whole with all of its employees*" (integrity).

Dependent Variables

Work engagement (Cronbach's alpha = 0.84) was measured by the use of the three-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-3: Schaufeli et al., 2017; cf. Cronbach's alpha = 0.77–0.85). The three items on the UWES-3 assess vigor ("*At my work, I feel bursting with energy*"), dedication ("*I am enthusiastic about my job*"), and absorption ("*I am immersed in my work*"), and are rated on 7-point scales ranging from 0 ("never") to 6 ("always").

Job satisfaction (Cronbach's alpha = 0.73) was assessed using three items from COPSOQ II: Berthelsen et al., 2018; cf. Cronbach's alpha = 0.84, rated on 5-point scales from 1 ("to a very low degree") to 5 ("to a very high degree"). An example item is "*All things considered, how satisfied are you with the future prospects in your work?*"

Data Analyses

The data were analyzed by correlation analyses and hierarchical multiple regression using SPSS statistics (ver. 25). The hierarchical multiple regression analyses tested the predictive value of job demands (Step 1: *role conflict*, *emotional demands*), job resources (Step 2: *influence at work*, *social community at work*), and credence in the organization's ability to respond to change (Step 3) for work engagement and job satisfaction, respectively. Mediation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS macro (vers. 2.16.3) for SPSS. The mediation models tested whether job resources (i.e., influence at work and social community at work) mediate the effect of employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change in relation to well-being (i.e., work engagement and job satisfaction). In line with conventional recommendations (Zhao et al., 2010), the mediation analyses used a 95% confidence interval (CI) with 5,000 bootstrap, bias corrected (BCa). In addition, the proportion mediated [$P_M = ab/(ab + c')$: Preacher and Kelley, 2011; Miocevic et al., 2018] was calculated

as the effect size of the mediating effect in the respective mediation model.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics and correlations between all variables. As can be seen, participants reported overall moderate levels of experiencing role conflict but rather high levels of emotional demands, influence at work, and social community at work. In addition, moderate levels were observed for credence in the organization's ability to respond to change, work engagement, and job satisfaction. Regarding the bivariate correlations, significant associations were found between all study variables. Most of the observed associations were in the expected directions. However, low correlations were found between emotional demands and credence in the organization's ability to respond to change (negative direction), as well as work engagement (positive direction). For the dependent variables (i.e., work engagement and job satisfaction), stronger correlations were found in relation to job resources (i.e., influence at work and social community at work) and credence in the organization's ability to respond to change.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses (**Table 2**) tested the relationship between job demands, job resources, and credence in the organization's ability to respond to change to the respective outcomes: work engagement and job satisfaction. Separate analyses were performed for the two dependent variables. Step 1 included job demands (role conflict and emotional demands), whereas job resources (influence at work and social community at work) were added in Step 2. Finally, in Step 3, credence in the organization's ability to respond to change was added. Of note, potential confounding variables were tested for by inserting *gender* (dummy-coded as 1/2/3: 1 = man; 2 = woman; 3 = other), *age* (continuous variable), *tenure* (1 = <5 years; 2 = >5 years), and *profession* (1 = priests; 2 = deacons) in a separate first step. However, as this step only contributed to 1% of the variance explained, it was not included in the final model.

Work Engagement

For work engagement, the model (**Table 2**) provided a limited amount of variance explained (∼15%). Still, each step in the model provided a unique and significant contribution to the variance explained. In the full model, all predictor variables – except for role conflict – provided a significant contribution to the explanation of work engagement among the employees. Looking at the standardized beta coefficients, the strongest predictors in the model were influence at work and social community at work, as well as emotional demands (positive direction) and credence in the organization's ability to respond to change.

	M	SD	Skew	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Role conflict	41.49	24.58	0.156	–						
2. Emotional demands	70.78	16.62	−0.141	0.202	–					
3. Influence at work	69.46	19.35	−0.522	−0.231	−0.140	–				
4. Social community at work	78.15	16.63	−0.817	−0.379	−0.112	0.388	–			
5. Credence[1]	2.72	0.66	−0.158	−0.205	−0.035	0.245	0.228	–		
6. Work engagement	4.47	0.82	−0.682	−0.143	0.062	0.297	0.289	0.180	–	
7. Job satisfaction	65.45	18.45	−0.541	−0.297	−0.143	0.543	0.445	0.349	0.404	–

All correlations are significant at p < 0.001. [1]Credence = credence in the organization's ability to respond to change.

	Work engagement (n = 1,973)				Job satisfaction (n = 1,977)			
	β	ΔR^2	F change	Adj. R^2	β	ΔR^2	F change	Adj. R^2
Step 1		0.029	30.20**			0.094	105.60**	
Role conflict	−0.030				−0.077**			
Emotional demands	0.124**				−0.043*			
Step 2		0.111	130.65**			0.279	452.71**	
Influence at work	0.215**				0.391**			
Social community at work	0.190**				0.219**			
Step 3		0.006	14.30**	0.144		0.032	108.53**	0.40
Credence[a]	0.082**				0.187**			

*Standardized beta weights are from the third step of the regression analyses. [a]Credence = credence in the organization's ability to respond to change. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01.*

Job Satisfaction

The regression analysis for job satisfaction (**Table 2**) provided a substantial amount of variance explained (40%). Again, when added to the model, each step provided a significant contribution of the variance explained. In the full model, each independent variable provided a significant contribution to the explanation of job satisfaction among the employees. With regard to the standardized beta coefficients in the full model, the strongest predictors in the model were influence at work, social community at work, and credence in the organization's ability to respond to change.

Mediation Analyses
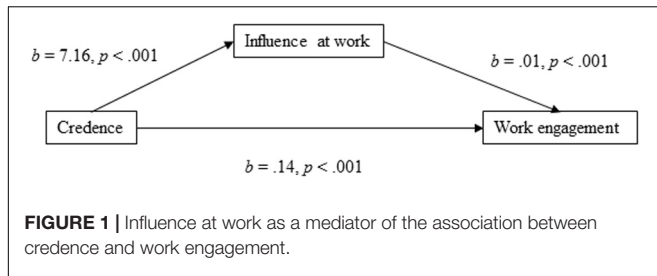
Mediation analyses further investigated the interplay between job resources and employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change, in relation to work engagement and job satisfaction. The rationale for the variables tested in the mediation models was based on the results of the regression analyses, demonstrating that job resources (i.e., influence at work and social community at work) and credence in the organization's ability to respond to change were the strongest predictors of employee work engagement and job satisfaction. However, although the results of the regression analyses demonstrated that both job resources and credence in the organization's ability to respond to change were the independent variables most strongly related to work engagement and job satisfaction, the results do not provide any information with regard to the possible interplay of these relations. In line with the notion supported by recent research (e.g., Taylor et al., 2019), job resources (influence at work and social community at work) were inserted as the mediating variables of the association between employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change (independent variable) and well-being (dependent variables: work engagement and job satisfaction).

Work Engagement

For the mediation model of work engagement with influence at work as the mediator (**Figure 1**), the results showed that the total effect of the model was positively directed [b = 0.223, 95% CI (0.164, 0.281), t = 7.46, p < 0.001]. Credence in the organization's ability to change had a positive direct effect on work engagement [b = 0.140, 95% CI (0.084, 0.197), t = 4.87, p < 0.001), and the indirect effect of credence through influence at work was found to be significant [b = 0.082, 95% CI (0.063, 0.104)]. In terms of the proportion mediated, the effect size of the indirect effect was P_M = 0.37, meaning that 37% of the effect of employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change on work engagement was mediated by influence at work.

For the mediation model of work engagement using social community at work as the mediator (**Figure 2**), the results showed that the total effect was positively directed [b = 0.220, 95% CI (0.162, 0.279), t = 7.39, p < 0.001]. The direct effect of credence in the organization's ability to respond to change on work engagement was positively directed [b = 0.146, 95% CI (0.090, 0.202), t = 5.11, p < 0.001], and the indirect effect through social community at work was also found to be significant
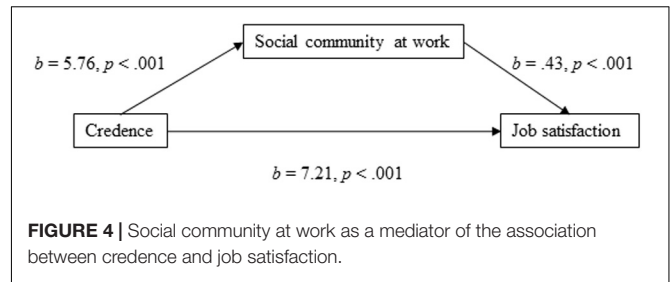
FIGURE 1 | Influence at work as a mediator of the association between credence and work engagement.

FIGURE 2 | Social community at work as a mediator of the association between credence and work engagement.

FIGURE 3 | Influence at work as a mediator of the association between credence and job satisfaction.

FIGURE 4 | Social community at work as a mediator of the association between credence and job satisfaction.

social community at work was significant [b = 2.449, 95% CI (1.955, 3.044)]. The effect size of the indirect effect was P_M = 0.25. In other words, 25% of the effect of employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change on job satisfaction was mediated through social community at work.

DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to investigate how certain job characteristics, in terms of job demands (role conflict and emotional demands) and job resources (influence at work and social community at work), contribute to the explanation of well-being (work engagement and job satisfaction) among employees within the Church of Sweden. Furthermore, we examined the extent to which employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to changes relates to well-being.

Based on the example of the Church of Sweden, the present study highlights the role of credence in the organization's ability to respond to change for employee well-being within religious organizations. Overall, the results suggest that credence in the organization's ability relates to well-being, through an interplay with job resources.

First, the result of the regression analyses showed that our model provided a considerably better explanation for job satisfaction (∼40%) as compared to work engagement (∼15%). As for the predictive value of job demands, in terms of role conflict and emotional demands, these were not found to be determinants of employees' work engagement. In fact, emotional demands were found to contribute to higher levels of work engagement. This suggests that the emotional aspects of the work may be considered as challenges, contributing to the motivational process (e.g., Lepine et al., 2005; Bakker and Sanz-Vergel, 2013; Geisler et al., 2019a). In some contrast, the results showed that job demands were significantly related (negative direction) to job satisfaction. Second, the results showed that job resources, in terms of influence at work and social community at work, clearly contributed to the explanation of work engagement and, especially, job satisfaction. Third, our results also show that employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change provided a unique contribution to work engagement and job satisfaction. Although the added contribution was small, the results of the regression analyses demonstrate that credence in the organization's ability to respond to change is relevant to

[b = 0.074, 95% CI (0.058, 0.094)]. In terms of the proportion mediated, the effect size of the indirect effect was P_M = 0.34. Thus, 34% of the effect of employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change on work engagement was mediated through social community at work.

Job Satisfaction

For the mediation model of job satisfaction with influence at work as the mediator (**Figure 3**), the results showed that the total effect of the model was evident, significant, and positively directed [b = 9.768, 95% CI (8.482, 11.055), t = 14.89, p < 0.001]. The direct effect of employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change on job satisfaction was clear [b = 6.499, 95% CI (5.422, 7.576), t = 11.83, p < 0.001], and the indirect effect through influence at work was found to be significant [b = 3.270, 95% CI (2.580, 4.001)]. The effect size of the indirect effect was P_M = 0.33, meaning that 33% of the total effect of employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change on job satisfaction is mediated through influence at work.

Finally, the results of the mediation model with social community at work as the mediator (**Figure 4**) showed that the total effect of the model was clear and positively directed [b = 9.654, 95% CI (8.366, 10.943), t = 14.69, p < 0.001]. The direct effect of credence in the organization's ability to respond to change was positively directed [b = 7.205, 95% CI (5.987, 8.424), t = 11.60, p < 0.001], and the indirect effect through

consider in order to understand employee well-being within religious organizations.

However, the results of the regression analyses do not provide any insights into the interplay between employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change and job resources in association to occipational well-being. Thus, the mediation analyses were performed in order to further the understanding of the association between credence and job resources in relation to occupational well-being. Overall, the result of the mediation analyses provides support for the notion that the association between credence in the organization's ability to respond to change and well-being is partly mediated through job resources. The direct and total effects of credence in the organization's ability to respond to change were more evident with regard to job satisfaction, as compared to work engagement. Still, the effect size of the indirect effects, in terms of the proportion mediated (Miocevic et al., 2018), was found to be clear and rather consistent across the models tested.

Implications

In terms of implications, the present study contributes to the understanding of well-being among employees within religious organizations (Bickerton et al., 2014; Roof, 2015; Ariza-Montes et al., 2017), by illustrating the role of employees' perception (credence) of the organization's ability to meet contextual changes in relation to work engagement and job satisfaction. The focus on occupational well-being among employees in faith-based organizations is much needed, since most previous research has been predominately inclined to attend to stress and ill health (e.g., Innstrand et al., 2011; Adams et al., 2017). Furthermore, our study adds novel insights for the study of employee well-being, by acknowledging that religious organizations are part of society and, as such, exposed to contextual conditions and challenges to adapt and respond to (e.g., DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Brunsson and Jacobsson, 2010).

Specifically, our results suggest that it is of relevance to attend to employees' perceptions (i.e., credence) of the extent to which the organization can handle and adaptively respond to change, in order to understand employee well-being. This is in line with the reports by previous research that the organization's ability to handle change relates to perceived authenticity (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017) and commitment (Elias, 2009) among the employees. To some extent, it may be that the importance of credence is of particular relevance for occupational well-being of employees within faith-based organizations. This is because employees in religious organizations may be expected to have dual identities toward their work – in terms of a personal (e.g., faith, calling) and a professional (i.e., occupation, member of the organization) identification (e.g., Innstrand et al., 2011; Frederick et al., 2018). However, it may be that the importance of this aspect can be generalized to other types of "identity work" professions (e.g., Brown, 2017). For example, in a wider perspective, calling has been used to explain identification, motivation, and meaning in work across different types of occupational groups such as health care, social work, and law enforcement (e.g., Bakker, 2015; Thompson and Bunderson, 2019).

In conclusion, our study suggest that organizations that are built up on strong values and institutionalized beliefs, such as religious and faith-based organizations like the Church of Sweden, need to tread carefully in the process of adapting to conformal pressure for change, since the actions and choices of the organization are important for employees' credence in the organization and, in turn, employee well-being. Finally, we encourage future research to further investigate the role of employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change, in relation to associations and interplays between other job resources, job demands, and outcomes.

Limitations

The present study has some limitations. The cross-sectional design does not allow any causal claims. Still, the tested directions of the associations seem to be the most plausible ones, and the results therefore provide some insights into the investigated relations and interplays. However, if possible, future research should try to replicate the results and use a longitudinal design in order to test the causal relations. Furthermore, the data are based on self-reports. Hence, the results need to be interpreted with potential common method biases in mind (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Moreover, the present study operationalized employees' credence in the organization's ability to respond to change using an existing scale originally designed to measure organizational resilience. To some extent, this could be regarded as a limitation. However, the focus of the present study was to investigate if, and how, employees' experiences of how the organization can respond to change is important for understanding occupational well-being within religious organizations. Due to the novelty of the present focus, no measure designed to assess this specific aspect exists. The scale used was considered suitable in terms of high face validity. Nevertheless, we encourage future research to continue this investigation, using other scales and measures.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

ETHICS STATEMENT

The study was approved by the Regional Ethical Review Board, Lund secretariat (dnr: 2017/655). Participants received written information about the research-project in the email and provided with a link to the survey. Informed consent was obtained from all participants.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

AE participated in the planning of the study, the data collection, the development of the hypotheses, and the data analyses and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. MG contributed to the development of the hypotheses, the data analyses, and the writing

of the first draft. TM participated in the planning of the study and the data collection. JB participated in the data collection. HW participated in the planning of the study. All listed authors have made direct and intellectual contributions to the manuscript and approved the final version for publication.

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Human Resource Management and Innovative Performance in Non-profit Hospitals: The Mediating Effect of Organizational Culture

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Literature suggests that human resources of non-profit hospitals (NPHs) present features that could potentially reach any expected organizational performance even when the attention to human resource management (HRM) are often low in non-profit organizations. Nowadays ambitious organizations strive to obtain a profitable performance that is also innovate and do it through building an organizational culture (OC), while for NPHs a positive culture is given by their human resources traits. However, there is not enough literature to understand how these three variables behave together. This study aims to explain the influence of HRM on IP mediated by OC. The research model was assessed through Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM). The results support all the stated hypotheses. Both, HRM and OC are moderately strong predictors of IP, and OC mediates partially and in a complementary way the relationship between HRM on IP. An importance-performance map analysis (IPMA) was performed to expand the PLS-SEM results. The OC indicators show greater importance to explain IP, consequently, they are the most relevant indicators to initiate management actions by NPHs. The influence of HRM on IP represent an opportunity for NPH as it implies an affordable investment in comparison to the cost of technological solutions for enterprises.

Keywords: human resource management, innovative performance, organizational culture, PLS-SEM, non-profit hospitals

INTRODUCTION

Non-profit hospital (NPH) is a governmental or private organization that orient their services to low-income population. For this reason, NPH's patients are not expected to have the money to pay for advanced medical care, however, medical advancements have a great deal with providing effective treatment and covering a wider scope of illnesses than regular medicine does. For this reason, the use of innovation in NPHs marks the quality of the health services they provide.

Current organizations follow a vision that involves innovation as it guarantees their success and survival in an evolutionary environment and in outcome terms it is translated as an innovative

performance (IP). Innovation is needed to redefine business models in order to make them more affordable for low- and middle-income people. In developing countries, the organizational IP has redesigned cost structure that make products and services more affordable and accessible (George et al., 2015). For this reason, social innovation represents an opportunity to democratize access to basic medical services (Michelini, 2012; Christensen et al., 2015) through the implementation of innovative solution in non-profit hospitals. Actually, non-profit organizations orient their IP to social innovation that leads to aims more aligned to their users' expectation (Westley et al., 2014; Phillips et al., 2015).

Particularly, NPH's hold a responsibility to be innovative when delivering medical care. An IP for this organizations consists on answering the diverse needs of patients by new projects, processes or services (Sanzo-Perez et al., 2015; Jaskyte, 2018, 2020; Brimhall, 2019). In other words, innovation comes from the introduction of new ideas or practices that leads to the improvement of the treatment, the diagnose, prevention, research or education (Omachonu and Einspruch, 2010). Moreover, social innovation involves collaborations to implement solutions to social problems, particularly at local level (Brandsen et al., 2016). Solutions are assumed to have positive societal effects, either through increasing aggregate utilitarian value, or by empowering citizens in innovation processes (Ayob et al., 2016).

In this scenery, NPHs limit their performance to a tight budget and therefore have less chances to innovate. There are less resources and yet a constant need to adjust to a competitive environment (Svensson et al., 2019). In particular, aside the financial resources, human resources are other highly relevant resources to pursue an IP. Indeed, the impact of human resource management (HRM) reaches individual achievements regarding skills and motivation amongst other personal traits that are pre-requisites for innovation (Diaz-Fernandez et al., 2017). That is to say, IP, understood as the capacity of a business to obtain new products and other outputs, is strongly related to HRM (Adnan et al., 2016; Métailler, 2016; Diaz-Fernandez et al., 2017). Through the activities undertaken by HRM, namely building a culture that values new ideas or enabling employees to keep growing professionally, it is noticeable how they influence on the employees and consequently impact on IP as well (Bal et al., 2014; Liao and Huang, 2016; Diaz-Fernandez et al., 2017; Gile et al., 2018; Jaskyte, 2018; Meyer and Leitner, 2018).

The implementation of HRM's strategies shapes the organizational culture (OC). In particular, an innovative culture might lead to an IP. Mesch (2010) pointed out that HRM is the main element to reach an effective organizational performance in non-profit organizations as in other organization types. For this reason, HRM are likely to influence OC within the particular context of NPH (Jaskyte, 2011, 2015, 2018; Brown et al., 2016; Aktar and Pangil, 2017; Baluch, 2017). Furthermore, OC is recognized by its role to dynamize the IP (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Fondas and Denison, 1991; Ahmed, 1998; Jaskyte and de Riobó, 2004; Jaskyte, 2015; Meyer and Leitner, 2018). This relationship has been also studied in contexts such as NPH finding significant results (McDonald, 2007; Brimhall, 2019; Narapareddy and Berte, 2019). Hence,

OC is likely to influence IP directly and mediate the influence of HRM on IP too.

NPHs face difficulties to reach the expected health service, they do not often count with the technology needed, the specialties, or the medicine, to mention some of their many limitations. Nevertheless, they are the best affordable option for most of the population. Due to that fact, it is necessary they have alternative strategies to rise their service quality through innovation. Bearing that in mind, this study aims to examine the relationship between HRM and IP, while considering the mediating effect of OC. In order to do so, the research question is stated as follows: What is the direct effect of HRM on IP, mediated by OC, in NPH?

This study is divided into five sections. The first section has introduced the topic and elaborated on the research problem this study aims to address. Section "Literature Review" presents the theoretical framework regarding this study's main constructs. The procedure followed to obtain and analyses the data is presented "Materials and Methods," while the results are explained in section "Results and Discussion." Finally, section "Conclusion and Recommendations for Future Studies" discusses the findings of this study and give directions for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section elaborates on the constructs involved in this study's theoretical model. It addresses the theory reviewed about the management of the human resources, the updated literature on innovation regarding the organization performance, and finally, the organizational culture's literature is pinpointed as a mediator among the other two constructs.

Human Resources Management

Human resources management holds a strategic role to reassure organizational effectiveness through the human resources of a company. In fact, according to the resources based theory, HRM is responsible of managing part of the strategic resources of the organization to enable firms' growth and competitive advantages for a superior performance (Wernerfelt, 1984; Barney, 1991; Conner, 1991; Grant, 1991; Collis and Montgomery, 1995; Teece et al., 1997). The Resource-Based theory analyzes and interprets the strategic internal resources of organizations such as: resources, capacities, organizational processes, information, knowledge, among others that enable to develop and maintain competitive advantages (Barney, 1991).

However, the globalized market requires companies a strategic envision of their knowledge resource. Kang et al. (2007) elaborates on this theory and came up with the knowledge-based theory that give human resources a relevant meaning in the process of value creation. Doing so, this theory links organizational learning, social relations and HRM into the same knowledge flow. That is to say, HRM is crucial at fostering innovation processes in companies (Li et al., 2006) by influencing creativity (Jiang et al., 2012) and knowledge management system (Jiménez-Jiménez and Sanz-Valle, 2011). Moreover, knowledge-based perspective regarding organizational capacities outreached

by HRM are related to OC and have an impact on innovation success (Long and Fahey, 2000; Leal-Rodríguez et al., 2014).

In the particular contexts of non-profit organizations, prior research stated that even when the investment on HRM is less than the standard, it still earns positive outcomes (Nickson et al., 2008; Baines, 2010; Atkinson and Lucas, 2013; Ariza-Montes and Lucia-Casademunt, 2016; Baluch, 2017). Yet strategies on HRM have demonstrated to bring good results in employees that later on are beneficial to the organization's performance as earlier stated. A key factor to success of non-profit organizations is the ability to identify and develop capacities through their available resources. For this reason, resources that has been proven to be useful in past experiences such as culture, HRM, among others, are considered strategic (Colbert, 2004; Akingbola, 2013; Oliveira and Toda, 2013; Brown et al., 2016; Gile et al., 2018).

Innovative Performance

Nowadays, innovative organizations have more chances to survive in the competitive global market. Innovation is a complex term and most of the time is related to technology, however, is not only limited by the scientific and technological dimensions (Echevarría, 2008). A general approach states that "innovation is the implementation of a new or significantly improved product (good or service), or process, a new marketing method, or a new organizational method in business practices, workplace organization or external relations" (OECD/Eurostat, 2005). To complement this approach, Gurrutxaga (2011) disaggregates innovation in the ability to create and innovate as options to respond to social necessities, defining structural constraints and rescuing the relevance of innovation.

Regarding the healthcare sector, innovation is the introduction of a new concept, idea, service, process or product to improve treatment, diagnosis, education, prevention and research, aiming a long-term objective to improve quality, safety, results, efficiency and costs (Omachonu and Einspruch, 2010). This means that novel practices on the benefit of effective healthcare favors to reduce rates of mortality and morbidity. Based on the patients' perspective, the benefit of healthcare sector innovation is evident through improved health or reduced suffering due to illness (Faulkner and Kent, 2001). In other words, innovation has a wide scope to be implemented in this sort of services.

It is necessary to notice that mostly all definitions regarding innovation come from a for-profit organization approach regardless the nature of other types of organizations such as non-profit ones. However, non-profit organizations outreach successful levels of innovation that are aligned to social innovation initiatives. Svensson et al. (2019) consider that innovation in non-profit organizations, social innovation, happens with "better ways of achieving meaningful impact in addressing a given social issue and promoting positive social change." This put non-profit organizations in a double pressure situation to keep financially stable and maintain social performance toward meeting their mission and satisfying numerous stakeholders (Landrum, 2007). Overall, NPHs aiming to perform innovatively address healthcare in a way that makes a social change which means a social innovative performance capable to reach not just a change, but a shareable social value

creation (Hwang and Christensen, 2008; Michelini, 2012) that will end up in a more inclusive healthcare service and social nosiness models (Vecchio and Rappini, 2011; Michelini, 2012; Angeli and Jaiswal, 2016).

According to the above, IP is the consequence of a set of variables, however, HRM and OC are relevant when it comes about particular organizations such as NPHs. For this reason, this study seeks to explain the influence of HRM on IP and OC on IP. These objectives determine the following hypotheses:

> H1: HRM influences positively the IP.
> H3: OC influence positively the IP.

Organizational Culture

The organizational culture is defined as the set of intergroup interrelationships that manifests mainly when changing opportunities and threats take place in the organization's environment. In the healthcare sector, adaptation to new situations could determine life or death which remains mandatory for them to build an organizational culture that could handle this environment. Nevertheless, NPHs face a challenge on this matter as their resources and vision limit their possibilities to act upon an organizational culture strategy.

Many studies has determine the influence of HRM on OC and how highly related are both variables (Hartog et al., 2004; Kusluvan et al., 2010; Aktar and Pangil, 2017). It means the implementation of strategies to build and environment where human resources are capable to impact on the innovative outcomes by the right knowledge acquisition, distribution and storage by employees. Ballesteros-Rodríguez et al. (2012) point that culture define how things are done and influence leaders to stablish objectives and practices for HRM. For this reason, HRM and OC seems to have a relationship that works in a bidirectional way.

OC plays a leading role in achieving to reach the expected IP (Jaskyte and Dressler, 2005; Jaskyte, 2018). Furthermore, the literature recognizes the role of principles and climate of the organization as elements of the OC that enable an IP (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Fondas and Denison, 1991; Ahmed, 1998; Jaskyte, 2004, 2015; Meyer and Leitner, 2018). This approach has also been developed regarding the health sector (McDonald, 2007; Brimhall, 2019; Narapareddy and Berte, 2019) but not the non-profit hospitals in particular. For this reason, OC influence IP while it is affected by HRM, then HRM influence on IP might be influenced by the mediator role of OC.

The proposed model is theoretically based on mediation because a mediating variable (OC) intervenes between two constructs that are related (HRM and IP). This implies that a change in HRM will lead to a change in OC, which in turn will generate a change in the endogenous variable IP. What this mediation model seeks is to analyze the intensity of OC relationships with the other constructs, justifying the mechanisms underlying the cause-effect relationship between HRM and IP. Unlike what a moderation model seeks, where the intensity or sense of the relationship between variables depends on a third variable that does not directly interact with the exogenous or endogenous variable (Nitzl et al., 2016).

In line with the above, this study analyses how HRM influence OC. Besides it is assessed the mediator role of OC in the relationship between HRM and IP. These objectives are stated in the following hypotheses:

H2: HRM influences positively the OC.
H4: OC mediates the relationship between HRM and IP.

Figure 1 represents graphically the theoretical model for this study and the hypotheses associated to it.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Design

According to the research designs classification system in Psychology by Ato et al. (2013) this study belongs to an empirical study. The strategy was associative as it explores the functional relationship among the three variables under analysis. The type of study is explanatory, where a mediation model was tested. Finally, latent variables design (LVD) or structural equation modeling (SEM) was used, consisting of two parts that make up the model: one structural or inner model (the relationship among the constructs) and the other measurement or outer model (the relationship between the indicators and the constructs they measure). The statistical procedure to estimate the parameters of the SEM model was based on the variances, also known as Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM).

Participants

The study sample was made up of health sector personnel working in Colombian non-profit hospitals (NPHs). These are public, private or mixed organizations that provide medical care in three levels: (1) care by general, technical and auxiliary personnel, with low complexity technology, (2) care by specialized personnel, with medium complexity technology, and (3) care by specialized personnel and subspecialized, with the technology of the highest complexity (Prada-Ríos et al., 2017). Only third level NPHs participated and were made up of regional, university and specialized hospitals.

Participants were selected through non-probability, intentional sampling (Kerlinger and Lee, 2000). *A priori* statistical power analysis was computed to obtain the minimum sample size. This minimum sample size ensures that the results of the statistical method are robust and that the model is generalizable. The analysis was performed using the G*Power 3.1.9.7 software (Faul et al., 2009). This statistical procedure requires to previously set input parameters, namely a significance level of 0.01 (two tails); an expected statistical power of 0.95, higher than the recommended by Cohen (1992) expected effect size (f^2) of 0.15 or moderate effect; and two predictors. After the analysis, the minimum recommended sample size was determined to be 123 (**Figure 2**).

The sample size was made up of 162 Colombian NPHs workers, however, only 150 were finally included in the study. 12 measurement scales were rejected as they presented more than 15% of incomplete answers and three items or more unanswered (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2019). This resulted in a 92.59% valid response rate. Based on the 150 participants, the time they have been working in the NPHs ranged from 1 to 30 years ($M = 6.046$, $SD = 5.72$), 65.3% were women, 31.3% were doctors, almost all (99.3%) belonged to public NPHs, and 34.7% had undergraduate studies. **Table 1** presents the complete sociodemographic characteristics of the participants.
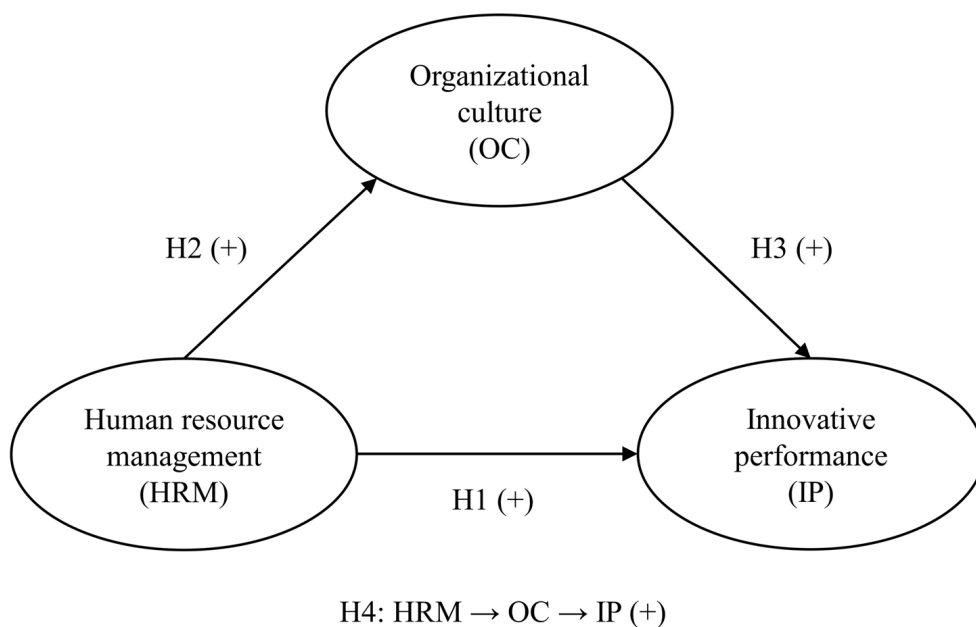

FIGURE 1 | Theoretical model and research hypotheses; HRM, human resource management; OC, organizational culture; IP, innovative performance.
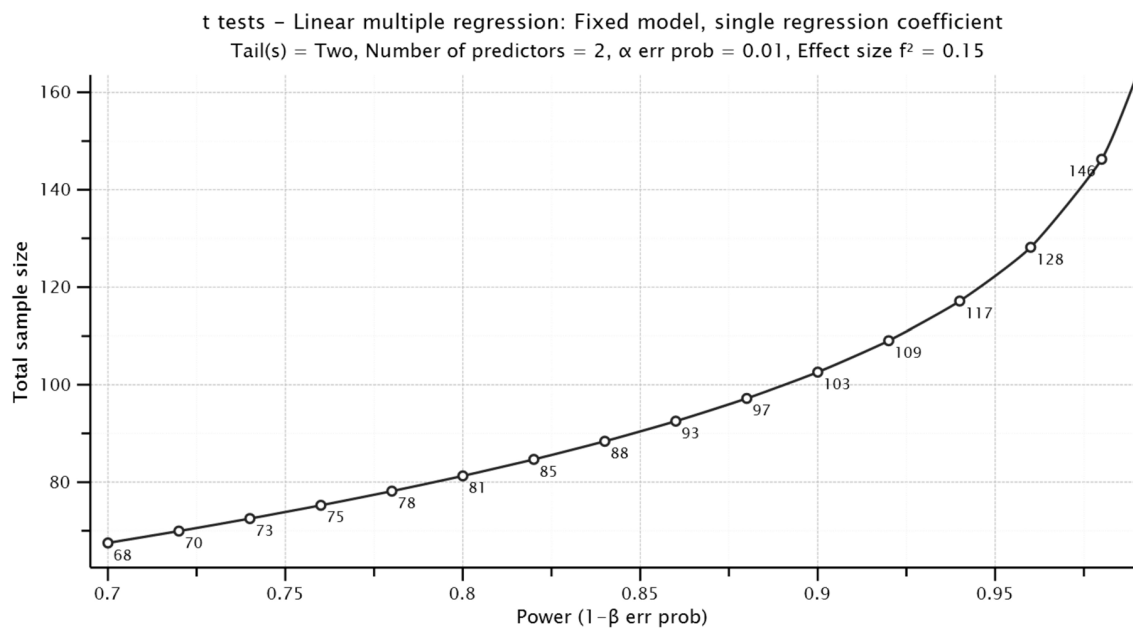
FIGURE 2 | Minimum recommended sample size based on *a priori* power analysis.

TABLE 1 | Sociodemographic characteristics of the participants (n = 150).

Characteristic	n	%
Gender		
Female	98	65.333
Male	44	29.333
Missing	8	5.333
Entailment		
Auxiliaries	35	23.333
Manager or administrative staff	30	20.000
Nurses	33	22.000
Doctors	47	31.333
Missing	5	3.333
Type		
Private	1	0.667
Public	149	99.333
Academic degree		
Doctoral	3	2.000
Master	10	6.667
Specialization	50	33.333
Undergraduate	52	34.667
Technician	29	19.333
No academic degree	1	0.667
Missing	5	3.333

Instrument

All the study variables were measured through a measurement scale with satisfactory psychometric properties developed by López et al. (2018a). It measures a set of variables related to innovation in the health sector. For this study, three of these variables were considered: human resources management (measured through 10 items, from HRM–1 to HRM–10), organizational culture (measured through two items, OC–1 and OC–2) and innovative performance (measured through three items, from IP–1 to IP–3). The items were five points Likert scales, ranging from 1 (no activity has been carried out to improve the characteristic of interest) to 5 (positive results have been obtained against the aspect investigated).

The instrument was developed in a sample of 107 Colombian hospitals workers between 2016 and 2017, and the variables associated with innovation in health organizations were selected from a systematic review. In the original scale, the three variables had high levels of internal consistency measured through the alpha coefficient (López et al., 2018b). Besides, it has validity evidence based on the internal structure, through exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis (López et al., 2018b). This sequence of analyses indicate that the instrument meets the psychometric properties required for a measurement scale in the social and health sciences (Acosta-Prado et al., 2020).

Procedure

To collect the data, a form in Google Forms was sent via email to all members of the NPHs. The instrument included information regarding the research objectives. Before sending the email, all workers gave their consent to participate in the study. The responses were stored into a spreadsheet on Google Drive, while taking care of the anonymity of the participant responses. The research was carried out following the Declaration of Helsinki.

The missing data, that is to say not-answered items, were eliminated when they reached more than 15% of unanswered items per case. The remaining missing data was replaced with the mean of the valid values of the correspondent indicator. This method was used because its ease to use and the missing

values were found less than 5% of the values per indicator (Hair et al., 2017).

Data Analysis

For the statistical analysis, the Partial Least Squares (PLS), an approximation of the variance-based structural equation modeling (SEM) was used. This technique was selected due to the properties of the constructs that are part of the research model (Ali et al., 2018). PLS-SEM estimates coefficients that maximize the explained variance of endogenous constructs, giving the predictive characteristic to this statistical technique (Mateos-Aparicio, 2011). SmartPLS 3.2.9 software (Ringle et al., 2015) was used for this study.

Among the advantages of the PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2011) are (a) the absence of identification problems with reduced sample sizes, usually reaching high levels of statistical power with small sample sizes; (b) the data distribution does not involve assumptions as it is a nonparametric method; (c) its robustness in the presence of missing values, as long as they are below a reasonable limit; (d) the amount of unexplained variance is reduced; and (e) the reliability and validity of the measurement models are assessed using various criteria.

In PLS-SEM, the structural model describes the relationships among the latent variables (constructs) and the measurement model represent the relationships between the constructs and their corresponding indicators. Regarding the latter, two specification categories must be considered: reflective and formative measurement models (Rigdon, 2012). In reflective models, the indicators are the effects or manifestations of an underlying construct; on the contrary, in formative models, the indicators form the construct using linear combinations (Jarvis et al., 2003). In this study, a reflective measurement model was used, where reflective indicators support the idea that the construct causes the measurement or covariation of the indicators. Likewise, in the structural model, HRM is an exogenous latent variable, whereas OC and IP are endogenous latent variables.

Before the PLS-SEM analysis, it was verified that the data do not deviate excessively from a normal distribution since data that are far from normal are problematic at evaluating the significance of the parameters. Specifically, these data overestimate the standard errors obtained by bootstrapping which reduces the possibility to consider some path coefficients as statistically significant (Henseler et al., 2009). Therefore, the kurtosis and skewness of the data distributions (indicators) were examined, and values between −1 and +1 were considered appropriate (Hair et al., 2019a). Besides, the mean was estimated as a measure of central tendency and the standard deviation as a measure of variability, both descriptive statistics give an idea of how the participants responded to the items on the measurement scale.

The PLS-SEM results are analyzed following a systematic process. The evaluation of the quality of the measurement and structural models focuses on statistics that indicate the predictive capacity of the model (Hair et al., 2013). Regarding the reflective measurement model, the reliability was assessed by the internal consistency method, using the alpha, rho_A, and composite reliability (CR) coefficients, as well as the reliability of the individual indicator and the average variance extracted (AVE) to evaluate convergent validity. The assessment of the reflective measurement model also included discriminant validity. The Fornell and Larcker criteria and the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) were used to examine the discriminant validity. In the structural model, the measures considered were R^2 (explained variance), f^2 (effect size), $Q^2_{predict}$ (predictive performance), and the magnitude and statistical significance of the path coefficients.

To test the statistical significance of the coefficients, the non-parametric bootstrap procedure was used with 10,000 bootstrap samples without sign change (Streukens and Leroi-Werelds, 2016). The bootstrap process provides the standard error for any estimated coefficient and this error serves as the basis to determine the empirical value of t and its associated p-value. Likewise, the bias-corrected and accelerated (BCa) bootstrap-based method was used to construct the confidence intervals at a 95% confidence level and two tails (Henseler et al., 2009).

Finally, an importance-performance map analysis (IPMA) was performed to expand the PLS-SEM results, adding a dimension to the analysis that considers the scores' mean values of the latent and observable variables (Höck et al., 2010). The objective of this analysis was to identify the antecedent constructs and indicators that have relatively high importance in the objective construct (innovative performance) but at the same time relatively low performance. The latter is important to detect potential areas that should receive more attention (Nigel, 1994).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive Analysis of the Items

Both skewness and kurtosis are close to zero for all the items (**Table 2**), indicating that the response pattern corresponds to a normal distribution. Specifically, the kurtosis values varied between −0.778 (HRM–4) and 0.223 (OC–1), while the skewness coefficients fluctuated between −0.723 (OC–1) and 0.057 (HRM–8), that are below the limits indicated by Hair et al. (2019b). Likewise, the mean and standard deviation had similar values throughout all the items. The mean was close to 3 and the standard deviation was around 1 (**Table 3**).

Measurement Model Evaluation

Internal consistency reliability was the first criterion to evaluate. This indicates the degree of consistency among indicators to measure the constructs. The alpha coefficient, rho_A, and CR were examined and above the critical threshold of 0.700 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The HRM variable was the one that obtained the highest values in the three coefficients. Due to these results, it can be concluded that the scores obtained by the participants of the study sample in the three constructs presented adequate levels of reliability.

The convergent validity refers to the degree of positive correlation between one measure and other alternative measures of the same construct. For this purpose, the size of the outer loadings, commonly called indicator reliability, was analyzed. All the indicators of the reflective constructs presented loadings equal to or greater than 0.763 (HRM–5), above the criterion

Code	Indicator
HRM–1	Develop competencies with the purpose of increasing the performance of collaborators.
HRM–2	Promote the development of teamwork skills.
HRM–3	Create opportunities for professional growth for employees at the hospitals.
HRM–4	Promote the rise of those employees who meet the established goals.
HRM–5	Allow collaborators freedom so that they can make decisions regarding their work activities.
HRM–6	Keep in the clinic or hospital those people with excellent job performance.
HRM–7	Make sure that a clinic or hospital is focused on the development of people.
HRM–8	Evaluate novel ideas by collaborators.
HRM–9	Promote an environment that encourages the generation of new ideas among its collaborators.
HRM–10	Promote collaboration between members of the organization.
OC–1	The values of the organization are the permanent guide in the innovation processes.
OC–2	Create a work environment that fosters innovation processes.
IP–1	Incursion with new services to its users.
IP–2	Permanently develop innovative projects.
IP–3	Generate new processes in the hospitals (new ways of doing everyday work, new surgical procedures, new systems).

TABLE 3 | Descriptive statistics and measurement model.

Variable	M	SD	Ku	Sk	Outer loadings	Weights
Human resource management						
HRM–1	3.300	1.044	−0.254	−0.238	0.861	0.131
HRM–2	3.400	1.033	−0.161	−0.352	0.868	0.127
HRM–3	3.173	1.088	−0.483	−0.194	0.857	0.117
HRM–4	2.907	1.151	−0.778	−0.054	0.812	0.110
HRM–5	3.200	1.172	−0.770	−0.296	0.763	0.102
HRM–6	3.320	1.127	−0.464	−0.460	0.774	0.106
HRM–7	3.167	1.003	−0.472	0.019	0.857	0.113
HRM–8	3.033	1.092	−0.576	0.057	0.817	0.113
HRM–9	3.013	0.993	−0.478	−0.109	0.903	0.140
HRM–10	3.312	0.984	−0.025	−0.293	0.857	0.130
Organizational culture						
OC–1	3.620	1.024	0.223	−0.723	0.938	0.530
OC–2	3.302	1.073	−0.230	−0.464	0.939	0.536
Innovative performance						
IP–1	3.413	1.053	−0.525	−0.305	0.910	0.363
IP–2	3.167	1.104	−0.457	−0.336	0.933	0.399
IP–3	3.233	1.048	−0.356	−0.271	0.899	0.331

M, mean; SD, standard deviation; Ku, kurtosis; Sk, skewness.

of 0.708 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) see **Table 3**. Also, the AVE was calculated and it represents the mean value of the commonality of the indicators of certain construct. The three constructs presented values greater than 0.700 (**Table 4**), showing a very good level of convergent validity (Moral, 2019).

TABLE 4 | Correlation matrix, reliability, convergent and discriminant validity, and heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT).

Variable	Alpha	rho_A	CR	AVE	HRM	OC	IP
Human resource management	0.953	0.957	0.959	0.702	0.838*		
Organizational culture	0.864	0.864	0.936	0.880	0.737	0.938*	
Innovative performance	0.902	0.910	0.938	0.836	0.684	0.717	0.914*
Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT)							
Human resource management					0.673†		
Organizational culture					0.808	0.763†	
Innovative performance					0.730	0.808	0.754†

Square root of the AVE; †average inter-item correlations; alpha, alpha coefficient; rho_A, coefficient rho_A; CR, composite reliability; AVE, average variance extracted; HRM, human resource management; OC, organizational culture; IP, innovative performance.

Concerning discriminant validity, it informs to what extent a construct is different from other constructs. The first method used was the Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion, which compares the square root of the AVE values with the correlations of the latent variables, where the first must be greater. As a second method, the HTMT ratio of the correlations was used because it is the best criterion in PLS-SEM to assess discriminant validity, and it requires, as appropriate values, numbers under 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015). The results of the study indicate that both the Fornell and Lacker criteria and the HTMT ratio obtained satisfactory levels (**Table 4**). Furthermore, the HTMT for HRM and OC was 0.808 [0.702; 0.895], for HRM and IP it was 0.730 [0.612; 0.823], and for OC and IP it was 0.808 [0.694; 0.889]. The HTMT confidence interval did not include 1 (Franke and Sarstedt, 2019).

Structural Model Evaluation

The results of the structural model (**Table 5**) show that OC has a direct effect on IP (0.467), followed by HRM (0.340). Likewise, the two constructs explain 56.7% of the variance of the endogenous construct IP ($R^2 = 0.567$), as observed in **Figure 3**. HRM also explains 54.3% of the variance of OC. On the other hand, based on the magnitudes of the path coefficients, all the relationships were statistically significant (**Table 5**). Regarding effect sizes, Cohen (1988) assessment was performed with values of $f^2 > 0.02$, $f^2 > 0.15$, and $f^2 > 0.35$ that represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively. Results indicate a small effect on H1, a medium effect on H3, and a large effect on H2. In summary, both HRM and OC are moderately strong predictors of IP (**Table 5**).

In addition, the statistical significance ($t = 5.048$, $p < 0.001$) of the indirect effect of HRM on IP through OC (0.344) was observed. From these results, a complementary mediation is given, where both the indirect effect and the direct effects are statistically significant and point in the same direction
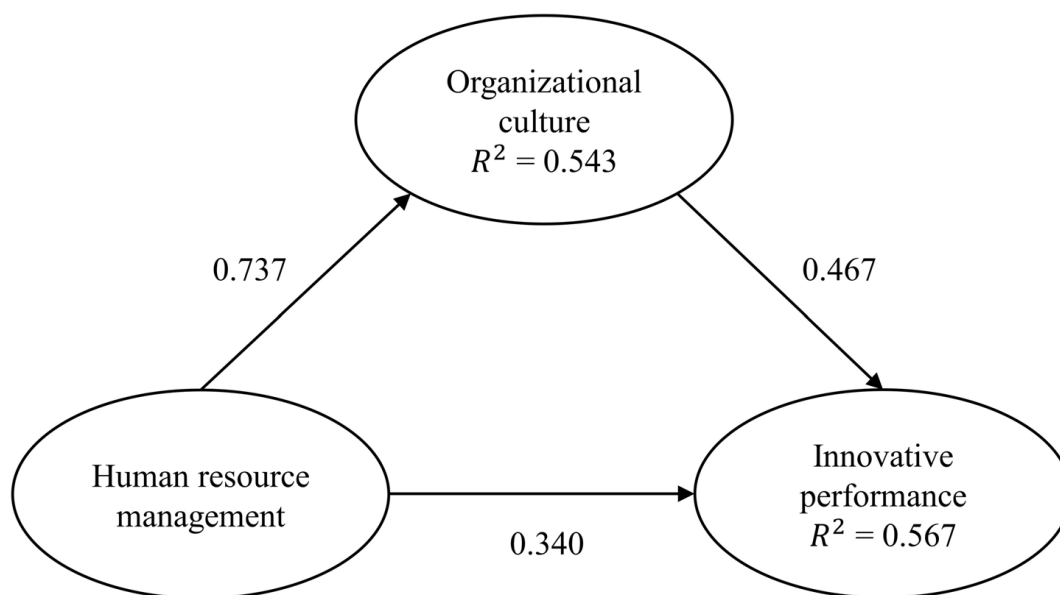
FIGURE 3 | Assessment results of path coefficients and variance explained (R^2).

TABLE 5 | Structural model evaluation.

Hypotheses	Path coefficient	t-Statistic	95% BCa	f^2	R^2	$Q^2{}_{predict}$
H1: HRM → IP	0.340	3.852***	[0.156; 0.496]	0.122	0.567	0.459
H2: HRM → OC	0.737	16.238***	[0.628; 0.808]	1.188	0.543	0.537
H3: OC → IP	0.467	5.251***	[0.275; 0.632]	0.230		
H4: HRM → OC → IP	0.344	5.048***	[0.207; 0.484]			

***$p < 0.001$.

(Nitzl et al., 2016). That is to say, OC mediates partially and in a complementary way the relationship between HRM on IP.

Finally, the $Q^2{}_{predict}$ indicator was examined to assess the predictive performance of the structural model. If the $Q^2{}_{predict}$ value is positive, the prediction error of the PLS-SEM results is less than the prediction error of simply using the mean values. $Q^2{}_{predict}$ values were interpreted with Hair et al. (2019a) rule of thumb and values of 0.01, 0.25, and 0.50, respectively, show small, medium and high-relevance situations of a model. Besides, a medium relevance for H1 and great relevance for H2 were found (**Table 5**).

Importance-Performance Map Analysis

In this analysis, the total effects represent the importance of the background indicators and constructs to explain the objective variable (innovative performance), while the mean scores of the variables represent their respective achieved performances (Höck et al., 2010). Results show that HRM has a performance of 55 and OC of 62 (**Table 6**). The constructs show relatively high performance. HRM expresses greater importance at predicting innovative performance (**Table 6**).

In **Figure 4**, the IPMA is presented at the level of indicators seeking to identify relevant and specific areas to improve. In this way, the weights are interpreted as the relative importance of one

TABLE 6 | Summary of importance-performance map analysis (IPMA) data.

Variable	Importance	Performance
Human resource management	0.684	54.680
HRM–1	0.090	57.500
HRM–2	0.087	60.000
HRM–3	0.080	54.333
HRM–4	0.075	47.667
HRM–5	0.070	55.000
HRM–6	0.073	58.000
HRM–7	0.077	54.167
HRM–8	0.077	50.833
HRM–9	0.096	50.333
HRM–10	0.089	57.790
Organizational culture	0.467	61.589
OC–1	0.247	65.500
OC–2	0.250	57.550

indicator compared to the other indicators in the measurement model. HRM indicators present a high performance but low importance for IP, so they have a lower priority when looking for improvements in their performance. On the contrary, the OC indicators show greater importance to explain innovation
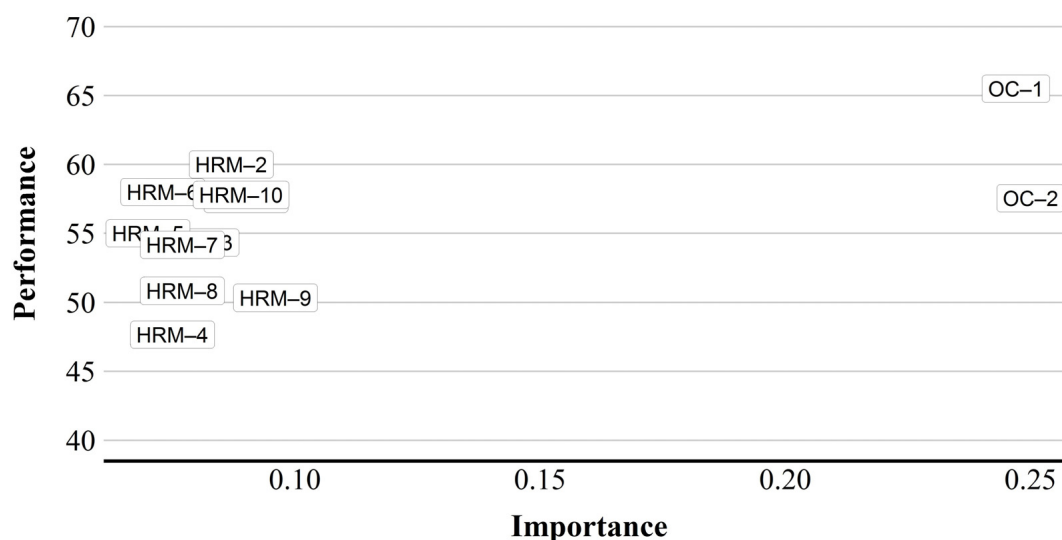
FIGURE 4 | Importance-Performance map (indicators).

performance, consequently, they are the most relevant indicators to initiate management actions by NPHs.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

Based on the analysis of the data, all the hypotheses are supported. Specifically, the influence of HRM over IP is statistically significant. Meanwhile, OC partially mediates this relationship in hospitals working in a non-profit basis. According to this evidence, IP is explained by the strategy to manage the human resources and by the underpinning culture in this type of hospitals.

These findings are evidence to support the knowledge-based theory which means that the theory is also applicable to NPH's context. As stated by Kang et al. (2007) HRM plays an important role in the value creation process that, in the case of NPH, bears new practices such as process, service or product to improve efficacy of results. Besides, the significance of these relationships is aligned with prior studies that also pointed out the impact of HRM on IP (Adnan et al., 2016; Métailler, 2016; Diaz-Fernandez et al., 2017). Similarly, the relationship among both variables was previously studied and found to be at the other direction which may indicate that both are linked in a cyclic pattern where HRM influence IP and vice versa. Furthermore, this result entitles a chance for NPH's to pursue innovation and at the same time reach a competitive advantage in the market (Wernerfelt, 1984; Conner, 1991; Grant, 1991; Collis and Montgomery, 1995; Teece et al., 1997).

IP has shown to be significantly influenced by OC according to this study's results which is also aligned with prior research (Jaskyte, 2018, 2015). Innovation success has been previously associated with OC and organizational innovation capabilities (Long and Fahey, 2000; Leal-Rodríguez et al., 2014). There is evidence that organizational principles and climate are components of organizational culture and have more implications on the innovative processes (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Fondas and Denison, 1991; Ahmed, 1998; Jaskyte, 2004, 2015; Meyer and Leitner, 2018). However, this study did not explore these further dimensions remaining the study of OC as a composite construct for future research.

This study assessed the role of OC as a mediator variable between HRM and IP. This relationship still considered a direct link between these variables, so OC played a partial mediation. The data was actually consistent with these theoretical relationships stated in the first place. That is to say, even the nature of organizations for prior findings regarding this topic, namely private companies, OC behaves similarly in non-profit hospitals. This also supports the positive influence of OC over IP found in non-profit organizations (Jaskyte, 2004, 2011, 2018; Bal et al., 2014; Langer and LeRoux, 2017; Shier et al., 2019). Thus, NPHs outreach a social innovation performance that promotes a more inclusive healthcare and depict good example for other kind of social business models (Vecchio and Rappini, 2011; Michelini, 2012; Angeli and Jaiswal, 2016).

This study found support for the stated hypotheses, however, it also faced some limitations. Regarding the sample group, of the 150 participants, only one is part of a private non-profit hospital which limit the possibility to extent these results to them. Regarding the OC variable, there was not chance to include organizational principles and climate as dimensions to assess whether they influence the most to IP as found for profit organizations. Regarding the methodological limitations of the study, all the variables were measured through a self-report instrument, whose responses could be influenced by personal biases of the workers, especially in variables such as innovative performance, where it is mainly based on the perception of same. Therefore, future studies are needed to clarify these findings.

A favorable methodological aspect of the study was the use of PLS-SEM. Among the advantages of using PLS-SEM is that it allows researchers to estimate complex models with various constructs and indicators, without requiring distributional assumptions of the data (Hair et al., 2017). These methodological advantages are supported by the PLS-SEM own conceptualization, which has a causal-predictive approach (Hair et al., 2019b). PLS-SEM should be considered not only as a less demanding measure than CB-SEM but as a complementary approach in the SEM context. Thus, PLS-SEM can be used in a wide variety of research environments, obtaining high efficiency in parameter estimation, reflected in a greater statistical power of the analysis (Hair et al., 2013).

However, this technique also has some limitations, mainly when seeking to test or confirm theoretical models, because PLS-SEM does not have fully established measures of goodness of fit, although there is a line of research in this regard, with positive results in recent years (Henseler et al., 2014). Therefore, when there is little knowledge about the relationship of the structural model or the characteristics of the measurement model, or when the study focuses more on exploration than confirmation, PLS-SEM is a better alternative than CB-SEM (Hair et al., 2017).

Future studies are advised to be addressed regarding the following points. The relationship between HRM and IP need more clarification as prior studies contradict this study's findings leaving unsolved the direction of possible influences between these variables. The role and nature of OC because prior literature and the mediator role it has between HRM and IP raise questions about how it behaves as a composite construct and what exactly are its elements, particularly, in the context of NPHs where the mainstream differs from for-profit organizations and such. Finally, further investigations need to explore the empirical indicators of innovative performance, such as the number of patents registered, the number of new services implemented, or others in order to have a better understanding of this endogenous variable and how it is influenced.

Regarding practical implications, this study reflects an opportunity for NPHs to implement an innovative approach regarding their organizational performance. Technology is often related to innovation that demands organizations the investment of money that sometimes is difficult to count on. This is the case of most non-profit organizations such as non-profit hospitals. For this reason, the resources-based theory (Barney, 1991) pushes companies to take advantage of all

their resources to earn the expected performance and develop competitive advantages. This view leads to value the HRM as an element to foster the IP, which could be more affordable in a general basis. Particularly, as human resources influence positively the performance of non-profit organizations without much effort to manage them, a reasonable investment on the staff management might be even more beneficial for an innovative performance.

The findings support the hypotheses remaining some aspects to deepen. HRM is a wide element in the organizational performance that is supposed to manage the OC as well as staff training, compensation, promotion and so forth. Similarly, the organizational climate and principles are related to OC and they are worth being included in the model. Broadening the model considering their dimensions might lead to better understand and predict an innovative performance. Furthermore, assessing the model to other non-profit organizations into the health sector that handle tight budgets as well, for instance nursing homes, might be conclusive about the role of HRM to positive influence IP to enhance quality of life overall.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The datasets presented in this article are not readily available because data is the property of a third party. Requests to access the datasets should be directed to OL-M, ohlopezm@ut.edu.co.

ETHICS STATEMENT

Ethical review and approval was not required for the study on human participants in accordance with the local legislation and institutional requirements. Written informed consent to participate in this study was provided by the participants.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

JA-P, OL-M, CS-P, and RZ-T contributed to the conception and design of the study, organized the database, performed the statistical analysis, wrote the first draft of the manuscript, and wrote sections of the manuscript. All authors contributed to the manuscript revision, read and approved the submitted version.

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Encountering Suffering at Work in Health Religious Organizations: A Partial Least Squares Path Modeling Case-Study

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Health religious organizations tend to offer individual attention to patients in line with their spiritual character and, at the same time, the highest service quality. This study puts the attention on the nurse-patient relationship and empirically explores a theoretical model that links nurses' suffering at work with personal's willingness to engage in a therapeutic and spiritual relationship with patients and the consequent effect on quality. Data has been collected in the city of Madrid (Spain) in the month of June 2019 in Santa Elena Clinic. An analytical case-study based on Partial Least Squares (PLS) path modeling is the chosen method to verify the cause-effect hypothesized relationships. This study contributes to the current academic literature by providing new knowledge and empirical evidence on the topic of the future of work in health religious organizations. The main conclusion is the necessary inclusion of suffering, even in good places to work, as a key indicator for a better management. Results should be a useful source of information for practitioners that seek to implement better human management systems in these organizations.

Keywords: health, hospitals, quality, nurse-patient relationship, religious organizations, suffering

INTRODUCTION

Poor knowledge exists concerning the effects of suffering at work on health and occupational safety (Tetrick and Quick, 2003). Although researchers are becoming increasingly interested in understanding suffering at work such as Gismera et al. (2019), and companies start to be conscious about the organizational problems associated is an unexplored topic. The current human management systems do not directly address this problem, and there is a lack of evidence regarding how to manage suffering in organizations.

Religious health care institutions, most of them Catholic in Spain, are communities of healing, but also communities of compassion. That means that the service offered is not limited to the clinical treatment of the disease (physical dimension). In addition, religious health care institutions embrace the psychological, social and spiritual dimensions of the patients and the medical expertise is combined with spiritual forms of care to minimize human suffering. The encounter of Christians with human suffering is taken on a positive meaning through the redemptive power of Jesus' suffering and death. At this respect, the United States Conference of Catholic Bishops (2001) highlighted "healing and compassion as a continuation of Christ's mission and suffering as a

participation in the redemptive power of Christ's passion, death, and resurrection." Going beyond the achievement of service quality, that is a general business goal (Lee et al., 2000; Glickman et al., 2007) to develop a close relationship with patients is considered the central aspect of health religious organizations. Consequently, measuring and managing the suffering in the workplace seems to be more important in this type of organizations, devoted to mitigate the suffering of others from the physical and the spiritual dimensions, than in other non-religious.

This study explores a structural model that links suffering at work with personal's willingness to engage in a therapeutic and spiritual relationship. Data was collected in Madrid in the month of June 2019 in Santa Elena Clinic. Partial Least Squares (PLS) path modeling is the chosen analytical method to test the model and identify cause-effect relationships. This study will contribute to the academic literature by providing new knowledge and empirical evidence on the topic and a very useful source of information for practitioners that seek to implement better human management systems in health religious organizations.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Suffering at work has been recently defined as a destabilizing and unpleasant psychological experience arising when the employee runs into insuperable and tenacious barriers, after having used up all his or her available resources trying to improve the organization of work with regards to quality and safety (Bontemps et al., 2018). According to the Psychodynamics Theory (PT) of work and organizations, a person's working experience undergoes the same intrapsychic conflicts as other aspects of life. Czander (1993) pointed out that the traditional view of system man/woman is that he/she is motivated by the need for material goods (economic matters) but the psychoanalytic perspective defends the neurotic condition of all human beings conditioned by shadowy wishes and fears. Under this theory, Diamond and Allcorn (2003) defined organizations as processes of human behavior that are considered as experiential and perceptual systems dominated by unconscious schemes (Prins, 2006). The workplace has been conceptualized as psychological space and a meaningful workplace implies a good relationship employee-organization in terms of dedication, loyalty and commitment (Chalofsky, 2003; Glomb et al., 2011) where spirituality has a relevant role (Steenkamp and Basson, 2013). Some recent works exist devoted to the study of these topics within the context of religious organizations (Ariza-Montes et al., 2017, 2019; Ortiz-Gómez et al., 2020).

Most human beings are inclined to avoid suffering (Connelly, 2009). The recommendation of Diamond and Allcorn (2003) for human resources managers is to bring into the workplace those things that contribute to making work a meaningful experience that will contribute to the employees' mental health. In the same vain, and following some authors from the field of coaching such as Briner (1999), de Vries (2004), Peltier (2011) in this research the argument is made that unconscious dynamics related to job satisfaction, but also suffering at work, causes a significant

impact on organizations and, in addition, on service quality (Ellinger et al., 2011).

Job satisfaction is a complex and multifaceted construct (Judge and Kinger, 2007). Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences." In general terms, job satisfaction is reflected on the positive perception of professional achievement (Gazioglu and Tansel, 2006) related to motivation (Tzeng, 2002; Egan et al., 2004), spiritual well-being (Duggleby et al., 2009) psychological well-being (Munir et al., 2012; Burton et al., 2017), recognition (Ernst et al., 2004; Clarke and Mahadi, 2017), and pride for a given work activity (Utriainen and Kyngäs, 2009). It has been also recognized that satisfaction at work is reflected in the opportunity to express feelings and opinions to colleagues and supervisors and different experiences at work such as solidarity, cooperation or the possibility of using creativity at work (Noon et al., 2013; Guillén et al., 2015). In this context, although job satisfaction in the health care field is considered a significant element of health service quality (Snipes et al., 2005; Mosadeghrad, 2014; Choi et al., 2016), it is still largely understudied.

In general terms, traditionally medical literature has contained few studies that specifically address suffering (Cassell, 1982) and most authors who have tried to define suffering argued for its complementarity with the term pain (Egnew, 2005). However, the study of human suffering has advanced considerably in the last years (Coulehan, 2018). Some authors such as Montoya-Juarez et al. (2013) defined suffering as a state of pain more or less permanent, experienced by the subject within a specific society and culture, when facing a perceived threat as capable of destroying their own physical or psychosocial integrity, and before which they feel vulnerable and helpless.

Suffering in the workplace is probably a more common occurrence than expected in everyday life. As individuals of the first quarter of the 21st century, we spend much of our time around the professional side, in the bosom of business organizations of one kind or another and of the most diverse sectors. The suffering of human beings can not be subtracted from us. In fact, suffering at work represents a condition that drives worker mobilization against inconsistencies experienced at work and may even trigger mental disease.

It coul be said that the workplace itself is a source of suffering. Probably, this is more accurate in specific professions in front-office, assuming risks and/or dealing with high responsibilities. Suffering at the workplace can be evaluated through the experience of exhaustion that is caused by the perception of stress (Quick and Henderson, 2016) dissatisfaction (Häggström et al., 2005), insecurity or fear (Probst and Lawler, 2006; Cheng and Chan, 2008).

However, that is a fact in all sectors and job positions when the increase of competition and the derived new forms of work organization are even causing harm employees' mental health (Hirigoyen, 2008). At this respect, Quick and Henderson (2016) reviewed the evidence concerning the health risks associated with occupational stress. Their arguments and final conclusions, that were developed from roots in preventive medicine and public health, highlighted the application of preventive management.

In the interests of both, employee well-being and company performance, suffering at work must be taken seriously by Human Resources Managers, especially in the service sector, because it is expected that it will impact the final quality of the service provided.

Moving to the specific reality of suffering at work in staff nurses, the work of Elpern et al. (2005) about moral distress in a medical intensive care unit is a good example. The author identifies frequent and intense contexts where nurses suffer at work dealing with specific treatments for terminally ill patients and related technical and moral/ethical decisions. In academic literature, other authors have analyzed nursing and suffering at work focusing the attention on work stress (Taylor et al., 1999; Adeb-Saeedi, 2002; Dominguez-Gomez and Rutledge, 2009) burnout (Malach-Pines, 2000; Alimoglu and Donmez, 2005; Pompili et al., 2006; Khamisa et al., 2013) or both, in relation to the environment and the working conditions (Jennings, 2008).

Service quality has been deeply studied in academic literature originally from the Nordic School (Chowdhary and Prakash, 2007; Gummesson et al., 2012) and especially in health services (Isaac et al., 2010; Kitapci et al., 2014; Meesala and Paul, 2018). Once the existence of suffering at work in organizations has been recognized, it must be managed in health religious clinics and the quality of the healthcare service must be guaranteed.

To sum up, satisfied personnel in religious health-care organizations would develop a trusting and connected relationship with patients. Thus, we can expect high levels of nurse-patient relationship (Moyle, 2003; Mok and Chiu, 2004; Ward et al., 2009) and high levels of service quality (Landrum et al., 2009). However, poor knowledge exists concerning the effects of nurses' suffering at work on service quality, basically because the current human management systems do not directly address this problem. Trying to contribute to fill the gap, this study contributes to the topic with new insights.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Design

An analytical case-study based on primary data was carried on. The case-study had three differentiated steps. Firstly, the Santa Elena Clinic was selected for being considered a best place to work. To verify this assumption nurses' satisfaction at work was measured throughout an *ad hoc* anonymous self-administered questionnaire.

Secondly, the study analyzed the causal effect between nurse-patient relationship and the quality of the service provided (Model A). Finally, suffering at work was included to test the effect on the process of attending the patients and attaining the goal of high service quality (Model B).

Figure 1 shows the theoretical model A and B on the basis of this study representing the following hypotheses:

H1: Nurse-Patient Relationship has a direct and positive impact on service quality.

H2: Suffering at work has a direct and negative impact on nurse-patient relationship.

H3: Suffering at work has a direct and negative impact on service quality.

Participants and Procedures

Catholic Hospitals of Madrid is the first non-lucrative health group in the city of Madrid in Spain. One of its members is Santa Elena Clinic, a Catholic health organization that has been run for more than half a century by the Religious Society of Saint José from Gerona. In all the centers the patient receives an individual attention in line with the human and spiritual character of the religious organization based on the maximum respect for the person and for life. This work is carried out with high level of dedication and love by religious, volunteers and professionals.

A total of 140 nurses were contacted in Santa Elena Clinic in Madrid, in the month of June 2019. A pilot test was carried out in order to check that the survey would be appropriately interpreted by the respondent. A final sample of 102 valid questionnaires were collected. **Table 1** presents the study's technical data sheet.

Data Analysis Methods

Descriptive statistics first, and structural equations modeling (SEM) later, have been used considering it very suitable for our research interests following Czander (1993). Concretely we want to highlight two reasons: because the constructs under study and the relationships between them, are really new; and both, the theoretical model and the relative measures, are not very well formed and generally accepted in the academic literature.

Structural equations modeling has been selected as the appropriate methodological tool considering that it offers the possibility to combine and compare theory with empirical data, performing multiple regressions between several latent variables to provide causal scientific explanations that go beyond the description and the association. In the present study, it has been applied the software developed by Ringle et al. (2005) denominated Smart-PLS (Partial Least Squares). PLS focuses on the explanation of variance using ordinary least squares, this technique is suited for the investigation of relationships in a predictive rather than a confirmatory fashion (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982). As a multivariate variance-based technique, PLS estimates path models involving latent constructs indirectly observed by multiple indicators. Furthermore, PLS is not sensitive to the assumptions of normality.

TABLE 1 | Technical data sheet.

Geographical Scope	Madrid (Spain)
Method of information collection	Personal contact
Population	140 nurses
Final sample	102 nurses
Index of participation	73%
Measurement error	5%
Trust level	95% $z = 1.96$ $p = q = 0.5$
Sampling method	Simple random
Average duration	3:40 (minutes: seconds)

FIGURE 1 | Theoretical Models **(A,B)**.
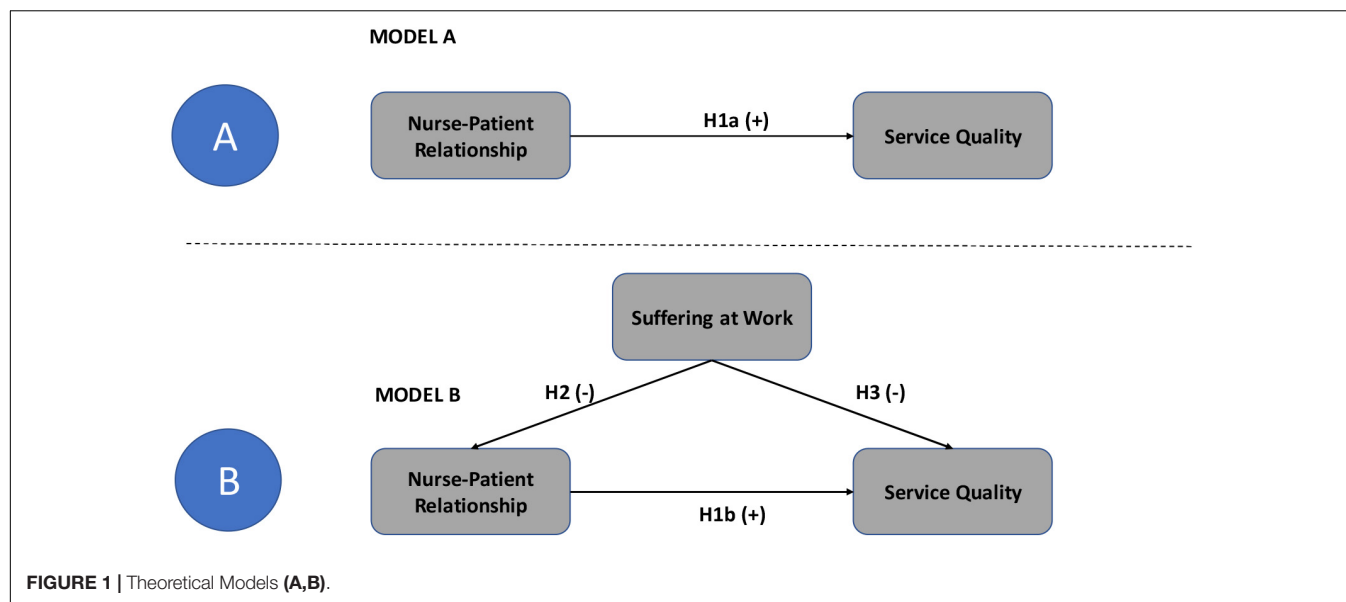
After verifying high levels of job satisfaction in the nurse-staff, a step-by-step analysis was conducted to offer a thorough analysis. In the first step, the focus was on the relationship between nurse-patient relationship and service quality. Subsequently, suffering at work was introduced, and the full structural model was assessed.

Measures and Instrument

An *ad hoc* questionnaire was elaborated to inquire into the nurse's perceptions concerning different constructs, with responses on a 5-point Likert scale. According to previous literature review, satisfaction at work was measured with the following six items: Satisfaction with professional achievements (S1); Proud to work here (S2); Freedom of expression to both, colleagues and bosses (S3); Trust in co-workers (S4); Feelings of solidarity and cooperation at work (S5); Possibility to be creative at work (S6). Nurse-patient relationship was measured throughout four items: Understanding the patients' needs (NPR1); Displaying caring actions and caring attitudes (NPR2); Providing holistic care (NPRN3); Acting as the patient's advocate (NPR4). Service Quality was measured throughout two items, Affective and therapeutic dimensions: Willingness to listen patients and to assist them to talk about their fears, anxieties and problems (SQ1); Willingness to help patients and provide prompt service (SQ2). Finally, suffering at work was measured with a direct and single item; Fear and insecurity at work (SFF).

Ethical Considerations

Health is a matter of public interest. Putting the focus on human resources management in health institutions, the study has been guided by considerations of social justice and decent work, seeking for sustainable job positions and guaranteeing the agreement of managers to perform the analysis and, at the same time, the anonymity for participants.

RESULTS

After verifying 3.9 average on job satisfaction on the sample, we considered the validity of the scales and the reliability of the measurement Model A and B (the *inner models*). The purpose was to analyze whether the theoretical concepts were properly measured by the observed items. This analysis was carried out for the two attributes validity (measuring what one really wanted to measure) and reliability (whether the process is stable and consistent). To this end we proceeded to calculate the reliability of individual items, the internal consistency or reliability of the scales and the analysis of the average variance extracted obtaining satisfactory results (**Table 2**).

After the satisfactory evaluation of the measurement models it was necessary to carry out a correct interpretation of the structural models in order to verify whether these models considered the proposed relationships between the latent variables. A structural model estimates the assumed causal and linear covariance relationships among exogenous and endogenous latent constructs. **Figure 2** shows graphically the main results from Models A and B.

To conclude the analysis, **Table 3** shows the hypotheses testing after bootstrap procedure. It was confirmed that the nurse-patient relationship is positively related to service

TABLE 2 | Main results.

	AVE	Composite reliability	R^2	Fornell-Larcker criteria			Heterotrait-Monotrait		
				NPR	SQ	SUFF	NPR	SQ	SUFF
NPR	0.53	0.81	0.08	0.73					
SQ	0.57	0.72	0.17	0.41	0.75		0.83		
SUFF	1.00	1.00		−0.28	−0.12	1.00	0.33	0.20	

FIGURE 2 | Main results: Models **(A,B)**.
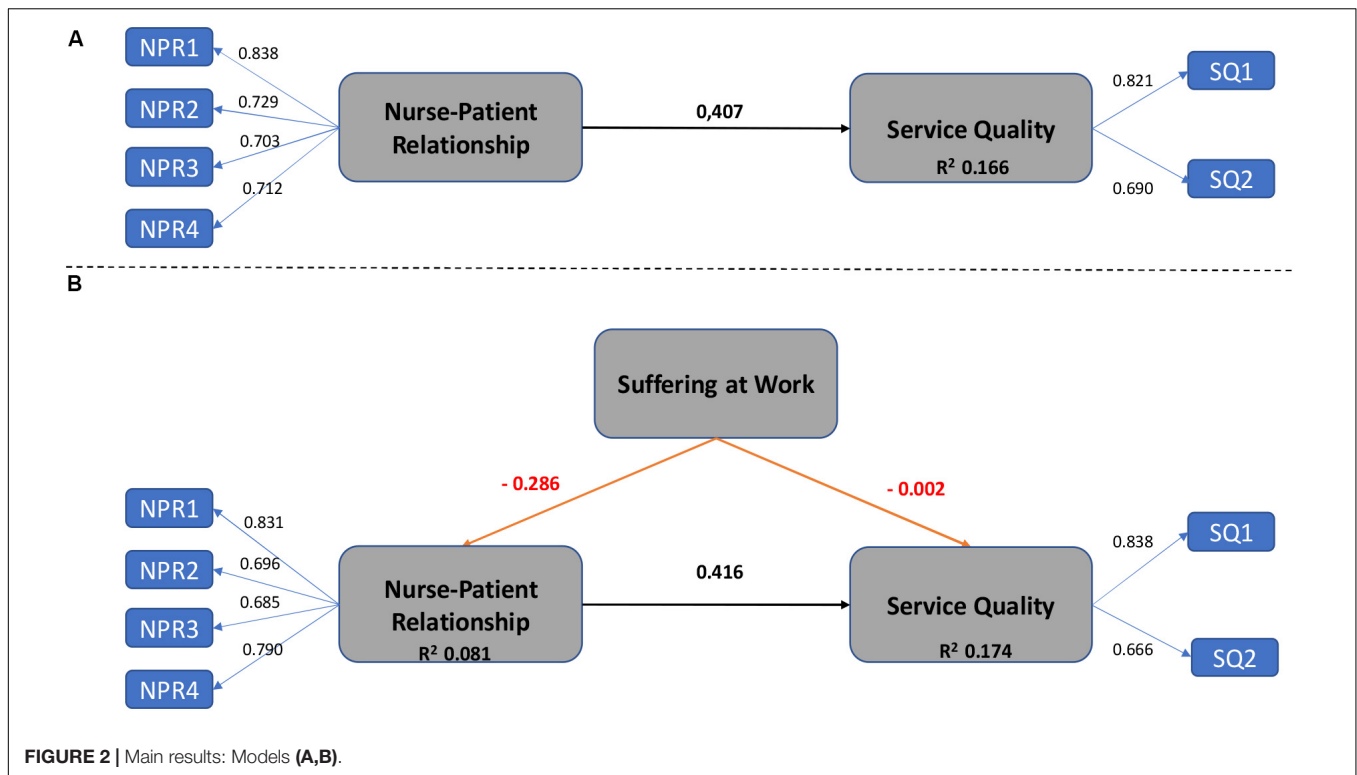
quality but the consideration of suffering at work reduce the positive impact. At the same time, it was verified the significant but negative relation between suffering and both, the nurse-patient relationship and the service quality as was previously hypothesized.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Health religious organizations offer professional and spiritual attention to their patients but suffering at the workplace exists, and often at the cost of service quality. In this work the nurse-patient relationship has been empirically explored through two complementary models. The first hypothesis of the study was verified in Model A when testing the direct and positive link between nurse-patient relationship and service quality. The results obtained from the second model, Model B, served for a twofold purpose.

TABLE 3 | Hypotheses testing.

Hypothesis: A → B	Original path coefficient (β)	Mean of sub-sample path coefficient	Error	t-value
H_1: NPR → SQ	0.41594	0.41520	0.01386	30.011***
H_2: SUFFERING → NPR	−0.28523	−0.28527	0.01548	18.420***
H_3: SUFFERING → SQ	−0.12057	−0.11934	0.01463	8.2372***

***$p < 0.001$ (based on a Student's two-tailed test, $t_{(499)}$) $t_{(0.05;499)} = 1.96$; $t_{(0.01;499)} = 2.59$; $t_{(0.001;499)} = 3.31$.

On the first hand, it confirms that suffering at work exists even in good places to work for, and even in religious organizations such as Santa Elena Clinic, with high levels of job satisfaction in their staff. That is in line to the consideration of suffering in the workplace as a more common occurrence than expected. On the second hand, results from Model B confirm previous works defending that suffering causes a significant impact on organizations (Briner, 1999; de Vries, 2004; Peltier, 2011). In our case, and confirming our hypotheses, there is a negative impact of suffering on nurse-patient relationship and also on service quality.

We can conclude that health-care personal in religious clinics, will have difficulties in meeting the needs of their patients and providing the best service to them if their own needs are not previously met as well. The novelty of this work is the study of suffering at work in a specific institution where, *a priori*, nurse-patient interaction is spiritual and therapeutically good, job satisfaction of nurses is high, and the organization presents high service quality standards. Even in this situation, suffering at work appears and negatively impacts both constructs, nurse-patient relationship and service quality. Thus, human resources responsible in healthcare institutions have to start considering measuring and managing suffering at work in order to improve the places to work for and the quality of their care systems.

The results of this research contribute to the literature on suffering at work among nursing staff in healthcare religious organizations by enhancing the understanding of its influence on the nurse-patient relationship and the final health service

quality. This study offers new policy insight for healthcare human resource managers who seek to increase service quality among their nursing staff. Managers grasping the importance of suffering at work affecting the well-being of nurses will be more likely to gain improved service quality.

Some recommendations in terms of the Human Resources Management policies in health religious organizations emerge. Assuming that behavior is often the result of conscious and unconscious mental processes, suffering at work must be taken into account when managing personnel to guarantee the quality of the final service. In line with, it should be highly innovative the implementation of questionnaires. The first reason should be accepting a visibility tool for managing suffering. The tool will measure the potential imbalance between what the nurse has to do and what is receiving from its immediate environment causing suffering.

Secondly, the implementation of an appropriate system to measure suffering at work will serve for understanding the phenomena, and for helping nurses to reflect on their emotions when attending patients in order to improve the final healthcare quality system. In the same line, other highly recommended tool according to literature review should be the implementation of mindfulness programs at work (Glomb et al., 2011) because mindfulness training has been shown to be effective in reducing suffering and enhancing psychological wellbeing (Burton et al., 2017) because health religious organizations must be "healthy organizations" as well.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors, without undue reservation.

ETHICS STATEMENT

Ethical review and approval was not required for the study on human participants in accordance with the local legislation and institutional requirements. Written informed consent from the participants was not required to participate in this study in accordance with the national legislation and the institutional requirements.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MS-H searched and reviewed the study, analyzed the data, wrote the manuscript, and supervised research process. EG-T performed the data collection. EG-T, JL-F, and JF-F critically reviewed the manuscript. All authors contributed to data interpretation and approved the final version of the manuscript for submission.

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The Marketing Firm and the Consumer Organization: A Comparative Analysis With Special Reference to Charitable Organizations

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The accurate delineation of various forms of business organization requires a comparative analysis of their objectives, functions, and organizational structures. In particular, this paper highlights differences in managerial work between business firms and non-profits exemplified by the charitable organization. It adopts as its template the theory of the marketing firm, a depiction of the modern corporation as it responds to the imperatives of customer-oriented management, namely consumer discretion and consumer sophistication. It describes in §2 the essentials of the theory and its basis in consumer behavior analysis, and outlines its unique position as the organization responsible for marketing transactions, based on objective exchange, competitive markets and prices, and the deployment of the entire marketing mix. §3 deals in greater depth with the objective, strategic functions, and organization of the marketing firm in terms of the concepts of metacontingency and bilateral contingency. §4 discusses how the marketing firm differs from charities in terms of goal separation, market-based pricing and competition, the entrepreneurial (strategic) process, the pursuit of customer-oriented management, and organizational structure. Particular attention is accorded the organizational differences between marketing firms and charities, which arise as a direct consequence of the distinct patterns of contingency they entail. §5 discusses the implications of the foregoing analysis and draws appropriate conclusions.

Keywords: the marketing firm, consumer organizations, charitable organizations, bilateral contingency, managerial work

INTRODUCTION

Customer behavior is nowadays marked by a high degree of choice and sophistication, and a highly competitive market-place, all of which compel firms to adopt a strategy that has become known as customer-oriented management (e.g., Huber et al., 2001; Lambin and Schuiling, 2012; Kotler and Keller, 2015). There are important differences in managerial work between marketing firms, whose mission is to respond to the "imperatives of customer-oriented management" in order to fulfill their own corporate objectives, and consumer organizations, which pursue alternative objectives. These differences have implications for (a) the relationships that internally link members of the

firm or consumer organization, and (b) those that link the firm or consumer organization to its external publics. The nature of these relationships reflects the organizational mission involved and the approach to strategic management and entrepreneurial policy enjoined upon the business by its publics. Moreover, these intra- and extra-organizational relationships can be advantageously analyzed through the concept of bilateral contingency, which is a central component of theory of the marketing firm (Foxall, 1999, 2018, 2020a; Menon, 2020). Although this theory pertains to a specific kind of business organization, that which responds to the imperatives of customer-oriented management, it cannot be defined and analyzed in isolation from other businesses. The consumer organizations of interest include, in addition to charitable organizations, social marketing campaigns, purchasing and marketing co-operatives, partnerships, and public corporations. The relevance of the theory to the analysis of managerial work in marketing firms and consumer organizations depends on an appreciation of its nature as an economic-psychological construal which draws upon behavior analysis, microeconomics, and marketing science to portray the modern corporation. The nature of the marketing firm can be specified only through this inter-disciplinary synthesis. The overriding goal of the present paper is to achieve a clearer understanding of the place and role of marketing in the theory of the firm by considering the similarities and contrasts between the marketing firm and other forms of enterprise. The paper also has several subordinate goals.

First among these is to complement the analysis of consumer behavior that has taken place through the disciplinary lens of consumer behavior by presenting a theory of the firm in similar terms and evaluating it. The aim therefore is also to ascertain the extent to which the amalgam of behavior analysis, behavioral economics, and marketing science that forms the basis of consumer behavior can present a theory of the firm which complements what we know of consumer behavior from this source. Second among the subsidiary goals is to demonstrate the necessity and form of a comparative analysis of the marketing firm compared with other businesses. The main goal requires a broader perspective than that of the firm itself. It must arrive at its conclusions through an understanding not only of the nature of the firm but also of other businesses, consumer organizations such as non-profits, co-operatives, partnerships, and state-owned enterprises. While the different types of consumer organizations would benefit from review, this paper concentrates, specifically, on the business firm in contrast to the charity organization (see Foxall, in preparation for a broader analysis). How these differ in terms of goals pursued, the role of the market (prices determination, competition), the nature of managerial work with respect to entrepreneurship and strategy, organizational structure, and the implications of marketing-oriented management. Third is to exemplify the nature of managerial work in the marketing firm, again through comparative analysis of strategic goals and behavior of the firm and the charity. The emphasis here is on the strategic behavior of the marketing firm, its entrepreneurial mission. This is found to be lacking in consumer organizations. Finally, the paper seeks to develop the theory of the marketing firm by considering the nature of contemporary businesses compared with consumer organizations such as non-profits, co-operatives, partnerships, and state-owned enterprises in terms of their objectives, functions, and organizational structures.

These themes are topical and relevant in light of the sheer number of theories of the firm that are becoming available, many of which ignore marketing and, especially, the imperatives of customer-oriented management. Yet these considerations *define* the modern business firm in the context of the imperatives of customer-oriented management that have been alluded to. We need to understand this better through comparative analysis – hence inclusion of the charity. Another note of relevance is struck by the fact that many of the consumer organizations mentioned are increasingly referred to as "firms" with no distinction made between their objectives, functions, organization and that of the paradigmatic business firm. This is a source of confusion that cries out for understanding and clear methods of demarcation.

THE MARKETING FIRM: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Consumer Behavior Analysis

The theory of the marketing firm proposes a view of the firm as a response to the imperatives of customer-oriented management which is based on an inter-disciplinary framework of conceptualization and analysis. The components of this explanatory system are the approach to behavioral psychology known as behavior analysis, the school of behavioral economics founded on a fusion of behavior analysis and microeconomics (Hursh, 1980, 1984), and the empirically based marketing science of Ehrenberg (1988) and his colleagues. Consumer behavior analysis (Foxall, 2001, 2002). has been described, both theoretically in terms of the empirical evidence that it has inspired, in Foxall (2017) and, accordingly, will be only briefly portrayed here (for more examples of research using consumer behavior analysis, see Sigurdsson et al., 2009, and Foxall et al., 2006). In behavior analysis, a response, R, is explained by reference to pre-behavioral stimuli that set the occasion for its performance (discriminative stimuli or S^D), and the rewarding or *reinforcing* stimuli that have followed this response on previous occasions (S^r). This paradigm, the so-called "three-term contingency," comprises the explanatory device employed by operant psychology (e.g., Skinner, 1974). An operant response is simply one that *operates* on the environment in order to effect consequences that influence the rate of its subsequent performance. Not all of these consequences are rewarding or reinforcing; some, which lead to a diminution in the rate of responding, inhibit or punish the behaviors they follow and are known as *punishers*. We can, therefore, state the three-term contingency as S^D: R $S^{r/p}$ where SD is a discriminative stimulus, R a response, and Sr/p a reinforcer or punisher. The colon suggests a probabilistic relationship between the setting variable and the response, while the arrow denotes a determinate outcome. The consumer behavior setting consists, in addition to SDS, of motivating operations (MO) which are pre-behavioral stimuli that enhance the relationship

FIGURE 1 | Summative behavioral perspective model; Foxall (2020a).
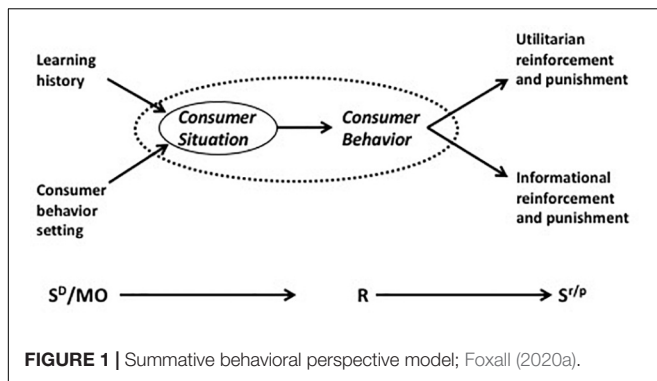
between a response and its reinforcing consequences (e.g., Fagerstrøm et al., 2010). The depiction of consumer behavior in these terms has led to the formulation of the Behavioral Perspective Model (BPM) of consumer choice (Foxall, 1990/2004, 2016a,b,c). In it, the *consumer situation*, comprising setting variables weighted by the consumer's learning history, is the immediate precursor of consumer behavior (**Figure 1**). This interaction of situation and behavior rests upon the consumer's prior experience (consumption history) which primes the setting stimuli, as a result of which particular behaviors become more probable while others are inhibited (see e.g., Sigurdsson et al., 2015).

Hursch's approach to behavioral economics relies on the similar functions played by the variables included in behavior analysis and those of neoclassical microeconomics. A response is an act of purchase, consumption, or work while a reinforcer is a positive outcome of these behaviors (a product or service or a wage), and the relation between them is expressed by a schedule of reinforcement in behavioral psychology and a price in the realm of economic behavior. This approach has been employed in research designed to test the BPM. Importantly, recent investigations have established what it is that consumers buy and consume. On the surface of course it appears evident that they purchase and use the products and services they acquire in exchange transactions. The BPM proposes that they consume reinforcers that supply both functional and social benefits, known, respectively, as utilitarian and informational reinforcements. One strand of the behavioral-economic research derived from the model has employed the Cobb-Douglas utility function, which proposes that consumers purchase combinations of products or attributes which maximize their returns or utility within the confines of their income or budget constraint (Douglas, 1976). A series of empirical investigations indicates that what consumers actually maximize is combinations of utilitarian and informational reinforcement (Oliveira-Castro et al., 2015, 2016; Oliveira-Castro and Foxall, 2017). The kind of aggregate data on consumers' patterns of consumption revealed by the work of Ehrenberg (1988), based on sophisticated consumer panel evidence, has made available the means of testing both the model and the economic hypotheses drawn from it among large representative samples of buyers.

Delineating the Marketing Firm: The Marketing Transaction

The marketing firm is defined in terms of the kinds of transaction into which it enters with customers and suppliers, *marketing transactions*, which have four characteristics. The first is literal or objective exchanges of products or services, usually for pecuniary benefit; the second is that the exchange occurs in competitive markets and at market-generated prices; therefore third, that these are pecuniary markets: barter could conceivably mark a marketing transaction but this is so rare in normal corporate-consumer dealings as to make pecuniary markets a defining factor; and, finally, the transaction involves the entire marketing mix.

Literal or Objective Exchange

A transaction is "the creation of value by voluntary co-operation between two or more economic actors" (Spulber, 2009b, p. 12). The value so created is the benefits to the parties minus the costs of transacting. It is not only firms that incur transaction costs; consumers do so both when they exchange goods directly and when they create and run organizations like clubs, cooperatives, nonprofits, and basic partnerships. These administrative governance costs arise in the course of communicating, processing information, searching, matching, bargaining, moral hazard, adverse selection, free riding, and contracting (Spulber, 2009b, p. 13). Part of the raison d'être of the firm, including the marketing firm, is to make possible transactions for consumers whereby they encounter lower transaction costs than would otherwise be the case. In order to succeed, therefore, a firm has to enable transactions at lower costs than those consumers incur through direct exchange. Firms whose managers believe they can accomplish this, therefore, have an incentive to create markets and an organization. A market, i.e., a means of bringing buyers and sellers together, is created by a firm by designing institutions of exchange to ensure more efficient transactions (Spulber, 2009b, pp. 12—13). But to this we would add that while Spulber sees these functions as those of the firm, the actual creation of markets is a cooperative venture between firms and consumers who are willing to enact transactions with one another. Firms may generally take the initiative but consumers are active participants to any transaction and sometimes the initiative itself also lies with them. By conducting transactions in this way, the firm fulfills what Drucker defines as its very purpose, the creation of a customer: in fact we would further add, the creation of a *consumerate,* a body of consumers who return to purchase the firm's output sufficiently frequently to allow it to achieve its sales and profit objectives.

Marketing transactions entail literal exchange or transfer of legal title. A marketing transaction comprises mutual reinforcement based on literal exchange. In a marketing relationship based on economic exchange, the mutual reinforcement is typically accomplished by an item-for-item switch of valued items. The requirement that marketing transactions be understood as literal transfers entails that marketing firms operate in pecuniary markets. Each party to a marketing relationship provides the other with utilitarian and informational reinforcement: typically, goods which supply functional and social utilities are traded for money and marketing intelligence. The marketing intelligence provided by customers, information about what they have bought and their experience of it and their plans for the future provides informational reinforcement which guides the marketer's strategic planning and marketing management activities. The literalness of exchange in typical pecuniary trading is easily discerned but the question arises what is actually exchanged in the case of intangibles such as services: the essence of a marketing transaction is mutual transfers of legal title to a product or the outcome of a service. Such exchange is a transfer of property rights (Commons, 1924; Demsetz, 1995; Posner, 1995). Ownership, in the sense of legal entitlement, and contractual requirements are elements of the contingencies of rewards and penalties which can alter behavior, just as the market itself is ultimately a source of mutually acknowledged and reciprocally binding contingencies (Foxall, 1999).

Marketing transactions are invariably accompanied by other, less tightly defined relationships, known in the theory of the marketing firm as *mutuality relationships* (Foxall, 1999). These are social relationships which are characterized by reciprocally contingent reinforcement but which do not involve literal exchanges. They are not economic in nature and do not involve marketing exchanges. They might include, for instance, informal communications between a salesperson and a customer, possibly in the form of a social gathering organized by one or other party, which facilitates mutual interaction ("getting to know you"). They would also include more formal relationships in which a salesperson canvassed a prospective customer or a potential buyer requested product information from a marketing firm.

Competitive (Pecuniary) Markets and Prices

For the most part, public bodies are monopolies or work amicably and in accordance with similar organizations. In contrast, firms are rivals with strategic goals and are under the constraints of antitrust legislation, unless authorized as a joint venture. These firms require the open market if they want to pursue marketing orientated management. This allows the firm to decide, using analyses of current consumer behavior and projections of future consumer behavior, what its sphere of operations will be. According to Spulber (2009b), firms require this freedom, though some organizations, which often claim to be marketing practitioners are unable to engage in marketing-oriented management in the ways discussed in this paper. Social marketing campaigns, for instance, are not firms in Spulber's sense because the objectives of the organizations involved do not differ from those of the owners/members. Bodies engaged in "social marketing" do not have a product or service which is literally exchanged in pecuniary markets, *or* do not use a competitive price mechanism. By and large, they have an amorphous output such as "smoking reduction" (rather than a concrete product or service that can participate in legal transfers based on financial consideration). Public organizations are often influenced primarily by state interventions rather than being able to set prices or determine the focus of their business in an autonomous fashion. Furthermore, public enterprises do not necessarily compete for consumers, nor necessarily set prices; nor yet determine for themselves the business they are in on the basis of market considerations. Their scope for effecting free exchanges in unrestricted markets is highly limited to the extent that they are directed by interventionist government policies.

Deployment of the Whole Marketing Mix

The whole marketing mix, not any specific part of it, generates sales. The marketing mix is a model, centered on product, place, promotion and price, used to pursue objectives related to influencing demand for brands (Borden, 1964). Although there are examples of firms enhancing their advertising budgets and thereby increasing their sales, perhaps dramatically, it is not the case that "advertising creates sales," as though it existed in a vacuum that excluded product, price, and distribution utilities. The essence of marketing as a subject area that is distinct from economics, sociology, and psychology inheres in its adoption of the brand as its distinctive level of analysis. This goes beyond the product which suffices for other disciplines. The brand, over and above the product, is a matter for the entire marketing mix to create, communicate, and sustain. No element of the mix – neither product, place, promotion, or price – can be omitted in the quest to create a customer. The marketing firm, therefore, by definition employs the entire marketing mix.

OBJECTIVE, FUNCTIONS, AND ORGANIZATION OF THE MARKETING FIRM

Objective

Spulber (2009a,b) argues that the firm differs from other commercial and social organizations (also described as *consumer*

organizations) in having a goal that is different from that of its owners, namely profit maximization. Firms' owners, he says (though other stakeholders may fall into the same category: Fama, 1980; Mäntysaari, 2012; Foxall, 2020a), have a separate goal: while they may *desire* to associate with a profit maximizing organization, their own goal is consumption. Spulber (2009b, p. 63) separation criterion is stated repeatedly in his text, though never more forcefully than in the judgment that a firm is "a transaction institution whose objectives differ from those of its owners."
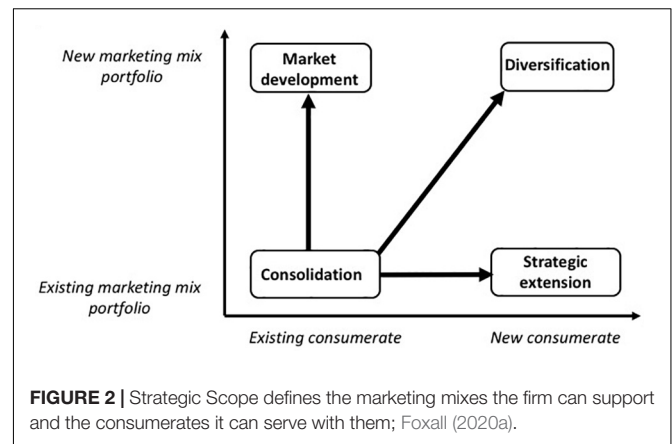
It can be argued, moreover, that while profit is undoubtedly important to the marketing firm not immediately of interest to its stakeholders who remain essentially consumers, it is not *maximal* profit that is the marketing firm's concern. Apart from the well-known difficulties of measuring the phenomenon of maximized profit and of knowing when it had been attained, the firm would require to know its marginal costs and revenues at each level of production, both those achieved and those potential, a requirement that for most large-scale organizations is not feasible (e.g., Kahneman et al., 1986). Rather, it seems likely that the marketing firm can be best regarded as seeking to maximize sales revenues subject to a minimum profit constraint, as Baumol (1967) proposed. Sales revenues are more tractable when it comes to the firm's knowing where it stands, means of increasing them are available in the various elements of the marketing mix, and as long as sufficient profit is earned to satisfy shareholders and reinvest in the business, the firm's tasks of information gathering and processing are much more straightforward than is the case for the theoretically elegant but impracticable goal of profit maximization (Hall, 1967).

Sales revenue maximization seems a more realistic goal to ascribe to the marketing firm as we have defined it for several reasons. First, sales maximization nicely combines maximization with satisficing (in the form of the minimum level of profit required for the survival of the firm). This is not the amorphous "psychological and emotional" satisficing that Demsetz (1995, p.78) speaks of. Rather, it is as precise as human wit can make it given that information is not perfect and cognitive judgments are boundedly rational. The profit level aimed at is that which satisfies shareholders and leaves room for reinvestment in the business. This is as measurable as it gets. Second, it retains Spulber's intent in that it is not an objective shared by the owners or other stakeholders. Stakeholders may *prefer* a sales maximizing firm that can adequately compensate shareholders and reinvest but their objective remains consumption. Third, it is an aim which the directors can more nearly approximate than is profit-maximization since it is easier to detect how to increase sales at any point than profits since this requires knowing costs as well as revenues. This modified separation criterion – the "sales—profit objective" – captures Spulber's determination to distinguish the firm from various categories of consumer but is more in accord with the parameters of corporate performance that directors and managers are capable of conceptualizing and calculating.

Functions
The Management of Strategic Scope

The managerial work of the marketing firm consists in (i) the creation of marketing intelligence, (ii) designing a marketing

FIGURE 2 | Strategic Scope defines the marketing mixes the firm can support and the consumerates it can serve with them; Foxall (2020a).

strategy, and (iii) the implementation of this strategy through the management of a portfolio of marketing mixes (Foxall, 2018, 2020a). As a whole, these activities comprise the management of the strategic process and determine the firm's *strategic scope*, i.e., the range of marketing mixes it can support and the spectrum of consumerates through whose satisfaction it can achieve its objectives of survival and sales maximization (**Figure 2**).
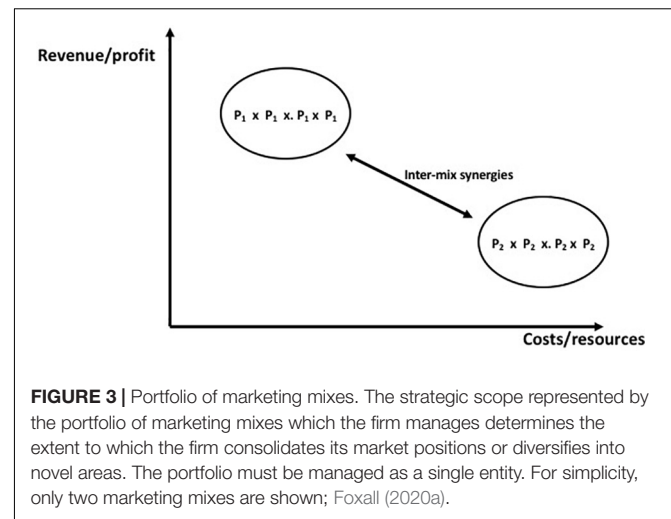
Three demands, each requiring informational inputs and decision outputs, must be fulfilled by marketing firms: the *Creation of Marketing Intelligence* which typically involves market search and managerial response, reveals the potential (*feasible*) strategic scope of the firm given capabilities and resources; the *Formulation of Marketing Strategy,* concerned to determine the planned strategic scope of the firm, namely the markets it will serve, the marketing mixes with which it will seek to accomplish this, and expectations of further diversification and innovation, i.e., the determination of the *potential* strategic-scope of the firm, and *Marketing Mix Management*, the creation and implementation of the portfolio of marketing mixes through which the firm will seek to achieve its objectives developed in the course of the first two stages. This last determines the *revealed* or *effective* strategic scope of the firm.

Before elaborating the procedures involved in these resource-based operations which constitute the firm's *strategic process,* we reiterate the concept of *marketing incompleteness* (Foxall, 2020a). Bylund's (2016) theory of the firm argues that incompleteness involves splitting a productive stage generating partly finished goods for which there is no market: the producer has either to obtain partly completed inputs in order to complete it in-house or find a market for a partly finished product which does not readily exist. This is the source of what he calls the specialization deadlock since extra-market specialization results in uncertainty, a state of affairs which accords with Adam Smith's statement that the division of labor is limited by the extent of the market. Bylund is predominantly interested in the incompleteness of *productive* processes.

Marketing incompleteness is of a different kind. The strategic scope of the firm depends on the assets, productive *and* marketing, at its disposal. Such assets have value only if they can be protected from plagiarism by competitors. The tasks they entail may be undertaken as discrete operations

but they are continuous rather than disjointed, and their holistic management is vital to the firm's strategic planning and determination of strategic scope. They therefore must be confined (kept within an organizational boundary), classified (available only to trusted and interested parties), and their implementation in the market strictly controlled. Marketing incompleteness is revealed and exploited by means of the deployment of these assets and the creative uses the firm makes of them. Market incompleteness is a gap in the market revealed through market search, evaluated by the application of marketing intelligence within the strategic scope of the firm, and responded to through the application/extension of the strategic scope leading to effective marketing mix management which makes clear the actual strategic scope of the firm.

Possible incompleteness in the market is revealed by market search (confined necessarily within the strategic scope of the firm, though one would hope with an eye to extraneous opportunities too). By revealing the feasible strategic scope of the firm, this stimulates planning based on the fact that market incompleteness is revealed as a gap in the market which can be filled by product development, market development, or diversification. There may be no response necessary to the intelligence so gathered and evaluated. The creation of marketing intelligence presents the *feasible market scope* of the firm. Having established in this way the opportunities open to it, the firm can assess its strategic environment by considering the marketing opportunities available to it and the behaviors of consumers and competitors. This could be done with the aid of external consultants and agents. However, planned movement in any one of these directions reflects a change in the in the strategic scope of the firm (following on from requisite decision-making on the basis of marketing intelligence and planning). This decision-making must recognize that, although market search was undertaken within the strategic scope of the firm its results and revealed potentials have now got to be rigorously reexamined within the capabilities framework of the organization (Day, 2011). But the planning of future marketing scope must not be confined within the preexisting corporate policy and strategy: it ought also to impinge on and challenge that strategic position so that it is not a static straightjacket; if necessary the firm's strategic scope must be modified and decisions made with respect to the resources the firm will employ and how it will utilize them. The firm which has formulated its strategy is in possession of a clear understanding of its *planned strategic scope* (Anderson, 1982). It is now ready for implementation. The firm must design each of its marketing mixes as a unity of product, place, promotion, and price. It is the marketing mix that produces sales, not just any one part of it. It is feasible that external consultants or agents could assist in this stage. The firm must also manage its portfolio of marketing mixes as a single entity (**Figure 3**). This eventuates in the *realized strategic scope* of the firm. Hence, Marketing Mix Management is a more complex task than "product portfolio management" (see Cooper et al., 1999) which entails but one element of the marketing mix (Foxall, 2015a). The marketing firm is the vehicle for

FIGURE 3 | Portfolio of marketing mixes. The strategic scope represented by the portfolio of marketing mixes which the firm manages determines the extent to which the firm consolidates its market positions or diversifies into novel areas. The portfolio must be managed as a single entity. For simplicity, only two marketing mixes are shown; Foxall (2020a).

identifying and responding to market incompleteness, in the course of which its strategic scope is inevitably enhanced through product or market development, and diversification. Marketing firms undertaking this by, first, economizing on transaction costs and, second, increasing sales (physical) and revenues (cash).

Entrepreneurship is involved in all three of these marketing operations, viewed in terms of both the tasks that they entail and the (marketing) resources they command. Entrepreneurship may be defined as, first, the identification of market incompleteness, second the response to it in light of the firm's current strategic scope, and, third, the deployment of appropriate marketing mixes which ensure that the firm's overall mix portfolio achieves its sales and profit objectives. This does not necessarily mean it maximizes profit, only that it achieves sufficient profit to enable it to invest, satisfy shareholders, and survive and prosper. Entrepreneurship, then, is the successful planning of a sufficiently profitable feasible strategic scope, and the implementation of the decisions that ensue from this (for research on the Marketing Firm in entrepreneurship see, e.g., Fagerstrøm et al., 2020; Haddara et al., 2020). This process – the strategic or entrepreneurial process – requires. for its inauguration and implementation, an organization which encapsulates the requisite competences, namely the marketing firm. In summary, the management of strategic scope views the strategic process as a single entity, rather than three disjointed spheres of operation, which as a whole is concerned with the creation and implementation of the strategic scope of the firm. Its goal and content is the portfolio of marketing mixes which constitute the emergent output of the business organization which influences, first, consumer behavior and, second, the fortunes of the firm itself and hence its subsequent behavior. Indeed, the management of a whole portfolio of marketing mixes in a unified and harmonious manner is the very embodiment of the firm as a metacontingency and it rests on the concept of the bilateral contingencies that define marketing and mutuality relationships within and beyond the firm.

Marketing Assets and Entrepreneurial Encapsulation

In the performance of these functions, the marketing firm internalizes the specialized *marketing* assets it requires to cosmpete successfully: these may be largely intellectual but they are specialized assets nonetheless, and perform the same function in a theory of the firm as the physical assets of production. After all, von Mises comments, in the case of production, that it "is not something physical, material, and external; it is a spiritual and intellectual phenomenon. Its essential requisites are not human labor and external natural forces and things, but the decision of the mind to use these factors as means for the attainment of ends. What produces the product are not toil and trouble themselves, but the fact that the toiling is guided by reason" (von Mises, 1949/2016, pp. 141–2). If this is true of production, it is all the more so of marketing – at least as far as the designation intellectual is concerned, though "spiritual" might be a value-judgment too far in both cases! The strategic scope of the firm depends on the assets, productive and marketing, at its disposal, have value to the firm only if they are protected from competitors. The tasks they entail may be undertaken as discrete operations but they are continuous rather than disjointed, and their holistic management is vital to the firm's strategic planning and determination of strategic scope. They therefore must be confined (kept within an organizational boundary), classified (available only to trusted and interested parties), and their implementation in the market strictly controlled. Marketing incompleteness is revealed and responded to by means of the deployment of these assets and the firm's response to them. Marketing incompleteness is first identified via market search, evaluated by the application of marketing intelligence within the strategic scope of the firm, and second exploited by application/extension of strategic scope leading to effective marketing mix management which reveals the actual strategic scope of the firm.

The specialized marketing *assets* integral to this process consist in the information, intelligence, and knowledge. Hence, the specialized marketing *resources* integral to the strategic process are human and, fundamentally, intellectual: the entrepreneurs/managers responsible for the discovery of marketing opportunities and for their planning and implementation. Each of the stages that comprise the strategic process has its own intellectual requirements, the outcomes of which feed into the succeeding stage or the reiteration of the process: *Market Information*, which is data with respect to e.g., behavior of consumers; *Marketing Intelligence* which is market data contextualized within the framework provided by the firm's strategic capacities and present strategic profile; and *Strategic Knowledge* which is marketing intelligence which leads to the formulation of the potential strategic scope of the firm.

Bylund's (2016) argument is that the specialization of (production) tasks is only achievable within a firm to ensure that there is a "market" or productive use for the output of subtasks, the theory of the marketing firm emphasizes the organizational implications of the specialization of tasks reliant on strategic marketing information. These might also be readily subdivided on the basis of a novel division of labor but this is not the

dominant import for the marketing firm. Such knowledge and the intelligence on which it depends needs to be subdivided and re-combined and managed holistically within a particular strategic vision and this state of affairs is likely to be attainable only within the limits of a particular organization. Management of the actual and tacit knowledge involved is achieved only within an organized framework of managerial control in which top management assumes responsibility for the development of a marketing-oriented management *culture*. The sole element in the process that can advisedly involve extra-corporate inputs is the (relatively routine) gathering of market data. The further the firm advances through the strategic process, the more specialized the assets it produces become, and the greater the need of their corporate encapsulation. Thereby is provided the rationale of the contemporary firm, the marketing firm.

Organization
### The Marketing Firm as a Metacontingency

It is rare in the marketing literature for consumer behavior on the one hand and corporate marketing behavior on the other to be specified and explained in similar terms. An aim of the theory of the marketing firm has therefore been to propose a model of corporate response to consumer behavior within the inter-disciplinary framework on which consumer behavior analysis is founded. This has an important consequence for the way in which corporate behavior is portrayed since behavior analysis is traditionally concerned only with the behavior of individual organisms, both human and nonhuman. Any such organism, the behavior of which can be predicted by reference to the consequences that have previously followed responses (its learning history) together with the environmental stimuli that prefigure the kinds of consequences that will ensue from its imminent behavior (its behavior setting) can be termed an *operant system* or a *contextual system* (Foxall, 1999, 2016c). This designation clearly applies to the consumer. However, as the theory of the marketing firm has always proposed (Foxall, 1999), it may also be understood as a contextual system since its corporate behaviors are controlled by the reinforcing and punishing outcomes they incur. While individual's behavior may be understood through the lens of the three-term contingency – ideally within an experimental setting – explaining that of an organization in these terms requires a leap in conceptualization that comprehends its structure as a system of what Biglan and Glenn (2013) refer to as *interlocking behavioral contingencies* (IBCs).

The supra-individual behavior of the organization viewed as a unit may be inferred from its generating consequences or outputs *over and above the aggregate behaviors of its members* and the effects of the organization's behavior, *which is greater than the sum of its parts,* on *its* subsequent conduct. The relationships between IBCs, their products (or outputs), and the rewarding or punishing consequences enjoined by their external environments on these products, are known as *metacontingencies* (Biglan and Glenn, 2013). Hence, the supra-personal behavior of the marketing firm consists in the marketing mixes that it generates, launches into the marketplace, and subsequently manages through their life

cycles. The accent which the theory of the marketing firm places on exchange relationships as central to marketing transactions suggests the mechanism by which the marketing firm and its customer base are bound together via bilateral contingencies. The metacontingency concept is a means of describing the interactions of individual consumers with firms, and of firms with other firms, as based on interwoven contingencies.

The import of this is that the marketing firm differs from many other commercial and social organizations not only by virtue of goal separation but also insofar as it has an output that is over and above that of the aggregated outputs of its members. This output, the marketing mix, is a set of discriminative stimuli (see Tarbox and Tarbox, 2017) and motivating operations that seeks to engender consumer behavior that is beneficial not only to the consumerate (in the form of utility maximization) but also to the firm (in the form of revenues and profits). Other organizations such as many cooperatives, partnerships, and social marketing campaigns have a goal which is identical to that of their members and an output that is the combined outputs of the membership. The kind of organization represented by the marketing firm is known as a *metacontingency* by reason of its have a superordinate behavioral output; its behavior, in putting out a marketing mix that is greater than the combined outputs of its members, may therefore be described as superordinate behavior. The behavioral output of the other organizations is known simply as *macrobehavior.* There is a crucial distinction. Behavior analysis usually takes the individual subject as its subject matter and insofar as the behavior of an individual is predictable from the three-term contingency, it may be understood as an "operant system." The selection by the environment of the behavior of this individual has implications for the evolution of its behavior: behaviors that are reinforced are selected while those that are punished tend to die out. We are here treating an organization as an operant system. In the case of a metacontingency, its behavioral output is subject to selection by the environment in such a way that it evolves; this is not the case for macrobehavior. In the case of organizations whose output consists in macrobehavior, the concept of operant system applies only to its individual members; in the instance of a metacontingency, the organization at its center or hub is the operant system. The nature of a metacontingency can be better understood by considering it as a nexus of bilateral contingencies, and what **Figure 3** therefore depicts is the corporate metacontingency as a nexus of bilateral contingencies.

The concept of the marketing firm rests on a distinction between the behavioral outputs of organizations that are metacontingencies and those of collectivities of persons who form the firm's customer base (Biglan and Glenn, 2013; Foxall, 2015a,b) Thus the idea of a firm as a metacontingency derives from its behavioral output having emerged from, but existing over and above, the combined actions of its members, rendering the output of the metacontingency qualitatively different from the aggregated behaviors of its affiliates. Such metacontingent corporate behavior evolves in its own right as its consequences are selected or deselected by the environment, in this case by the firm's customers and potential customers, who respond to the marketing mixes it presents. The behavioral output of the
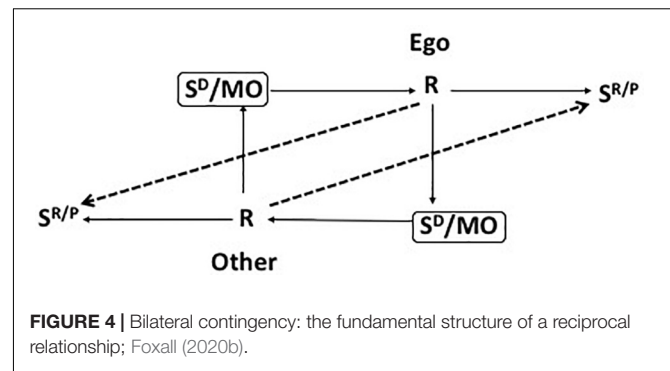
FIGURE 4 | Bilateral contingency: the fundamental structure of a reciprocal relationship; Foxall (2020b).

firm's consumers is, in contrast, the aggregated consequences of their several actions. It may be possible to measure and statistically analyze this behavior but it does not thereby become an entity in its own right: it is simply combination of individual operant responses (Biglan and Glenn, 2013). This combined behavior does not therefore evolve: its increase or extinction is not sensitive to its environmental consequences since it produces no behavioral outputs that can be acted on by a selective environment. Biglan and Glenn (2013) describes these aggregated actions of a large collectivity as *macrobehavior.*

The marketing firm, however, generates a supra-personal output, the marketing mix – not just a product but a fusion of product and non-product elements by which the firm attempts to influence demand and which, acting as a single entity, may create a customer. The kind of firm we are considering is only competent to market successfully if it employs all four elements of the marketing mix in optimal fashion. Social marketing campaigns by contrast rely heavily on persuasive communication – in fact for many this is the sole element of the marketing mix employed. The deployment of a communications strategy is not marketing and clearly it does not entail marketing mix management.

Bilateral Contingency

The concept of bilateral contingency, introduced by Foxall (1999), captures the relationships between two individuals, each of whose behavior has implications for the structure of the other's behavior setting. As **Figure 4** indicates, bilateral contingency is a reciprocal interaction of the three-term contingencies that govern the behavior of the parties to a transaction or relationship. The behavior of one party supplies the reinforcing and punishing consequences of the other's behavior; in addition, the behavior of one party provides discriminative stimuli and motivating operations for the behavior of the other. The meshing of these reciprocal contingencies determines whether the relationship between the parties is of short- or long-term duration; it therefore determines whether one or other party will engage in search for alternative arrangements.

Bilateral contingency was advanced first in the context of the exogenous corporate relationships that mark the interactions of the marketing firm with its consumerate and suppliers. There is growing recognition that the firm comprises a nexus of bilateral contingencies which potentially connect any and

FIGURE 5 | Extra-firm bilateral contingency; Foxall (2020a).
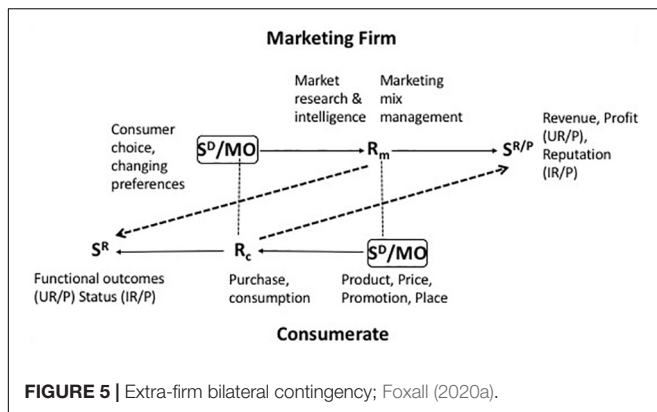
all of its members. Among the most significant, however, are those that link principal and agent. Such bilateral contingencies arise in the case of shareholders and directors, directors and managers, and managers and employees. Hence, the relationships between shareholders and directors, directors and managers, and managers and employees can also be interpreted as bilateral contingencies.

Extra-firm bilateral contingencies

The dominant theme of the firm's external relationships is defined by the demands which its consumerate makes of it. The overall aim of the marketing firm is to create a consumerate. The "consumerate" encompasses the customer base of the marketing firm, be it composed of an aggregation of individual final consumers or a number of corporate customers. Drucker (1977, 2007) speaks of the objective of the firm as "to create a customer." A customer is someone who purchases a product or service in sufficient quantity to enable the firm to fulfill its revenue and profit objectives; and a consumerate is that aggregation of the customer base that enables the firm, through repeat purchasing, to accomplish these goals. More formally, a customer is an individual or organization with which the firm interacts through marketing transactions (objective exchange, whole marketing mix deployment, pecuniary markets). Only firms (marketing firms) therefore have customers and by extension consumerates. Other organizations, even if they pursue commercial objectives, have publics but not customers or consumerates. Building on Drucker's work, therefore, the objective of the firm – in the age of the imperatives – is the creation of a consumerate.

The firm's behavior is summarized by the three marketing operations previously mentioned and described at greater length in Foxall (2018, 2020a), namely, (i) reading consumer behavior and preferences in the course of creating marketing intelligence and (ii) translating this into a strategy that consists ultimately in (iii) the provision and management of a viable portfolio of marketing mixes. Hence, at its simplest, the behavior of the consumerate acts as a discriminative stimulus for the firm while that of the firm is a discriminative stimulus for consumer behavior. More complexly, bilateral contingency analysis involves the overt relationships between the marketing firm and a customer, either a final consumer or a corporate purchaser (**Figure 5**). The bilateral contingencies linking firm, stakeholders,

and consumerates include contractual relationships, e.g., between the firm and its customers, or the firm and its employees, and noncontractual connections among these parties, both commercial and social. These latter are "mutuality" relationships (Foxall, 1999).

The goal of marketing firms is to consider, create, and apply marketing mixes that profitably satisfy the firm's consumerate. The components of the marketing mix (product, price, promotion and place utilities) appear in the marketplace initially as discriminative stimuli for the consumer behaviors of browsing, purchasing and consuming. Purchasing, the exchange of money for the ownership of the legal right to a product or service: such pecuniary exchange is a source of both utilitarian reinforcement (in the form of resources that can be paid out or reinvested) and informational reinforcement (in the form of feedback on corporate performance) for the marketing firm. The effectiveness of R_m (managerial behavior) in fulfilling the obligations of professional marketing management, specifically the creation of a customer who purchases the product at a price level sufficient to meet the goals of the firm, is governed by the generation of revenue/profit and reputation for the firm (depicted by the appropriate dotted diagonal line in **Figure 5**). This consumer behavior (R_c) also provides discriminative stimuli for future marketing intelligence activities, marketing planning and the creation and execution of marketing mixes that respond to the constancies and/or dynamic qualities of the behavior of the consumerate (Foxall, 1999, 2014; Reed, 1999; Vella and Foxall, 2011, 2013). When looking at this particular level of interaction between the firm and its customer base, managerial behavior can be viewed as optimizing a utility function, comprising a combination of both utilitarian reinforcement and informational reinforcement. The firm is entrenched within a nexus of bilateral contingencies and the management of multilateral contingencies is at the center of its administrative task. That being said, the firm is not necessarily *coterminous* with such a nexus but it provides the nucleus of the network of interrelationships among its stakeholders. Similar bilateral contingencies mark the relationships between the marketing firm and its suppliers, in the analysis of which the supplier assumes the role of the marketing firm.

Intra-firm bilateral contingencies

The firm has been characterized as a nexus of contracts. In the modern corporation owners appoint the firms officers, managers who carry contractual responsibility to operate the organization in a manner that maximizes returns to these shareholders. Managers appoint (other) employees who are contractually responsible for conducting those business operations that fall within the domain of their assumed competence. These are all principal—agent relationships. In addition, managers interact with other managers and employees with employees in order to fulfill their responsibilities. These relationships all fall within the compass of *intra-firm bilateral contingencies*, a designation that is capable of embracing both the contractual relationships involved and the additional, "mutuality relationships" that lubricate these contractual interactions but do not fall within the scope of the contracts the parties have signed. This topic is important

because of the argument (e.g., Singer, 2019) that while markets operate in a manner that is consonant with the values of liberal democracy, *within* the firm this is far from the case: managers exercise authority and workers are exploited; in other words, while firms operate within free markets their internal operations do not abide by market considerations but reflect managerial authority. If, however, the firm constitutes, essentially, a private market, as the Chicago School argues, we should expect to find that authority relations are less to the fore, if not entirely absent (Friedman, 1962). This debate is not an integral subject for the present paper, though the analysis of intra-firm bilateral contingencies is of relevance to it. For the present discussion, two assumptions are made. First, rather than behavior within the firm being determined by authority relationships, it is indeed, the result of individuals' contracting together within a market framework (see, e.g., Alchian and Demsetz, 1972; Jensen and Meckling, 1976; Easterbrook and Fischel, 1991; Hart, 1995; Singer, 2019). However, there is in practice a degree of authority involved in the firm's relations between principal and agent. The markets in which individuals operate as employees are not so smooth running as those between a consumer and her baker. An employee or manager can always leave their current position as per contract but an equivalent job is not necessarily to be had elsewhere without incurring considerable transaction costs (Larsen et al., 2020). But the principal-agent relationship is not an absolutely authoritarian one either. Of course, Friedman makes a good point: treating the firm as a private market makes it predictable, his 1953 criterion, even though the smooth jobs market envisaged requires many firms and competition among them (Friedman, 1953). More extreme perhaps is the assertion of the "property rights paradigm" (Alchian and Demsetz, 1972) to the effect that managerial power does not exist, that it is simply a contractual relationship, and that the institution that can direct the corporation is the market. This thinking does, however, have some resonance with the imperatives of customer-oriented management and the theory of the marketing firm.

We can designate the various linkages between firms and between members of firms in terms of their (i) direction (horizontal or vertical), (ii) contractual or non-contractual nature, and (iii) being marketing- or market-transactions, professional relationships, and mutuality relationships. **Table 1** summarizes the possibilities for the marketing firm.

While extra-firm bilateral contingencies involve marketing transactions (**Figure 4**) whether they are (A) from the marketing firm to a consumerate or (B) from a supplier to the marketing firm, and in both instances are horizontal, contractual relationships, intra-firm bilateral contingencies (C) are of various kinds. Those between shareholders and directors (C1) are vertical, principal-agent, and contractual; those between directors and managers are, similarly, vertical, principal-agent, and contractual (C2), as are those between managers and employees (C3). Those between manager and manager (C4) and employee and employee (C5) are horizontal and of themselves non-contractual. However, they may be enforced by general contractual obligations, especially in the case of manager-manager relationships based on superiority and hence sanctioned authority. A and B are marketing transactions: they
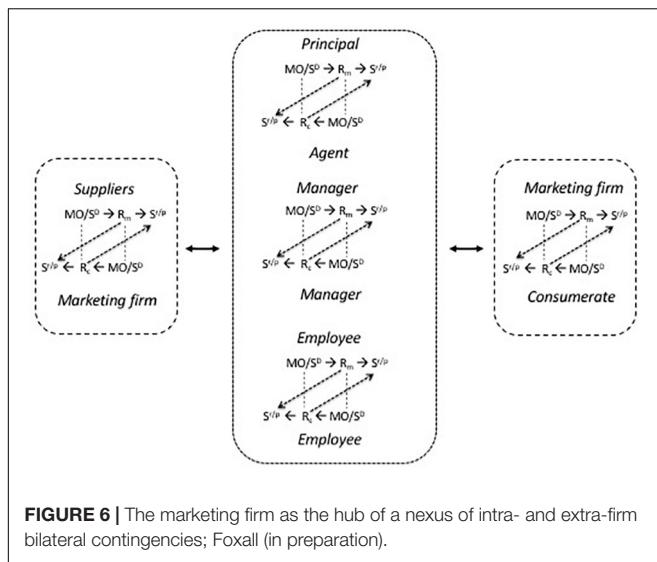
TABLE 1 | Types of extra- and intra-firm bilateral contingency in the marketing firm.

	Participants	Bilateral contingency	Type of relationship
A	Marketing firm – consumerate	Horizontal, contractual, extra-firm.	Marketing transaction.
B	Supplier – marketing firm	Horizontal, contractual, extra-firm.	Marketing transaction.
C1	Shareholders – directors	Vertical, principal-agent, contractual	Market transaction.
C2	Directors – managers	Vertical, principal-agent, contractual	Market transaction.
C3	Manager – employee	Vertical, principal-agent, contractual	Market transaction.
C4	Manager – manager	Horizontal, non-contractual	Professional (mutuality) relationship.
C5	Employee – employee	Horizontal, non-contractual	Professional (mutuality) relationship.

are marked by the employment of a marketing mix that is comprehensively employed, pecuniary consideration, transfer of property rights, and competitive market-based pricing that entails contracting. C1, C2, C3 are market transactions: they are based on contractual relationships which in a competitive economic system permits the parties to sever their connections and seek employment or agents elsewhere. C4 and C5 are professional relationships, based for the most part on mutuality transactions which entail reciprocal consideration, interaction, co-working, and co-operation. However, they remain ultimately subject to contractual understandings. Disagreements at this point may not involve resort to the extra-firm employment market, however: there is no automatic need for an aggrieved person to resign. Resolution may be by managerial fiat and/or interpersonal accommodation. If C4 and C5 relationships operate smoothly it is likely to be because mutuality transactions work well. These are still bilateral contingencies, depending for their efficient operation on the appropriate rewards being available for work and on a system of discriminative stimuli and motivating operations that efficiently signal the appropriate behaviors in specific circumstances. These types of bilateral contingency are depicted in **Figure 6** which also illustrates how the metacontingency that is the marketing firm is a nexus of bilateral contingencies.

Shareholders, directors, managers, and other employees are bound together by a range of mutuality relationships but, essentially, by more formal bonds that involve *inter alia* contracts of employment, legal requirements, and job descriptions. They determine and regulate literal exchanges, e.g., of remuneration and work done or investments made, and they occur in competitive markets (often labor markets), at market-determined prices. These are not, however, marketing transactions, since there is no marketing mix. They may, therefore, be understood as *market transactions.*

Although, as Coase (1937) famously pointed out, incorporating as a firm overcomes some of the costs of transacting in the marketplace (searching for information, for suppliers, negotiating and policing contracts), there are administrative costs that arise when the owners or senior

FIGURE 6 | The marketing firm as the hub of a nexus of intra- and extra-firm bilateral contingencies; Foxall (in preparation).

BOX 4 | Meaning of "market transaction"

A *market transaction* is a (i) contractual relationship which is legally governed, taking pace in a (ii) competitive market, and involving (iii) market prices/incomes. It does not involve the use of the marketing mix, however, and so is distinct from a marketing transaction (Foxall, in preparation).

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management, including the directors, of a firm are called upon to exercise control of the activities of the firm's employees. The costs associated with this process include those of incentivization, information, and communication (Posner, 2014, p. 534): the employee in this situation is not paid in direct proportion to what he produces and thus has no incentive to reduce the costs incurred by his labor – he may moreover actively freeload on his co-workers; the employees are unaware of the prices paid for the resources they use, knowledge of which would tend to dictate the most profitable usages of such resources; the issuing of orders by top management and the monitoring of subsequent production requires an effective two-way means of communication. The costs involved in these activities in which the principal (shareholder, director, manager) seeks to maximize the efficiency of the agents (managers, employees) through whom the wishes of the principal are effected are known as agency costs; they are mainly incurred in the effort to maintain agents' loyalty (Dnes, 2018; Zamir and Teichman, 2018).

The marketing firm stands at the hub of a metacontingency which embraces also the firm's suppliers and its consumerate (**Figure 6**). Only the relationships included in the central entity marked by the heavier dotted lines comprise the firm, especially as it is legally defined. Organizationally, however, the boundaries of the firm are porous (Minkes and Foxall, 1982). The intra-firm bilateral contingencies brought into play by consideration of agency costs depicted as C1, C2, and C3 in **Table 1** and **Figure 6** are of this kind. They are vertical relationships that are at some level contractual, though the

principal may not always be the direct party to the agent's contractual obligation to the firm.

COMPARISON WITH CONSUMER ORGANIZATIONS: OBJECTIVES, FUNCTIONS, AND ORGANIZATION

The Nature of the Charitable Organization

A charity is an organization that has the purpose of bringing about public benefit. A firm, by contrast, exists in order to benefit particular groups of people: its owners, directors, managers, employees and, in order to benefit these stakeholder groups, its customers. Even an organizations that exists to secure a more general benefit than this, such as a co-operative, is not a charity because it exists for the benefit of its members, a circumscribed goal that excludes much of the public. The sphere of operations of charities is specified in an English legal case of 1891, *Income Tax Special Purposes Commission v. Pensel* in which a charity is legally a trust for the relief of poverty, or the advancement of education, or for the advancement of religion, or finally for other purposes beneficial to the community (Gillard and Semple, 2018).

In the United Kingdom, for instance, a charity may have a variety of legal structures, existing as either a charitable incorporated organization, a charitable company that is limited by guarantee, an unincorporated association, or as a trust (Gov.UK, 2014). Internationally, charities come in many forms and seek to achieve diverse goals within the general rubric of being for the public good (Anheier, 2014). This account is, therefore, general in character. The questions it asks are not what does this or that specific charitable organization aim to do? but what is the goal of the charity as a whole in relation to the goals of its members? And in this regard how does it differ from the marketing firm? Not what does this or that specific charity do? what are its functions? but are charities capable of marketing-oriented management in the sense that this describes the firm? Not how is this or that charity organized? but how do the intra-organizational relationships among the various roles compare with those that typically describe the personal interactions within the firm? Finally, not what does the charitable organization achieve? but does the charity have a kind of output over and above the combined achievements of its various participants?

In economic terms, what serves to distinguish non-profits like charities from other commercial organizations is their financial structure: they are not allowed to distribute their profits or surpluses and they obtain most of their income not from selling products or services, nor through taxation, but through the voluntary giving of those who belong to and support them (Anheier, 2014, p. 70; see also Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2015).

Charities are clearly, therefore, not firms on this criterion. Moreover, a *marketing* firm has an objective, constrained sales-revenue maximization, which differs from the objectives of each of its stakeholders, whose motivation is presumed to be consumption. Hence, the marketing firm is a firm in Spulber's sense. It shareholders, directors, managers, and employees may

well, as he points out, *prefer* that the organization pursue an optimizing financial objective (profit maximization, in his theory), but their particular goals are summed up in the word consumption. The other defining characteristics of the marketing firm are inherent in its definition as that organization which responds to the imperatives of customer-oriented management. *Nonprofits,* including social marketing campaigns and charities, differ in several respects from marketing firms.

Implications of Goal-Separation

Preceding sections established that marketing firms uniquely engage in marketing transactions, responding to market-determined prices, competing with other marketing firms, and employing the complete marketing mix as a unified means of achieving consumer sales. In addition, marketing firms have a clear-cut entrepreneurial or strategic process, responding to the imperatives of customer-oriented management, and participate in metacontingencies. In this section we are concerned to establish whether charities (as typical of non-profits) can be said to be either firms in Spulber's sense or marketing firms in the sense established in this paper. The goals of non-profits, such as *charitable organizations* are coterminous with those of their stakeholders. It is unlikely that anyone would volunteer to work for such an organization, freely assigning their time and energy to it, without implicitly and explicitly sharing its humanitarian goal. Paid employees, in the even there are any, are also likely to embrace this objective since it is likely they will receive lower remuneration than they might elsewhere. Those who donate physical products to charities clearly also share their goals.

What distinguishes nonprofit firms in general is that they are not legally entitled to allocate any excess of revenues over costs. Hence, as Posner (2014, pp. 537–8) points out, if the nonprofit firm can be said to be maximizing anything, it is clearly something other than profit. The theory of the marketing firm comprehends this eventuality by assuming that all firms maximize a combination of utilitarian *and* informational reinforcement. It is clear, however, that nonprofits, including charities, can face important financial challenges. Posner notes that those nonprofit firms that engage in pecuniary exchanges, for instance, may not be able to price lower than for-profits since they still have to acquire capital in a competitive marketplace (and, we may add, labor too). *Charities,* however, fall into a special category because their capital and much of the labor they employ is donated to them: they can thus distribute their output at a low price or even give it freely to the recipients. The utility functions of charities' altruistic donors contain non-monetary benefits that compensate them for the financial returns they could obtain by investing elsewhere. This behavioral preference on the part of those who donate labor and capital to the charity is central to the form such organizations assumed. Moreover, Posner views the donors to the nonprofit firm as akin to the shareholders of the for-profit firm. He also suggests that if the donors are not in control of the nonprofit firm's board of directors and the board is not in need of new donations, problems of agency costs may arise, just as in for-profit firms (Posner, 2014, p. 538). Being an employee of such can often be very similar to working for a for-profit organization – a job is a job, a career a career. Those who donate physical items and their labor to nonprofit firms may not, of course, be pure altruists (i.e., those who give of their substance, seek nothing in return and indeed receive nothing in return). Donors may seek important informational reinforcement-based benefits such as the enhancement of their reputation as altruistic givers, the exhibition of the donor's wealth, gaining publicity, and perhaps thereby promotes profitable commercial interests. Those who work for charities may gain self-esteem or pride, a raison d'être, social status among friends and the general public, positive self-references for resumés, and so on. In the case of religious charities they may even seek salvation and a happy afterlife and be rewarded here and now by assurance thereof.

Indeed, charities occupy an intriguing position in the matrix of consumer organizations considered here. As Corry (2014, p.5) points out, "The charity sector will never be like other sectors. Indeed its special role means we don't want it to be. It is driven by a sense of mission and passion – few are involved to maximize profits, improve share prices or earn as much as they can." A vital difference between charitable organizations on the one hand and the firm and other consumer organizations on the other is that charities do not seek to attain any specific response from the publics they serve. There is no sense of exchange; rather, there is a uni-directional acquisition (from donors) and provision (to recipients) of a product or service. Even religious charities are bound by this ethos, differing from religious organizations *per se* which seek to inspire a response in terms of conversion or membership from those to whom they appeal (one cannot rule out this motive from religious charities, of course, whose broader objectives, gained from the religious organizations that sponsor them, may include proselytization). By contrast, charitable organizations engage in a form of symbolic non-literal exchange with those from whom they seek to elicit donations but the relationship is one of mutuality rather than transactive marketing.

Implications of Market-Based Pricing and Competition

Charities are not firms: since they are non-profit entities, they clearly are not profit-maximizers, nor yet sales-revenue maximizers. Nor can they be said to practice goal-separation since their corporate objective, the provision of free (at the point of provision) aid to citizens, is identical to that of each of their stakeholder groups. nor yet do they share important characteristics with marketing firms. They are, in particular, unable to practice full customer-oriented management since their publics are identified and defined on the basis of demand, which may come from a variety of sections of the population which cannot necessarily be delineated prior to their appeal for assistance. In particular, their provision of charitable service is not governed by a price mechanism since it is unreservedly given.

A marketing mix includes a product or service, communications strategies, distribution management, and market-determined pricing; the marketing firm seeks to manage each of its marketing mixes as a unified whole that generates consumers and sales, understood as long-term buyers of the marketing firm's productive outputs and repeated purchases.

The insistence of competitive market-based prices is consistent with members of the firm's consumerate having the discretion to allocate their discretionary income efficiently among the products and services available in the market-place. Market-based prices are also capable of indicating to the marketing firm the productive enterprises in which it should engage and those of which it should divest itself.

Among firms and consumer organizations, only the marketing firm unequivocally faces market-determined prices. Marketing cooperatives have a large say in determining prices by virtue of the countervailing power they can exercise by reducing competition among suppliers and acting quasi-monopsonistically. Hence, it seems that marketing cooperatives cannot be considered organizations that are governed by market prices. Some professional partnerships may operate in markets that determine prices but others are regulated in what they can charge by professional bodies. Hence, professional partnerships may face market pricing under circumstances to be delineated by empirical investigation. In the case of public corporations, exposure to market price mechanisms depends on the nature of any involvement of government or quango. Similarly, in such organizations, entrepreneurial and strategic operations may be limited.

Moreover, only the marketing firm unequivocally faces market competition, though marketing cooperatives may well face competition from marketing firms operating in the same fields and, possibly, from other cooperatives, though such businesses are usually geographically confined. Professional partnerships may compete with similar organizations, though they may be regulated so that they cannot overtly compete (e.g., restrictions on advertising and promotion).

Implications of the Entrepreneurial (Strategic) Process

Managing the strategic process of the firm is the central task of the officers of the marketing firm and serves to differentiate their endeavors from those of the managers of consumer organizations. This management task is that of determining the firm's strategic scope, defined by the range of marketing mixes the firm is able to support and the spectrum of consumerates through whose service it can achieve its objectives of survival and profit-maximization. Achieving a strategic scope that attains these objectives involves the performance of three marketing operations and each of these entails specific informational inputs and decision outputs. These operations are the *Creation of Marketing Intelligence* which consists in market search and appropriate managerial response to reveal the potential (*feasible*) strategic scope of the firm given its capabilities and resources; the *Formulation of Marketing Strategy,* through which is determined the planned strategic scope of the firm, namely the markets it proposes to serve, the nature of the marketing mixes with which it will do so, and the necessary diversification and innovation this requires. This procedure decides the *potential* strategic-scope of the firm and is based on detailed planning of the product-market scope of the firm and its resourcing; and *Marketing Mix Management*, in which the resultant portfolio of marketing mixes

is planned, constructed and implemented through its life cycles. The outcome of this managerial activity in which the firm's offerings are brought to the consumer who decides her action by buying or rejecting them demonstrates the *revealed* or *effective* strategic scope of the firm.

Consumer organizations have no need of these marketing operations in order to achieve their consumption goals. Unlike the marketing firm, there is no need to respond to marketing incompleteness. Their markets are given by the purpose which originally brought them into being, namely the consumption behavior of the publics they serve. They have no need of strategic scope analyses and administration. A charitable organization has no need of a profit goal of any shape or form since it is either supplied by voluntary donations or publicly funded; it is unable to deploy a comprehensive marketing mix because it is not subject to a price mechanism and its "product" or "service" is not exchanged in a literal or objective manner that transfers property rights between the parties to a transaction. There is no direct competition involved in its actions (indeed, the only "competition" that can be envisioned within its sphere of operations is that for the consumer's time from all other sources of activity in which she might engage – hardly a precise definition). There is no reason why such an organization needs to be entrepreneurial since its sphere of operations is given and it has no incentive to innovate or alter either its offering or its consumerate: indeed, there may be, as a result of its remit, strict limitations on its changing either. There is no need to explore new "markets" within a charitable organization. Such an organization is neither a firm nor a marketing firm.

A major point of differentiation between marketing firms and consumer organizations of all kinds lies in the marketing firm's incorporation of the consumerate in the entrepreneurial process (**Figure 7**). Many business-to-business firms co-invent and co-innovate with customers for instance; and many business-to-consumer firms are also keen to use consumer insights and to market test and test market along with customers. The consumerate is an integral part of the strategic process. On the face of it only marketing firms have incentive and opportunity to include their consumerates in the entrepreneurial process. However, although its scope is limited in this regard, the marketing co-operative has restricted ability to vary its product-market scope, pursue strategic marketing, or marketing mix management. The question is how far this reduces the gap between the marketing firm and the co-operative in this context. Moreover, partnerships may have some scope for this, albeit professional regulation may restrict their scope (for instance, some professional partnerships are restricted by their governing institutes from offering services jointly with other professions). The difference in managerial perception, perspective, and operations is, however, immense.

Implications of Customer-Oriented Management

The marketing firm is unique in seeking to discover marketing incompleteness and to respond to it by the creation and
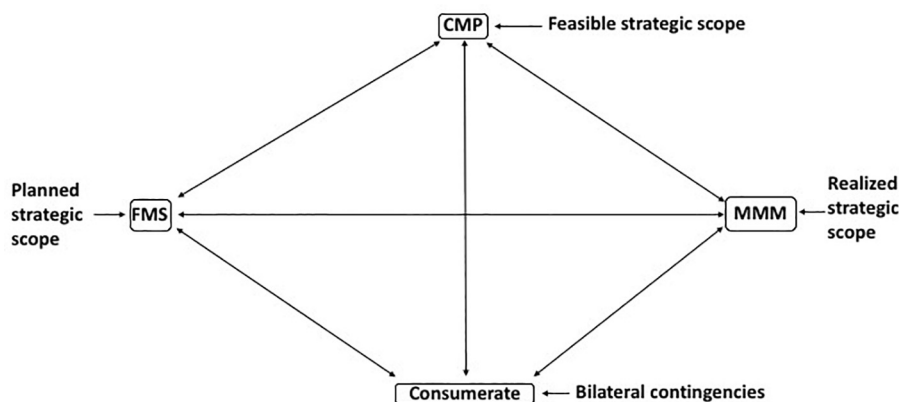
FIGURE 7 | The strategic (entrepreneurial) process encompasses the consumerate. CMI, creation of marketing intelligence; FMS, formulation of marketing strategy; MMM, marketing mix management; Foxall (in preparation).

management of a portfolio of marketing mixes that respond to the realities of consumer discretion and consumer sophistication. This is the mechanism by which it maximizes sales revenue and earns the profits necessary to satisfy its stakeholders and to reinvest in the business. As customer requirements change, so the business changes by adapting its mission and sphere of operations. The consumerate is the determinant of what business the firm is in and, equally important, the firm is free to respond by changing its strategic mission. There is no corresponding impetus for the charity which is locked in to a particular mission and function: to depart from this it would cease to exist. Firms may diversify; charities, not. The firm is an instigator of markets and marketing opportunities; the charity, a response to a specific need. The firm's success in carrying out its mission is apparent from its levels of sales and profitability, dynamic market signals that determine the direction and scope of the firm; these attainments also put a limit on the activities of the firm by enhancing or circumscribing its sphere of operations for instance. The charity is limited to subjective feedback on its operations; it has no market signals to propel it into new directions.
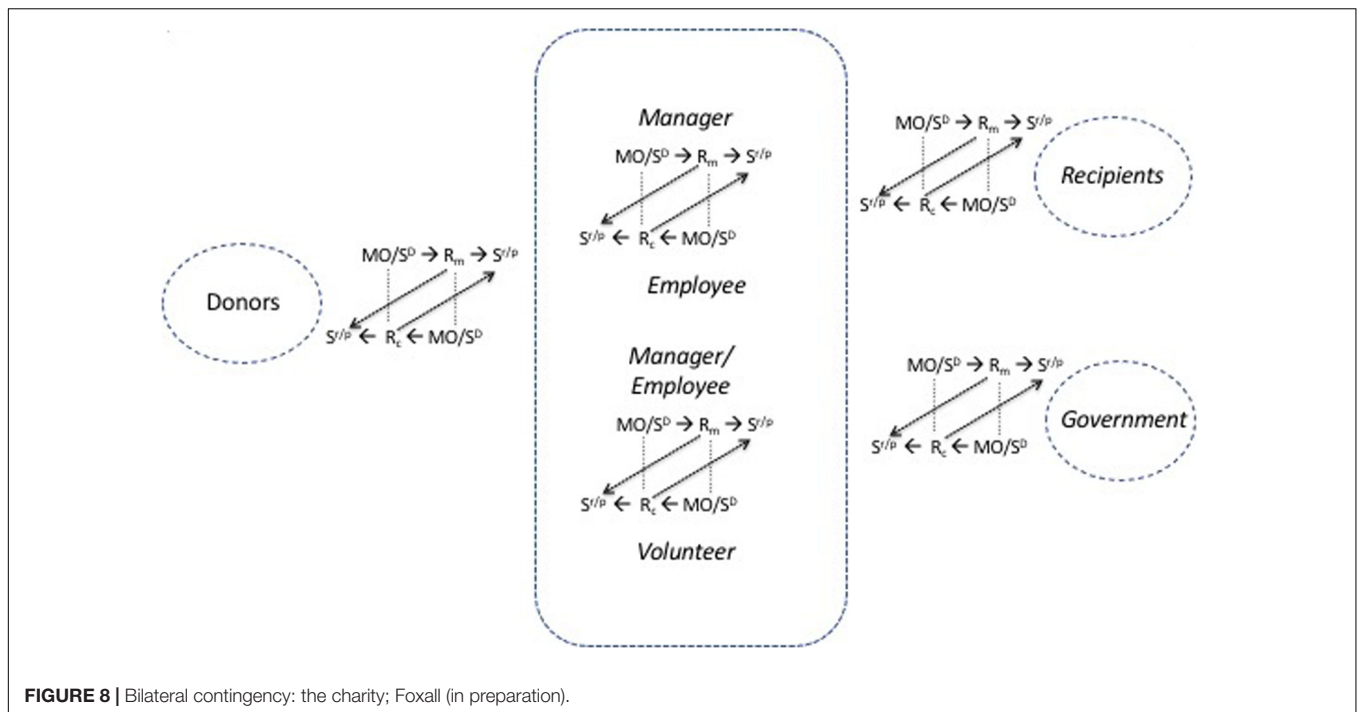
Implications of Organization

The relevance of bilateral contingency to the marketing firm was discussed above. Here we compare the marketing firm in terms of bilateral contingency with consumer organizations. Non-profits are characterized by the relationships shown in **Table 2** (in the case of charities) and **Figure 8**. Although charitable organizations differ markedly depending on social, cultural, and legal contexts (e.g., Chevalier-Watts, 2017), some generalizations can be suggested. Crucially, what is missing from both the table and the figure is mention of C1, which in the case of the marketing firm represents a relationship in which shareholders' controlling the directors, even to the extent of having statutory influence. In the instance of the charitable organization, the donors may as Posner suggests *resemble* shareholders and it is true that in some circumstances they may be in a position to exert influence and control. However, many charitable trusts came into existence already in possession of considerable endowments from

TABLE 2 | Types of bilateral contingency: the charity.

Relationship	Participants	Bilateral contingency	Type of relationship
A	Charity – donors	Horizontal, non-contractual, extra-organizational	Gift/near gift (mutuality) relationship
B	Charity – recipients	Horizontal, non-contractual, extra-organizational	Gift/near gift (mutuality) relationship
C2	Board – managers	Vertical, principal-agent, contractual	Market transaction
C3	Manager – employee	Vertical, principal-agent, contractual	Market transaction
C4	Manager – manager	Horizontal, non-contractual	Professional
C5	Employee – employee	Horizontal, non-contractual	Professional

donors which they retain. There is a strong likelihood that the donors may be unable to exert any pressure on the board of trustees or directors, and therefore on the managers, if no further donations are required to ensure the survival and prosperity of the organization.

Non-profits often and social marketing campaigns and charities generally meet their publics through *gift or quasi-gift relationships*. These are a not marketing transactions since the consideration, though often involving physical products or legally constituted services, are not paid for, certainly not at market rates. Objective exchange is unlikely in these circumstances; nor is a competitive pecuniary market likely, though there may be some form of token pricing. Usually, however, there is some form of subsidization, possibly by government, possibly private. There is no market price involved and on those grounds alone there can be no full marketing mix. The product or service involved is provided freely or almost freely and it is on these grounds that we refer to this as a gift or near-gift relationship. The supplier

FIGURE 8 | Bilateral contingency: the charity; Foxall (in preparation).

might be a commercial firm, government, or a private donor. This situation does not involve marketing transactions of any kind.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The marketing firm differs from consumer organizations in four respects. First, as we have seen, in respect of its goal separation, its having a goal (profit-maximization) that is distinct from those of its stakeholders. By contrast, consumer organizations pursue consumption goals on behalf of their members; this is true of cooperatives, partnerships, welfare organizations, social marketing campaigns, and public corporations; second, by responding to the imperatives of customer-oriented management, consumer choice and consumer sophistication. It is, specifically, its responding to the imperatives that makes the firm a *marketing* firm. Consumer organizations have their mission set for them. This is especially the case for public corporations and social marketing campaigns but also for cooperatives, and some welfare organizations. They are not free to shift their assets into serving wholly different product-markets – admittedly not many firms do this, but they are always legally free to do so. Third, marketing firms are unique in engaging in marketing transactions based on literal or objective exchanges of property rights, deployment of the whole marketing mix, operating in pecuniary markets, and facing competitive market prices. Consumer organizations, by contrast, lack competitive market prices *or* do not employ entire marketing mixes; moreover, the exchanges in which they participate are often not objective, being at the most symbolic. They are linked to their publics via bilateral contingencies but not by markets. Finally, marketing firms practice entrepreneurship through dynamic alertness to the opportunity for profit through

better serving existing consumer needs or by satisfying needs new to the firm (e.g., Kirzner, 1973; Holcombe, 2007).

The result is a portfolio of marketing mixes that achieves the objectives of the firm, its consumerate, and its stakeholders. This array of marketing mixes generated and managed by marketing firms constitutes an output that is over and above the combined outputs of their members; upon the reception of these marketing mixes by the market depends the firm's ability to achieve its objective. The marketing firm therefore participates in a *metacontingency*. Consumer organizations do none of these (Foxall, 2020a). Rather, they promote the consumption potential of their stakeholders, namely the income, pecuniary and/or psychic these individuals receive which increases their opportunities to consume. Charities specifically differ in that they may have the advantage of offering lower or zero prices to their publics. The theory of the marketing firm, based on a synthesis of behavioral psychology, microeconomics, and marketing science, allows these differences between marketing firms and consumer organizations to be understood within a common framework of conceptualization and analysis. This has important implications for how researchers view the nature of managerial and non-managerial work in these various kinds of business organization. Whilst we can treat pecuniary reinforcement as both utilitarian *and* informational reinforcement (as money or income serves both functions in Hertzberg's two-factor theory: see, e.g., Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1964, 1966), we must recognize that in some consumer organizations, such as charities this may be small or nonexistent. But as we have seen charity workers receive income in the form of informational reinforcement, the pride and so on they gain from participating. We need the apparatus of bilateral contingency to do justice to this, especially the concept of mutuality relationships as

well as marketing transactions. The marketing firm moreover is a *hub* of bilateral contingencies. Unlike most consumer organizations it *participates in a metacontingency*. It has an output which is over and above the combined outputs of its members. Consumer organizations do not: their output takes the form of macrobehavior. In addition, the marketing firm, by definition, responds to the imperatives of customer-oriented management by generating its profits by means of the fulfillment of considerations arising from consumer choice and consumer sophistication. As a result the nature of managerial work in the marketing firm differs profoundly from that of consumer organizations: the necessity of strategic entrepreneurship on the part of the marketing firm is the key. Finally, we can extend the theory of the marketing firm by taking consumer organizations into consideration with respect to (i) intra-organizational bilateral contingencies (their incidence and strength) (ii) by comparing the marketing firm's participation in a metacontingency with the capacity of consumer organizations to generate only macrobehavior (iii) by introduction of the concept of *multilateral contingency* which is capable of uniting analyses of the marketing firm and consumer organizations. Further research might concentrate on some apparent differences between marketing firms and consumer organizations that call for empirical investigation. In the marketing firm, for instance, goal separation imposes a hierarchy extending from shareholders (owners) to directors and then managers to employees. What are the implications for the range of bilateral contingencies that this entails for the management of the organization? What is the link between the marketing transactions that make up some of these contingences and the mutuality relationships that support them? Is it the case that consumer organizations generally have a much simpler and shorter chain of command than marketing firms? How does principal–agent management differ in organizations that include shareholders, directors, managers, and employees from those that involve trustees and directors, managers, and volunteers, and how do these various relationships differ in terms of day-to-day management and the monitoring and control of supervised organizational members? A further possibility for empirical investigation arises from a specific observation about charitable organizations made by Posner and adopted in this paper. It concerns the situation in which donors (treated as quasi-shareholders) do not control the board of trustees, and the board has no need to introduce new capital into the organization (perhaps by virtue of the large endowments that were provided when the charity was established), then agency costs are likely to be incurred through a lack of incentive to garner new donors or otherwise satisfy the charity's publics. The assertion is that directors and managers may therefore slack off from the pursuit of high levels of efficiency as long as the minimal goals of the organization are met; far from being maximizers, they have become low-level satisficers. Can we adduce case study evidence for this and also gain some general idea of how prevalent these occurrences are among charities?

In conclusion: there is great potential for further research based on the discussion in this paper. Further analysis of charities by a deeper investigation of their objectives, practices, outcomes, and organizational structures would be beneficial in increasing understanding of their relationship with their markets. It is also recommended that the analysis of consumer organizations is extended by considering, in addition to charities, co-operatives, partnerships, state-owned enterprises. These additional research streams will add to a better understanding to consumer organizations as a whole.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

GF inaugurated the project, did primary research into the theory of the marketing firm and the nature of charitable organizations, and wrote the earliest drafts. All authors contributed to the writing of the final draft. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

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