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**TESIS DOCTORAL – PROGRAMA EN ECONOMÍA Y EMPRESA**

**SEARCHING NEW ORGANIZATIONAL  
PARADIGMS: EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS  
ABOUT SELF-MANAGEMENT TEAMS,  
ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIORS AND  
WELL-BEING**

**Tesis presentada por:**

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Castellón de la Plana, Febrero de 2024





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**Tesis presentada por Zina Barghouti Abrini para optar al grado de doctora por  
la Universitat Jaume I**

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Companies are communities of human beings,  
not collections of human resources.

*Henry Mintzberg*



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## **ABSTRACT**

Our contemporary society is beset by critical social challenges, including economic inequality, job instability and the resulting uncertainty that pervades our environment. These phenomena not only act as perpetuators of socioeconomic disparities, but also have a direct impact on people's access to opportunities and overall well-being. Financial crises and market fluctuations amplify these conditions, generating turbulence both in employment and in the economic stability of individuals and organizations, sowing insecurity and fragility in the economic life of our society. In this critical context, the urgency of researching and developing alternative management models capable of transcending the existing traditional and bureaucratic structures becomes evident. Despite the presence of innovative approaches, their implementation remains limited, underscoring the need for continuous research to refine more effective solutions.

In response to the urgent need to overcome traditional and bureaucratic structures in the organisational environment, this doctoral thesis engages in a thorough exploration of alternative management models. Although innovative approaches exist, their implementation is still limited, highlighting the importance of further research to find more effective solutions. In this context, the thesis supports the idea that specific behaviours and work environments could benefit from incorporating compassion and altruism. These elements help reduce conflict in work relationships, build trust and resilience, and improve interactions between people. Self-management emerges as a key strategy, providing power and autonomy to employees, avoiding burnout and reducing bureaucracy.

In particular, the dissertation is composed of four chapters that present empirical models analysed quantitatively. In the first chapter, the theorist points out that the lack of compassion and altruism in work environments becomes one of the contributing factors to relational conflict and organisational fragility. The research proposes the creation of environments based on compassion and altruism, highlighting organisational resilience as a mediating variable. It seeks to understand how compassion influences business performance through strengthening organisational resilience. The second chapter focuses on the insufficient attention to organisational compassion and its impact on firms' innovative capacity. It highlights the importance of organisational trust as a key factor in this relationship. The research aims to advance the compassion literature by revealing the organisational consequences of fostering a compassion-based work environment.

The third chapter addresses the need to overcome the lack of employee autonomy and power. The implementation of self-managing teams is suggested as a way to increase well-being, engagement and decrease bureaucracy. The research focuses on identifying potentially significant relationships between self-regulated teams and key characteristics such as organisational commitment and burnout. Following the lines of research on self-managed teams, the fourth chapter presents a multilevel approach that combines two models, addressing the deficiency in employees' psychological well-being. It studies how autogenous teams promote peace of mind and decrease burnout. The study advances the knowledge and practical application of the phenomenon of self-managing teams in the business environment.

Therefore, this thesis aims not only to point out the shortcomings present in contemporary organisations, but also to propose concrete solutions through alternative management models. Each chapter of the thesis is presented as a proposal to improve the problems identified, providing practical contributions to the field of organisational management.





# **INTRODUCTION**

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Currently, we are living in a social crisis marked by several interrelated issues affecting millions of people worldwide. Among these problems, mental health, economic instability, economic inequality, and job insecurity stand out, and they are having a significant impact on people's daily lives.

Regarding economic instability, the data is concerning. The COVID-19 pandemic has had a devastating impact on the global economy, causing an unprecedented recession in many countries. According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) report from April 2021, a contraction of 3.5% in the global economy is expected in the period from 2022 to 2025. This has led to a massive loss of jobs, business closures, and financial difficulties for many families. This situation of economic instability has affected the mental health of many people, increasing anxiety, depression, and other mental disorders. Additionally, social isolation and movement restrictions have had a negative effect on the mental health of many individuals, especially those who were already dealing with mental health issues before the pandemic. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), more than 450 million people suffer from mental disorders worldwide. Furthermore, it is estimated that 76% to 85% of individuals with severe mental disorders do not receive appropriate treatment in low and middle-income countries. Therefore, this alarming situation is compounded by the lack of resources and proper medical attention to address these disorders, often leading to a worsening of the situation.

Another significant issue our society faces is economic inequality. Despite economic improvements in many countries, there remains a substantial gap between the wealthiest and the poorest. According to Oxfam's report "Time to Care" published in 2021, the richest 1% of the global population possesses more than double the wealth of the poorest 92% of the population. This economic disparity results in a range of negative

consequences for society as a whole. Limited access to economic and educational opportunities restricts the development potential of many individuals, creating a vicious cycle of poverty and intergenerational inequality. Furthermore, economic inequality is closely linked to the types of jobs being created. These are often precarious, poorly paid, and insecure jobs. According to data from the International Labour Organization (ILO), over 300 million workers worldwide are living on extremely low wages, making it challenging to meet their basic needs and those of their families. ILO studies also reveal that approximately 42% of workers worldwide are employed in involuntary part-time jobs, and about 61% of the global workforce is engaged in the informal economy. These jobs typically lack labor protections, basic rights, and access to social security. Thus, it is evident that economic inequality stems from the working conditions created in society, and these conditions, in turn, negatively impact the quality of life and the mental health of workers.

Another concerning socioeconomic factor in the modern world is job insecurity. Automation and digitization are rapidly transforming the labor market, which can result in the loss of traditional jobs and the need to acquire new skills to adapt to future demands. This generates uncertainty and anxiety among workers, as they are unsure if they will be able to maintain their jobs or find new employment opportunities. The implementation of new technologies and automation in the workplace can also lead to job insecurity. According to the World Economic Forum, it is estimated that by 2025, around 50% of employees worldwide will need to reskill (acquire new skills) to adapt to technological changes. This situation influences the psychological state of workers, leading to situations of fear of job loss, increased demands and tasks in the workplace, ongoing competition, among others.

In conclusion, these socioeconomic data reflect the urgency of addressing the social crisis we are facing. It is necessary to implement business policies that promote equal opportunities, wealth redistribution, and job security to ensure that all individuals have the opportunity to develop their potential and lead a dignified life, regardless of their socioeconomic background. Now, what is the current business landscape like? How do leading companies in the market operate? What organizational philosophy and culture do they follow? How do they compete in the market? What role do employees play in these companies? These would be some of the questions we ask ourselves after analyzing the current socioeconomic situation and its influence on workers and the company as a whole.

The current business environment is highly competitive on a global level (Liu, 2013; Hoskisson and Harrison, 2021). Companies face the need to differentiate themselves and stand out in a saturated market. Innovation, product quality, customer experience, and agility in decision-making are key factors for business success (Keiningham, 2020; Brand et al., 2021). These are companies competing in volatile and ever-changing environments, which increase their level of demands and adaptation. The demands of the current business environment play a crucial role in the employees who are part of it. For example, market-leading companies pursuing competitiveness often seek to optimize their efficiency and productivity. This can lead to employees facing heavier workloads and high job demands. Market competition can foster a fast-paced work culture, where employees must meet tight deadlines and high performance expectations. This additional pressure can lead to competition among employees, lack of compassion and altruism in the workplace, and an impact on psychological and physical well-being, stress, and burnout, negatively affecting the mental and physical health of employees (Salanova et al., 2014; Bakker and Oerlemans, 2016).

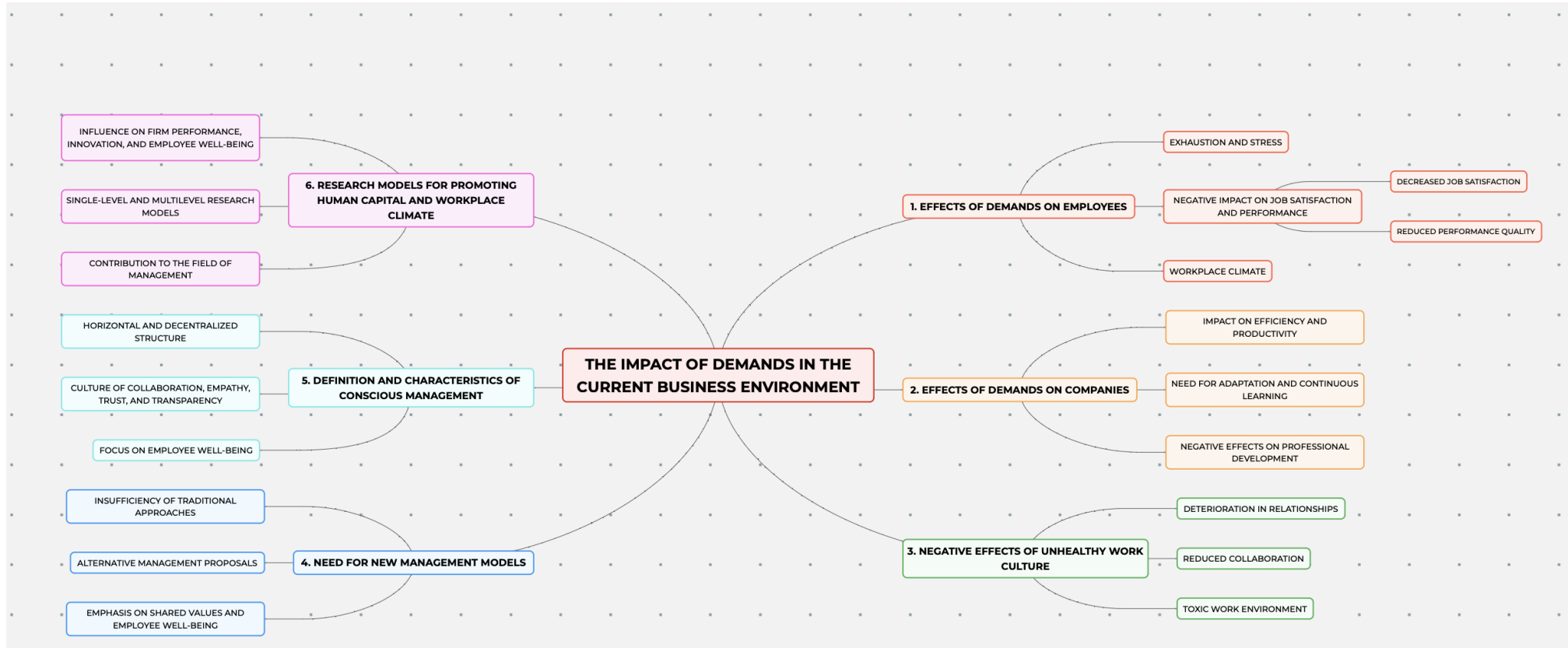
On the other hand, the current business landscape is characterized by the Technological Revolution and market changes. This characteristic leads to increased demands on employees, such as requiring new skills, updates, and continuous learning to adapt to new technologies and ways of working. Previous studies (Laloux, 2014; Warr and Nielsen, 2018) have shown that workers who cannot keep up with these demands may face difficulties in remaining employed or experience a decline in their job relevance. However, the demands of the current business environment can have negative impacts on both employees and the company as a whole (Kanov, 2021). Drawing from the academic literature in Business Management and Organizational Psychology, several authors argue that the demands of the current business environment can influence job satisfaction, performance, productivity, workplace climate, and professional development. First, authors like Russell (1980), Salanova et al (2014), and Warr and Nielsen (2018) suggest that one of the primary effects of increasing job demands is the exhaustion and stress experienced by employees. Work overload and high expectations can create an imbalance between work and personal life, leading to physical and mental health problems. Recent studies (e.g., Warr and Nielsen, 2018) have demonstrated that chronic work-related stress can lead to decreased job satisfaction, increased turnover, and higher absenteeism rates. Furthermore, physical and mental exhaustion can reduce concentration and creativity, thereby affecting employees' ability to generate new ideas and innovative solutions (Tsai et al., 2006; Warr and Nielsen, 2018).

Secondly, Kolm and Ythier (2006) or Ko et al. (2021) argue that when employees are subjected to high job demands, the quality of their work may be negatively affected. The constant pressure to meet tight deadlines can lead to errors and oversights, which can impact both performance and the quality of products or services offered by the organization. Other authors, as seen in their studies, note that increased demands can have

a significant impact on the workplace climate within an organization (Pirson and Lawrence, 2009; Spitzack, 2011). When employees consistently feel pressured and overwhelmed, they are more likely to experience higher levels of job dissatisfaction and internal conflict. This can lead to a deterioration in relationships among team members, reduced collaboration, and an unhealthy work culture. In the long term, this can create a toxic work environment.

As a result of the current business situation, there has been a growing need in recent years to adopt new management models. It has been demonstrated that organizational approaches focused on promoting competition, individualism, efficiency, and effectiveness are insufficient to address the complex challenges that organizations face today (Figure 1). In response to this demand, several authors have suggested alternative management proposals that support more horizontal and innovative management models centered around shared values and employee well-being (Rynes et al., 2012; Guinot et al., 2016; Kanov, 2021). Among the management models proposed in the literature, Conscious Management models have gained prominence (Laloux, 2014; Robertson, 2015; Lee & Edmondson, 2017). Conscious Management is an organizational management model that focuses on creating organizations with a more horizontal, flexible, and decentralized structure (figure 1. Conceptual diagram 1). It values a culture based on collaboration, empathy, trust, and transparency (Robertson, 2015). It is an alternative management approach based on the idea that organizations can be engines of relevant and positive change in society and for all stakeholders, including employees (Wolff, 2012). It is often defined as an approach that seeks employee well-being

Figure 1 .Conceptual diagram 1: The current business situation



Source: the authors



In line with this approach, this doctoral thesis aims to provide a thorough analysis of various research models that emphasize the crucial importance of human capital and the workplace climate in the organizational context (Figure 2). Specifically, it seeks to formulate management models that adopt a more humanistic and conscious perspective with the purpose of examining the behaviors and organizational environments that have a positive influence on both employee well-being and the promotion of organizational learning, performance, and innovation. Consequently, this approach seeks a balance between human dimensions and goals of efficiency, effectiveness, and competitiveness in the workplace and positions itself as a substantial contribution to the growth and adaptation of organizations in an ever-evolving context.

This thesis consists of four chapters, which translate into three empirical models to be analyzed quantitatively. These models were developed with the aim of investigating and better understanding the influence of a range of behaviors and organizational environments on variables such as firm performance, innovation, and employee well-being. Each chapter will focus on a specific model where relevant data was collected, appropriate statistical methods were applied, and a comprehensive analysis was conducted. To achieve this, both single-level and multilevel research models have been proposed. Through these three models, the intention is to contribute to the existing body of knowledge in the field of management, providing a strong and rigorous quantitative perspective for the analysis and interpretation of the results obtained.

The first chapter of this thesis introduces a research proposal focused on the creation of workplace environments based on compassion and altruism and the evaluation of their effects in the business context. Organizational resilience is proposed as a mediating variable in this relationship. The research will focus on analyzing both the direct and

indirect relationships between these constructs. The primary objective of this proposal is to advance the understanding of the benefits of promoting compassion and altruism in workplace environments. Through this research, the aim is to identify the dynamics underlying the creation of healthier and more effective work environments, without concentrating on the specific study outcomes. To carry out this study, a structural equation model will be applied, and a sample of highly innovative companies operating in various sectors will be investigated (2015). The proposal seeks to understand how the presence of compassion in the workplace can foster an organizational climate based on altruism. In turn, it will examine how this climate indirectly influences company performance by strengthening organizational resilience.

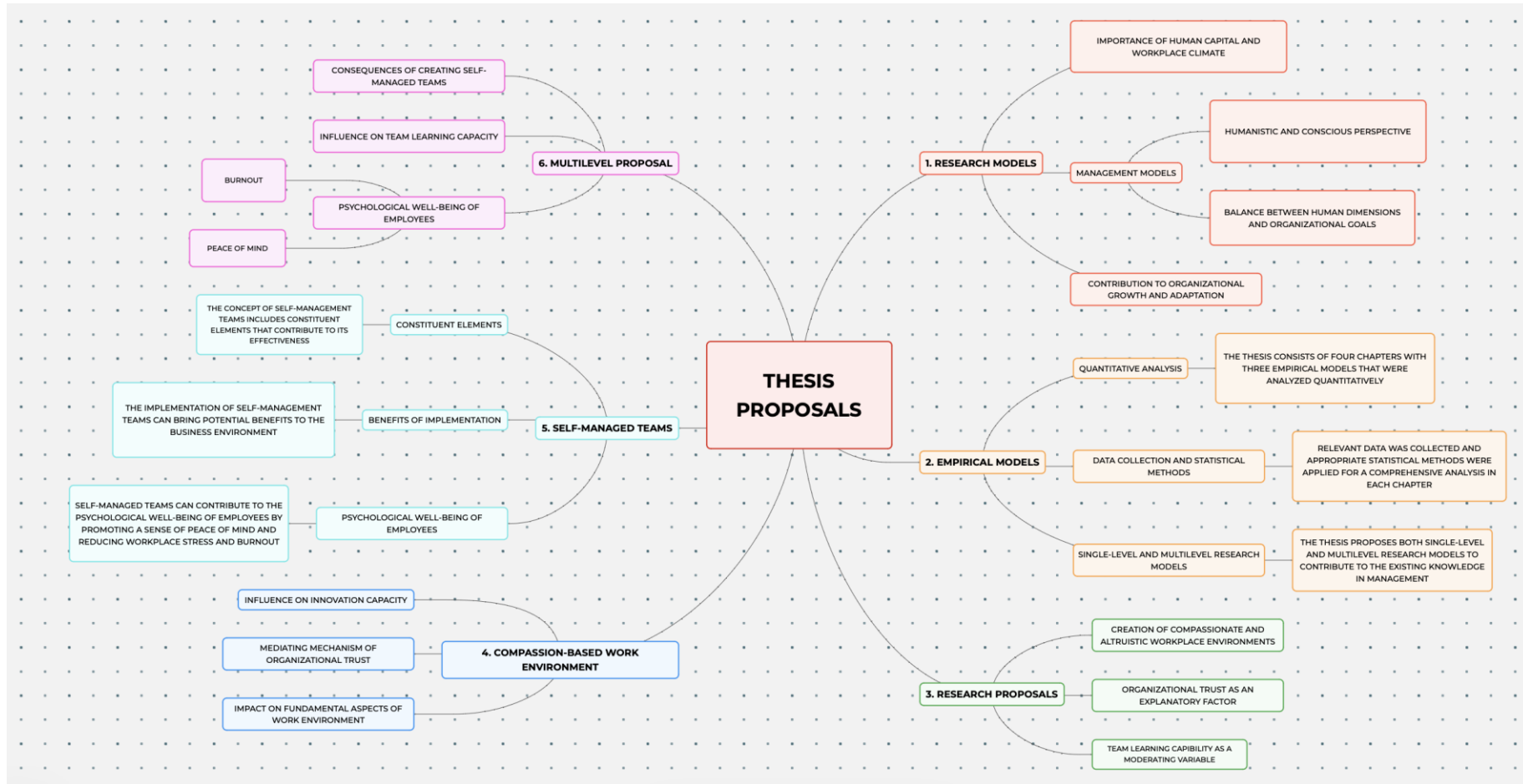
The second chapter of this thesis presents a research proposal focused on exploring the implications of creating a compassion-based work environment. It highlights the interest in understanding the benefits that compassion can bring to key organizational aspects, with a particular focus on innovation capability. The research aims to delve into the relationship between organizational compassion and the innovative capacity of companies. It is suggested that organizational trust could play an important role as an explanatory and motivating factor in this relationship. To carry out this study, a structural equation model will be applied to a sample of innovative Spanish companies from various sectors (2017). The primary purpose of this proposal is to advance the literature on compassion by revealing the organizational consequences of fostering a compassion-based work environment. The research seeks to understand how compassion can positively influence a company's innovation capacity and how organizational trust can act as a mediating mechanism in this relationship, without focusing on the specific study outcomes.

The third chapter of the thesis embarks on a detailed exploration of the concept of "self-management teams", with the purpose of obtaining an in-depth understanding of its constituent elements and evaluating the possible benefits derived from its implementation. The research focuses on identifying potential relationships between this phenomenon and key variables such as organizational commitment, job burnout, job satisfaction, among other relevant aspects. The objective is to unravel how the introduction of self-management teams can impact fundamental aspects of the work environment. To achieve this purpose, the study focuses on performing regression analysis using data collected from a representative sample of tourism companies in the Valencian Community during the year 2023. Through this methodology, it is expected to shed light on the possible benefits derived from the adoption of self-managed teams in the business environment, which will provide valuable contributions to the understanding and practical application of this model in the specific context of companies, thus offering an exploratory study of the phenomenon of self-managed teams that will serve as a useful basis for the development of the fourth study.

The fourth chapter introduces a multilevel proposal that combines two models. It aims to investigate the consequences of creating self-managed teams. On one hand, it explores how a self-managed team-based work environment promotes a sense of peace of mind in all team members. On the other hand, it examines how this same environment reduces workplace stress and burnout, and these relationships are influenced by the team's learning capacity. The goal is to understand how self-managed teams can contribute to the psychological well-being of employees, without addressing the specific research outcomes.

Following this introduction, the four chapters of the thesis will be presented. Each chapter follows the structure of a research article. Subsequently, a general discussion of the results obtained will be conducted, and finally, the final conclusions reached in this doctoral thesis will be presented.

Figure 2. Conceptual diagram 2: thesis proposals



Source: the authors



## **CHAPTER I**

# **Compassion and altruism in organizations: A path for firm survival<sup>1</sup>**

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<sup>1</sup> This chapter has been published in the International Journal of Manpower. In addition, a version of this chapter has won the Best Paper Award in the Young Researchers section (Hispano-Lusas Congress). Full details are given in Appendix B.





## **Compassion and Altruism in Organizations: A Path for Firm Survival**

### **ABSTRACT**

In recent years a paradigm shift has been proposed in the organizational sciences that includes a change from self-centeredness to interconnectedness. This emergent management paradigm considers that employees are not only motivated by self-interest, but also by other-centered values such as altruism and compassion for others. This alternative proposal suggests the need for a more humanistic perspective for management. Based on this approach, the aim of this study is to explore the consequences of compassion and altruism in the workplace for firm performance, using organizational resilience as a mediating variable. To this end, we applied a structural equation model to a sample of highly innovative companies from different sectors. The results confirm that compassion at work leads to a climate based on altruism, which indirectly increases firm performance by means of organizational resilience. This study contributes to the organizational literature by revealing some benefits of promoting altruism and compassion in organizations.

## **1.1.INTRODUCTION**

In the hostile, masculine, competitive and individualistic environment in which business operates, issues such as individual performance, aggressiveness or competitiveness have been considered essential for organizational success. Consequently, academic interest and business practices have neglected the exploration and development of other organizational values and behaviors with a greater focus on helping or caring for others (e.g. altruism, common good, collaboration, compassion, integration, among others) (Elizur and Koslowsky, 2001; Kanov, 2021). However, in the last few years a number of scholars have noted a paradigm shift in organizational sciences, management theory and practice involving a transition from self-centeredness to interconnectedness (e.g. Guinot, Chiva, & Mallen, 2016; Rynes et al., 2012). This alternative management paradigm views employees as motivated not only by self-interest, but also by other-centered values such as altruism and compassion for others. These developments therefore suggest there is a need for a more humanistic perspective in management and highlight the importance of altruistic behaviors to promote organizational functioning.

According with this alternative paradigm, in recent years some academic research has begun to explore the relevance of altruism and compassion in organizational settings (e.g., Emmerik, Jawahar, & Stone 2005; Guinot, Chiva, & Mallén, 2015, 2016; Mallén, Chiva, Alegre, & Guinot, 2015). Results in the area of research of compassion at work appear promising due to the positive effects of compassionate feelings on organizations and employees (e.g., Dutton, Workman, & Hardin, 2014; Guinot, Miralles, Chiva, & Rodriguez, 2020; Lilius et al., 2008; Worline & Dutton, 2017). For example, Engstrom and Cedar (2011) found that a compassionate leadership style was related to higher levels of organizational performance. Moreover, compassion at work has been positively related

to collective capabilities such as innovations, organizational learning, productivity, and performance (Guinot, et al., 2020; Worline & Dutton, 2017).

Compassion at work means empathizing with another's suffering and voluntarily acting to alleviate their pain (Worline and Dutton, 2017). Put in other words, compassion is defined as sensitivity to the suffering of others coupled with the motivation to alleviate that pain (Kanov, 2021). Therefore, it can be understood as an affective state that could lead the individual to be involved in helping actions. For this reason, compassion may be posited as an antecedent of helping others or altruism. Altruism in organizations is included as an essential dimension of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCB is defined as "an individual behavior that is discretionary and not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, which, in aggregate, promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988).

Several studies (e.g., Organ, 1988, p.8; Guinot et al, 2016) reveal that altruism in organizations -that is, discretionary behaviors that have the effect of helping another specific person with a task or problem relevant to the organization- enhances organizational learning (e.g., 2016; Emmerik et al., 2005). Therefore, it appears that companies that create a work environment based on altruism promote learning, which is strongly linked to resilience. Organizational resilience entails the ability of an organization to anticipate, prepare for, respond and adapt to change and sudden disruptions in order to survive and thrive (Organ et al., 2006). Similarly, Vogus and Sutcliffe (2007) defines organizational resilience as a dynamic adaptive capacity of the organization that grows and develops over time. The term has recently been applied in organizational science as a key concept that could help organizations survive in competitive, difficult or volatile environments (e.g., Lengnick-Hall, Beck and Lengnick-Hall 2011). More specifically, organizational resilience has been shown to have a positive

effect on firm performance, since it helps workers to meet customer needs, to take advantage of opportunities that might otherwise be missed, to act quickly and effectively in threat and crisis situations (e.g., Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011; Rodriguez-Sanchez, Guinot, Chiva, & Lopez-Cabrales, 2019).

Therefore, our goal in this study is to discover whether organizational resilience can explain the apparent positive effects of compassion and altruism on firm performance. Although some academic progress has been made on the topic of compassion and altruism in organizational settings, more research is clearly needed (Kanov, 2021; Guinot et al., 2020). Our review of the literature reveals scant attention to these topics, despite proposals indicating their positive effects for organizational functioning (Kanungo and Konger, 1993; Lilius, et al., 2011). Accordingly, this study aims to take a step forward in the management literature by unveiling some consequences of compassion and altruism in organizations. In particular, the model proposed in this research attempts to offer a path -by means of organizational resilience- for increasing firm performance based on the power of compassion and altruism among organizational members. As well as, empirically validating the hypotheses proposed. To this aim, we conduct a quantitative analysis of a sample of Spanish firms with high innovativeness. Specifically, we use structural equation modeling on a sample of 300 cases from different sectors to test the relationships addressed in the study.

After this introduction, we present a brief theoretical review of the most relevant concepts referred to in the study, namely compassion, altruism, and resilience. We then propose our three research hypotheses and describe the methodology used. Finally, the results are reported, and the implications and limitations of the study are discussed, along with proposals for future research.

## **1.2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **1.2.1. Compassion**

Compassion is not a new topic; the concept has been widely studied in the fields of religion, philosophy and sociology, but was only recently introduced into the organizational and management literature by Peter Frost in 1999. This author defined compassion as a feeling that arises when an individual perceives the suffering of another, and is motivated to alleviate that suffering. Likewise, Kanov et al. (2004), define compassion as a process in which one individual or group detects and feels the suffering of another, and this feeling allows them to act selflessly to alleviate the suffering. From their research, we can infer that compassion is a four-part process: (1) realizing that suffering is present in an organization, (2) making sense of the suffering in a way that contributes to the desire to alleviate it, (3) feeling a concern for the person or persons who are suffering, and (4) taking action to alleviate their suffering in some way (Guinot et al., 2020; Worline & Dutton, 2017). Similarly, compassion can be understood as the emotional reaction of a person to the suffering of another, with the goal of reducing that suffering without expecting anything in return (Lilius et al., 2008). Therefore, compassion is an emotionally based interpersonal process that involves acting voluntarily to alleviate another person's suffering (Dutton et al., 2014).

On the one hand, Kanov et al. (2004) suggest that compassion is characterized by three key sub-processes: noticing (perceiving that someone is suffering), feeling (feeling of empathy), and responding (action to reduce suffering). Compassion also requires processes for moving from individual to collective reaction (Poorkavoos, 2016). Kanov et al. (2004) refer to these processes as propagation, legitimation and coordination, which may help to unravel the dynamics of compassion in organizations. This study examines compassion at the organizational level, considered as the level at which organizational

members act to alleviate the suffering of others (Guinot et al., 2020). In this sense, compassion at the organizational level is understood as a process in which organizational members collectively acknowledge present pain, share it, express their empathy, and act collectively (Lilius et al., 2011). This collective recognition of suffering leads to action to alleviate pain (Lilius et al., 2011).

On the other hand, compassion in the organization could facilitate processes that contribute to the creation of resources, the strengthening of shared beliefs and values, and the cultivation of key relational skills (Guinot et al., 2020). Consequently, the compassion of individuals could have positive effects on three pillars of the organization. First, it can help rekindle resources such as trust, altruism, interpersonal relationships, etc.; second, it can help strengthen shared values and beliefs; and third, it can help develop relationship skills.

According to Frost (1999) compassion is an essential phenomenon that contributes to enhancing human capabilities for an organisation to foster its success (Liluis et al., 2008). For example, compassion is supposed to increase employees' attachment and commitment to their organisation (Grant et al., 2008; Lilius et al., 2008). It also enables the sharing of positive emotions such as pride and gratitude (Zulueta, 2016). Furthermore, Dutton et al. (2014) consider that compassion has effects on all members of an organisation. On the one hand, compassion positively affects the person who exercises it due to the satisfaction of helping others (West, 2017). On the other hand, compassion benefits the company for two reasons: first, it directly improves the relationship between the person who exercises it and the person who perceives it (Frost, 1999). Second, compassion indirectly affects the witnesses of such acts. That is, unaffected people feel proud of how their organisation's members act (Dutton et al., 2007) and may be more inclined to act towards the common good (Zulueta 2016).

### **1.2.2 Altruism**

The word altruism (from the Latin *alter*, “other”) was coined by Auguste Comte in the 1830s as a general term to designate care for others (Morrison & Severino, 2007). Subsequently, authors from the field of economics and psychology (e.g. Simmons, 1991; Becker, 1976) defined altruism as any behaviour that leads to sharing, collaborating or helping other people. Continuing with the literature on altruism, authors such as Khalil (2004) defined this phenomenon as a person's predisposition to think about the welfare and rights of others. It is considered a behaviour that is performed voluntarily and intentionally without expecting anything in return (Morrison and Severino, 2007). Therefore, altruism is explained as an ethical behaviour that focuses on the welfare and help of others without expecting an external reward (Simmons, 1991).

These are behaviours that can be observed in many circumstances, both in everyday situations and in situations of distress (Becker, 1976). More specifically, within organizations, altruism refers to those voluntary behaviors of helping another person with an organizationally relevant task or problem (Organ, 1988). Altruism in organizations therefore involves helping coworkers with work-related problems and includes actions such as ‘helping to solve a problem’, ‘covering another person’s position’ and ‘guiding and helping new people who join the company’ (Smith, Organ, & Near 1983). As more concrete examples of altruistic behaviors in organizations we can mention the following: helping colleagues with different linguistic backgrounds to develop their activities or helping with the tasks of an employee who is in a state of stress. Likewise, recent research (e.g., Batson, 1991; Guinot et al, 2016) has shown some benefits of altruism in organizations. For example, evidence shows that behaviors based on generosity and helpfulness lead to the creation of interpersonal relationships based on mutual trust. Also,

these behaviors tend to improve health and longevity, as well as social integration within companies (Morrison and Severino, 2007).

### **1.2.3. Resilience**

The concept of resilience has been defined as “*the process by which an actor (i.e., individual, organization or community) builds and uses its capability endowments to interact with the environment in a way that positively adjusts and maintains functioning prior to, during and following adversity*” (Williams et al., 2017, p. 742). In other words, resilience refers to the ability of a person, group, community, or organization to overcome certain difficult circumstances and continue successfully in the future. Therefore, resilience is not only an individual attribute, but can also be studied from a collective point of view (Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 2019). At the organizational level, resilience refers to the organization’s recovery in difficult, changing or volatile environments. In this study we adopt a conceptualization of resilience from this collective or organizational perspective of analysis.

In the last years some authors (e.g., Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011; Riolli & Savicki, 2003) have examined the concept of resilience in studies related to organizational management. Some of these authors, such as Comfort (1994) or Coutu (2002), conceive organizational resilience as a dynamic capacity that grows and develops within the organization. Particularly, it seems that work relationships based on communication, collaboration, trust and participation are needed to develop resilience (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011). For this to occur, environments should be created in which people train and support each other to develop their potential. Hence, resilience seems to be linked to the strategic management of human resources designed to encourage a healthy organizational climate that helps the organization to overcome difficulties (Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 2019). The



rules, norms and routines of the company. In conclusion, it seems that organizational resilience is a crucial ingredient to create a healthy work environment that helps the company to overcome difficulties (Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 2021).

### **1.3. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT**

#### **1.3.1. The relationship between compassion and altruism**

Despite the paucity of studies on compassion at work, there is evidence of its importance to organizations. For example, the literature in recent years has suggested that compassion can drive employee engagement, improve interpersonal relationships, create positive emotions and encourage employee attraction (Dutton et al., 2006; Guinot et al., 2020; Lilius et al., 2011). Likewise, authors such as Worline and Dutton (2017) suggest that compassion at work leads to advantages that could benefit the company and its employees. These include workers interested in helping their colleagues, workers who are more loyal to the company, and more productive workers (Guinot et al., 2020; Lilius et al., 2011). In addition, authors such as Dutton et al. (2014) suggest that those organizations which promote compassion at work tend to foster a range of positive attitudes, emotions and behaviors among employees, such as empathy, cooperation or trust. On the other hand, several studies (e.g., Lilius et al., 2008; Lilius et al., 2012; Ko et al., 2021) have found that compassion at work leads to more engagement on the part of the person who has suffered, more job satisfaction for the person being accompanied, and an increased sense of relevance on the part of the observers of the act of compassion.

Compassion triggers a set of helpful actions and a feeling or state of empathic concern to relieve another person's pain (Kanov et al., 2004). That is, compassion leads to detecting

the pain of others and leads to voluntary actions to alleviate that pain or suffering. Thus, when the individual detects the suffering or pain of others, he or she acts and helps immediately, voluntarily and without expecting anything in return (Worline and Dutton, 2017). In other words, a compassionate environment, individuals may feel more predisposed to help others to alleviate suffering (Worline & Dutton, 2017). Therefore, helping can be understood as a hallmark of work environments prompted by compassion. In this context, other-interest is above self-interest. Such interest in other welfare may include helping responses only aimed to benefit other although they are not in a suffering situation. This entails, for example, giving advice, sharing knowledge or facilitating the onboarding of new employees. So, we propose that a supportive climate of compassion can be a precondition for the expression of helping behaviors in any circumstances, not only referred to the response emerged by others' suffering. This leads us to suggest that compassion at work is positively related to the proliferation of altruistic behaviors among employees. Accordingly, we propose the following hypothesis:

*H1: Compassion at work is positively related to altruism*

### **1.3.2. The relationship between altruism and firm performance**

As mentioned above, altruism is conceived as a voluntary behavior in helping, empathizing and caring for others without expecting any reward. More specifically, altruism in organizations has been considered as an organizational phenomenon that can trigger certain processes, such as greater willingness to accept and understand other people's opinions, and more participatory decision-making processes (Guinot et al., 2015). In turn, when individuals behave altruistically, voluntarily helping another in a task, the interaction between the parties increases (Loi, Ngo, Zhang, & Lau, 2011). This results in a more participatory decision-making process and risk-taking behaviors that are

linked to some organizational processes such as learning capability, which helps the organization to function properly (Guinot et al., 2016). On the other hand, authors such as Organ et al (2006) state that altruism is a typology of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) that leads to a series of voluntary behaviours on the part of the employee that go beyond the obligatory and established demands of their job and that are not rewarded by the company (Han, Chiang, & Chang, 2010). In turn, these helping behaviours promote communication, participation and learning (Rotemberg, 2006), which may help to improve the functioning of the company.

Moreover, empirical evidence supports that helping or cooperating with others can increase information exchange and dialogue (Guinot et al., 2015). When high levels of communication and shared information exist in the organization, its members may be more prepared to take decisions, and accept responsibilities and risks, which can increase organizational functioning. Indeed, Kolm and Ythier (2006) suggest that information that is spontaneously shared rather than monopolised promotes efficiency, productivity, transparency and thus trust. Therefore, altruistic behaviours enable cooperation, which increases performance or efficiency. On the other hand, it is considered that a work environment based on altruism awakens certain feelings in the employee, such as feeling supported, cared for and valued in times of need (KO et al., 2021). In this supportive organisational climate, employees may feel more committed to the organisation and willing to share their skills and knowledge (Han, Chiang, & Chang, 2010).

Therefore, an altruistic environment in the organization seem to be linked to certain behaviors, feelings and organizational processes which may improve firm performance. In fact, some empirical works have shown a positive relationship between organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)—which involves altruism in organizations—and organizational performance (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Smith et al., 1983).

However, although empirical research broadly supports this relationship, evidence is lacking on how some specific forms of OCB are related to performance (Guinot et al., 2016; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). In consequence, we explore the direct effect of altruism (as a form of OCB) on firm performance through the following hypothesis:

*H2: Altruism is positively related to firm performance*

### **1.3.3. The mediating effect of organizational resilience in the altruism–performance relationship**

Although most empirical evidence indicates that OCBs positively influence organizational performance, further research is needed to thoroughly examine the mechanisms through which this relationship occurs (Guinot et al., 2016; Organ et al., 2006). As Organ et al. (2006) suggested, OCBs such as altruism might have different effects on performance depending on the mediating variables influencing such a relationship. Accordingly, we propose a path that could shed light on altruism–performance linkage. In turn, other authors have suggested that altruism could be positively linked to resilience, since altruism or concern for others increases the capacity to respond to stressful events and to overcome adversity (Lemmon and Wayne, 2015). Therefore, in an altruistic-based work environment—characterized by interpersonal help and compassion towards others—employees receive more attention and attendance from others, which creates the necessary conditions for organizational learning and transformative changes (Guinot et al., 2016; Lemmon & Wayne, 2015). In other words, a climate of altruism seems to promote coping mechanisms that help the organization to adapt and recover more easily from stressful and adverse circumstances. Therefore, it seems that some behaviors such as altruism may facilitate organizational recovery from complex and difficult situations. Hence, the organization could emerge in a stronger

position after exposure to traumatic events, suggesting that altruism may help organizations to advance in developing their resilience capacity.

Likewise, in today's turbulent, surprising, unstable and continuously evolving marketplace, some organizational researchers have emphasized the importance of organizational resilience capacity in achieving positive organizational results (e.g., Coutu, 2002; Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011). Organisational resilience enables a company to thrive in an ever-changing and threatening environment. Resilient organisations adopt effective strategic postures, transform to survive, develop new capabilities and create new opportunities to adapt to change (Lengnick-Hall, Beck and Lengnick-Hall, Reference Lengnick-Hall, Beck and Lengnick-Hall, 2011). In fact, resilience is characterised as an essential organisational asset to survive in today's business environment, as it makes firms more flexible, adaptable, competitive and aware of past mistakes (Vogus & Sutcliffe, 2007). As a result, resilient organizations can be expected to have higher levels of firm performance, particularly in turbulent market conditions (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011). However, even though resilience is considered to be extremely useful and leads to positive results in the organization, the empirical exploration of specific links between resilience capacity and its potential antecedents and consequences requires more research attention (Rodriguez-Sanchez et al., 2019).

In line with the above arguments, this study proposes that the relationship between altruism and firm performance may be explained by the mediating role of organizational resilience. That is, a work environment based on altruism may encourage organizational resilience, which in turn may improve firm performance. Consequently, the following hypothesis is proposed:

*H3: The relationship between altruism and firm performance is mediated by organizational resilience*

## **1.4. METHODOLOGY**

### **1.4.1. Sample and Data Collection**

The study is based on a population of 11,594 organizations located in Spain. This list of organizations was elaborated by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness. The list encompasses heterogeneous small to medium sized organizations that meet at least one of the following requirements: (1) the organization has obtained public funding for R&D in the last three years; (2) the organization has proven to be innovative by developing its own innovative products/services; and (3) the organization has proved its capability for innovation through any official certification recognized by the Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness. This list of companies was chosen because of the heterogeneity of the companies included, with companies of different sectors and sizes, so that the findings obtained could be generalized. Accordingly, there was no initial screening, but the objective was to obtain a sufficient number of cases. The sample consists of a total of 300 cases (N= 300). The data collected included socio-demographic variables such as gender, age, educational level and nationality.

Fieldwork was initiated by directing telephone calls to these companies to complete the survey (see appendix with questionnaire). Telephone interviews are a useful technique when different people in the same company are asking questions or when questions are difficult to reach, as is the case for managers in the larger organizations in this study (Valle et al., 200:287). Companies from the initial list were called randomly, until a sufficient number of cases could be collected. Lastly, as we intended, data were collected from a total of 300 firms on the initial population. Thus, a sample of 300 cases was

obtained. The size of the companies ranged from 10 to 260 employees, with a mean value of 47 employees ( $SD = 39.8$ ) and a mean company age of 26 years. The working population of the sample  $N=300$  is more male with 69% compared to 28.7% female. We can see that the difference between the two genders is quite significant, with the deviation towards the male gender being double. With regard to the level of education, the sample shows that more than half of the workers with strings attached have higher education, where the percentage does not differ much between women and men. Specifically, a percentage of 60% with university degrees and 20% with a Master's degree stands out.

To guarantee the soundness of the model and prevent the common method variance, we addressed different questions to different respondents in the same organization. More specifically, human resource managers were asked about compassion and altruism because those questions are focused on human issues such people's perceptions and the organization's internal climate. On the other hand, the CEO responded to questions about the organization's resilience and firm performance because these variables are related with specific outcomes or collective capabilities.

We consider that due to their position and experience in the company, both human resource managers and CEO have a wide perspective and a deep and considerable knowledge about their organizations. They are assumed to know whether their company's work environment is one in which, for example, people help each other, have empathy, are aware of others' needs or sympathize with others. This procedure for assessing psychological constructs within a group or an organization, known as the psychological climate, has been used in previous research (e.g., Parker et al., 2003). Also, their close contact with the different departments allows them to offer a global image of what is happening in their organizations. Therefore, they can be considered a reliable source of information to evaluate their companies (Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 2019). In addition,

the anonymity of the respondents was guaranteed to encourage participation and stimulate more honest responses, thus improving results reliability.

In order to carry out this research, we used a questionnaire on the study variables by using a 7-point Likert scale. Each item on the Likert scale was expressed positively and participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each item on the questionnaire. The items for each variable are listed in Appendix A.1 .

#### **1.4.2.Measures**

##### *Compassion at work.*

We assessed compassion at work using the scale proposed by Petchsawang and Duchon (2009). Because the four items these authors use to measure compassion were devised for the individual level, we adapted them to the organizational level. For examples of the questionnaire items are: “People in this company are aware of and sympathize with their coworkers”, and “People in this company try to help their coworkers relieve their suffering.” The scale is a 7-point Likert type, with 1 indicating the lowest level of compassion and 7, the highest. Although the alpha in these original compassionate items is weak (0.63), the scale is acceptable and it has been widely adopted in numerous studies that have studied compassion following the same conceptual definition, some producing stronger alphas (e.g., Gupta & Pandey, 2014; Petchsawang & McLean, 2017). In this study we have focused on assessing compassion at organizational level -the level at which organizational members act to alleviate the suffering of others-, hence, we have chosen to use this scale based on other studies that start from this same approach to compassion (i.e., Guinot et al., 2020).



*Altruism.*

To measure the construct of altruism, the scale used was based on Podsakoff's et al.,(1990) organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) measure. This scale includes the five dimensions of OCB identified by Organ (1988), one of which is altruism. The psychometric properties of the scale have been previously analyzed and the validity of the measurement instrument has also been confirmed. Finally, Podsakoff et al. included a total of five items to measure the 'altruism' dimension. In the present study, these items were used to measure the construct "altruism". Previous research has used this scale to measure altruism in organizations (e.g., Guinot et al., 2015; 2016). Examples of the items included in the scale are: 'People in this company help others who have been absent' or 'People in this company help others who have heavy workloads'.

*Organizational resilience.*

We measure 'organizational resilience' using three items from Lengnick-Hall et al.'s (2011) measurement proposal to evaluate whether an organization displays resilience. The scale includes the following items: 'Our company is always learning', 'Our company prospers despite the challenges' and 'Our company develops new capabilities and engages in transformative actions'.

*Firm performance.*

Firm performance was evaluated with four items from the scale proposed by Tippins and Sohi (2003). CEOs were requested to report on their firm's performance over the previous two years. The items that made up this scale were (1) customer loyalty, (2) sales growth, (3) profitability, and (4) return on investment. A Likert scale of 7 points was employed,

where 1 gave the participating company the lowest score in relation to the firm's performance and 7 the highest.

*Control variables.*

Since outside sources can affect the firm's performance, firm age, firm size and estimated turnover were included as control variables. Empirical studies examining firm performance as a dependent variable have commonly used firm size and firm age as control variables (e.g., Chiva & Alegre, 2009; Guinot et al., 2020), as it has been demonstrated to affect firm performance (e.g., Tippins & Sohi, 2003; Jimenez-Jimenez, & Sanz-Valle, 2011). Moreover, estimated turnover has been also introduced as a control variable since variations on this are decisive in the assessment of performance (Bhatnagar, 2006; Whyman & Petrescu, 2015).

### **1.4.3.Descriptive Statistics and Reliability of the Measurement Scales**

The descriptive statistics of the indicators considered in the study (means and standard deviations) and the correlation factors are presented in Table 1. Two indicators were used to check the reliability of the scale, in addition to Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951): composite reliability (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and mean variance extracted (Alegre & Chiva, 2008) (see Table 2). Both values of Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). Furthermore, the average variance extracted shows values above the recommended minimum of 0.5 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black 1998; Nunnally, 1978)

Table 1. Chapter I. Means, standard deviations and correlation factors (N=300).

	Mean	S.D	Perf1	Perf2	Perf3	Perf4	Res1	Res2	Res3	Alt1	Alt2	Alt3	Alt4	Alt5	Comp1	Comp2	Comp3	Comp4
Perf1	5.61	1.035	1															
Perf2	5.04	1.422	0.400*	1														
Perf3	5.01	1.490	0.422*	0.666*	1													
Perf4	4.99	1.397	0.476*	0.675*	0.833*	1												
Res1	5.66	1.030	0.211*	0.200*	0.228*	0.218*	1											
Res2	5.59	1.145	0.254*	0.308*	0.278*	0.336*	0.578*	1										
Res3	5.69	1.162	0.227*	0.307*	0.348*	0.333*	0.640*	0.674*	1									
Alt1	5.56	1.267	0.037	0.105	0.50	0.073	0.020	0.030	0.093	1								
Alt2	5.53	1.244	0.107	0.133*	0.121*	0.160*	0.087	0.124*	0.172*	0.843*	1							
Alt3	5.67	1.173	0.082	0.150*	0.146*	0.199*	0.051	0.063	0.122*	0.767*	0.862*	1						
Alt4	5.56	1.221	0.073	0.095	0.118*	0.167*	0.074	0.093	0.125*	0.785*	0.867*	0.848	1					
Alt5	5.62	1.141	0.090	0.132*	0.137*	0.163*	0.096	0.071	0.111	0.665*	0.782*	0.731*	0.795*	1				
Comp1	5.29	1.210	0.081	0.103	0.117	0.103	0.089	0.052	0.096	0.558*	0.644*	0.536*	0.606*	0.685*	1			
Comp2	5.44	1.162	0.063	0.064	0.096	0.099	0.092	0.050	0.118	0.576*	0.647*	0.578*	0.629*	0.698*	0.795*	1		
Comp3	5.37	1.163	0.074	0.077	0.063	0.056	0.120	0.031	0.098	0.595*	0.626*	0.574*	0.632*	0.679*	0.754*	0.848*	1	
Comp4	5.39	1.111	0.095	0.118	0.104	0.115	0.124	0.064	0.116	0.604*	0.641*	0.581*	0.644*	0.693*	0.745*	0.828*	0.863*	1

Source: the authors

Table 2. Chapter I. Reliability of the measurement scales.

<i>Construct</i>	<i>Cronbach's <math>\alpha</math></i>	<i>Composite reliability</i>	<i>Extracted mean variance</i>
Compassion	0.943	0.943	0.807
Altruism	0.951	0.959	0.788
Firm performance	0.851	0.866	0.628
Organizational resilience	0.885	0.832	0.625

*Source: the authors*

Since these are subjective assessment measures, we conducted a Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff and Organ, 1986) to evaluate the variability of the common method and to test the social appropriateness of the responses. Results from confirmatory factor analysis with all 12 indicators loaded into a single factor ( $\chi^2 (104) = 1732,893$ ; IFC = 0.584; RMSEA = 0.234; BBNNFI = 0.520) showed a poor adjustment, indicating that the single factor does not capture all the variance in the data. Therefore, and according to this procedure, common method variance may not be considered a problem in our research. In addition, to avoid common variance bias, we use two key information sources (CEOs and HR managers) to get data for the study variables.

## **1.5. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

The structural equation methodology is applied to empirically validate this research model, using the statistical software EQS 6.1. The procedure used by Tippins and Sohi (2003), which implies the estimation of two structural models, was followed to test the proposed hypothesis. Following this procedure, the presence of a mediating effect is first tested by the comparison of a direct effect model against another model that includes a mediating variable (organizational resilience). The first model (direct effects) examines the isolated effect of independent variables on dependent variables (i.e., the individual relationship between altruism and firm performance). In order to further test the mediating effects, the coefficient of the direct effects model must be significant. Results revealed that the coefficient of the direct relationship of altruism to firm performance is significant ( $\beta_1 = 0.172$ ;  $t = 2.706$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ).

A second model (the mediation model) explores this same relationship, but with added organizational resilience as a mediating variable. Based on Tippins and Sohi (2003), the mediating effect of organizational resilience on the relationship between altruism and firm performance can be supported when 1) the partial mediation model explains more of the variance in firm performance than the direct effects model; 2) there is a significant relationship between altruism and organizational resilience; 3) the significant relationship between altruism and firm performance observed in the direct effects model is significantly reduced or disappears in the partial mediation model; and finally, 4) there is a significant relationship between organizational resilience and firm performance.

The fit indicators show that the two models obtain an excellent fit (Table 3). In addition, the mediation model explains more variance in firm performance than the direct effects model (0.202 vs. 0.030). Results also indicate that, in the mediation model, there are

positive relationships between altruism and organizational resilience ( $\beta_2 = 0.145$ ;  $t = 2.078$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ), as well as between organizational resilience and firm performance ( $\beta_3 = 0.409$ ;  $t = 5.060$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). Moreover, the significant relationship between altruism and firm performance indicated in the direct effects model remains significant in the mediation model ( $\beta_1 = 0.110$ ;  $t = 1.983$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). These results provide support for H3 and H2. Results also indicate a positive and significant effect between compassion and altruism (see Figure 3 and Table 4). In sum, all the hypotheses proposed are confirmed.

*Table 3. Chapter I. Fit index for the hypothesized models.*

<i>Model</i>	<b>S-B <math>\chi^2</math></b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p-value</b>	<b>BBNFI</b>	<b>CFI</b>	<b>RMSEA</b>
Direct effect model	41.212	26	0.077	0.986	0.990	0.045
Mediation model	230.604	148	0.000	0.964	0.969	0.044

*Source: the authors*

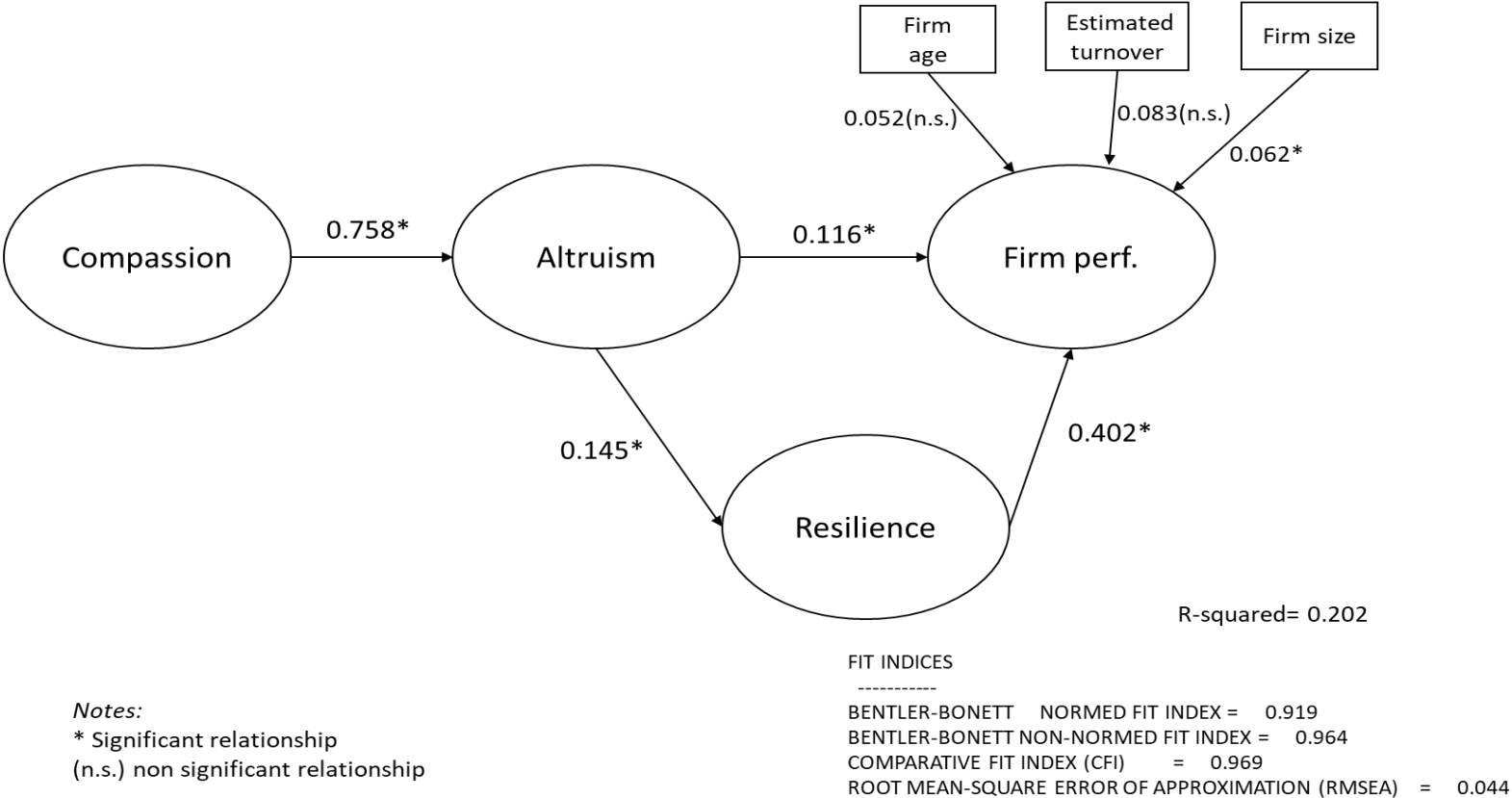
Table 4. Chapter I. Results of the hypothesized models.

	<b>Direct effects model</b>	<b>Mediation model</b>
<b>Relationship</b>		
<i>Altruism - Firm performance</i>	0.172 (2.706)	0.116 (1.983)
<i>Altruism - Resilience</i>	-	0.145 (2.078)
<i>Resilience - Firm performance</i>	-	0.402 (5.060)
<i>Compassion - Altruism</i>	-	0.758 (13.573)
<b>R-squared</b>	0.030	0.202

*Note:* The estimated parameters are standardized; Student t values are specified in brackets.

*Source:* the authors

Figure 3. Chapter I. Research model and results.



Source: the authors



## **1.6. CONCLUSIONS**

In an era of increasing uncertainty and continuous change, the organizational literature has suggested that altruistic behaviors and compassionate attitudes of organizational members can contribute to organizational functioning (Guinot et al., 2016; Kanungo & Conger, 1993; Simon, 2005). In order to provide more detail on the mechanisms that explain such relationships, this study provides a detailed analysis of the consequences of altruism and compassion in organizations and reveals some organizational conditions that can drive firm performance. To this end, we propose that compassion at work leads to a climate of altruism, and at the same time, this climate can directly increase firm performance, and raises it indirectly through the mediating role of organizational resilience. Both the direct and indirect effects are significant in the model. Thus, it is confirmed that a climate of altruism in organizations can be a condition for improving organizational resilience and performance.

Although some findings in the literature have shed light on altruism and compassion in organizations, to date few studies have examined the role of altruism and compassion in organizational settings. In general, both concepts have been investigated more at the individual level than the organizational level. Furthermore, some researchers have suggested the need for a new paradigm in management theory that focuses on a more humane and compassionate approach to drive OCBs like altruism (e.g., Guinot et al., 2016; Rynes et al., 2012). These authors emphasize the importance of altruism in organizations as a phenomenon capable of generating important benefits for the organization.

The results make two main contributions to the management literature. First, this study is the first to propose and empirically validate that a climate of altruism—characterized by concern, help and empathy for the well-being of other people—encourages the necessary conditions to trigger the transformative changes that enable the organization to recover from crises and emerge in a stronger position. An organizational climate of altruism therefore improves organizational resilience capacity. In turn, organizational resilience enables a firm to take appropriate actions to turn unexpected and adverse situations that potentially threaten its survival into sources of opportunity and growth. Hence, resilient organizations can capitalize on disruptive events to build more adaptive strategies and actions that contribute to their success. These findings reveal the need to promote a culture of altruism in organizations based on individual values such as interpersonal caring and mutual concern, while reducing the egocentrism and excessive interpersonal competitiveness that currently predominates in organizational life.

Secondly, this study sheds light on the consequences of compassion in organizational settings by confirming that a climate of altruism proliferates when compassion is widely shared among organizational members. However, although this study has focused on showing the consequences of altruism in organizations to find positive effects, altruistic behaviors can also be detrimental to the individuals who act in this way. Being altruistic means that employees could perform functions that go beyond their own duties. This may also have negative implications if, for example, employees suffer from role overload or job stress, since altruism may lead to behaviors such as taking on additional responsibilities or working extra hours (Bolino, Klotz, Turnley, & Harvey, 2013). It could therefore be problematic if one employee or team displays excessive altruistic behavior. In consequence, companies should be aware of this risk and manage extreme levels of altruistic behaviors that might have harmful effects. Moreover, excessive presence of

altruistic behaviors to maintain organizational functioning may be symptomatic of poor management in the company. Nonetheless, as this study finds, in general the presence of compassionate and altruistic behaviors can be considered as an intangible asset for organizations.

### **1.6.1. Practical implications**

Among the practical implications, compassion can be nurtured through teamwork where members have more contact and communication with each other, and can easily notice and respond to other people's suffering. In addition, human resource practices can also contribute to the development of compassion and altruism in organisations. Recently, Chiva (2014) proposed a new HRM system - the common welfare HRM system - where HRM practices focus on concern for the welfare of others and transcendence of ego through service to others. For example, in the recruitment and selection process, people are sought who are altruistic and able to act with compassion. Likewise, the 'compassionate leadership' variant shows the existence of a positive relationship between this style of leadership, understood as one that creates honest relationships with employees, and improved business results (Grant, 2008; Engstrom & Cedar, 2011). For example, authors such as Hakanen and Pessi (2018); Poorkavoos (2016) suggest that compassionate leadership is one of the drivers of positive employee and organisational outcomes. It is a leadership style that fosters well-being, participation, mutual support, communications, engagement and job performance.

Concerning policy makers, we consider that they should promote the importance of compassion and altruism in organizations, explaining that is not only good for people in organizations but also for organizations themselves. This could be done, for instance, by publishing rankings of organizations that perform well and are compassionate and

altruistic. Furthermore, policy makers should remind managers and company owners that organizational resilience is a matter of the climate they set up in the organization. Conferences and roundtable discussions could be fostered.

### **1.6.2. Limitations and Future Directions of Research**

The organizations included in the study sample are from various sectors and of varying sizes. Future research could therefore usefully focus on a single sector or firms of a similar size. Another limitation is the transversality of the sample. The cross-sectional nature of our study does not allow us to draw definitive conclusions about causality in the observed associations. Long-term longitudinal studies are therefore needed to provide stronger evidence on the cause and the consequence of the relationships examined.

As we noted earlier in the article, few studies have examined the role of altruism and compassion in organizations. Accordingly, there is a need to continue exploring ways of creating an altruistic environment in organizations. Moreover, in light of the benefits of altruism in organizations, future research should continue to analyze the consequences of compassionate attitudes and ways of promoting altruistic behaviors in organizations. For example, it would be interesting to examine the role of altruistic and compassionate leadership in organizations, examine relationships between altruism and other variables (e.g. turnover, welfare, type of organizations, etc.). Another underexplored area of empirical research concerns the antecedents and consequences of organizational resilience, since only in the last few years have organizational researchers begun to investigate this firm capability. Therefore, further research is necessary in the field of altruism, compassion and resilience in organizations. We hope our study contributes to shed light on these organizational phenomena and provides a basis and inspiration for more research in these promising organizational research fields.

## CHAPTER II

# **How does compassion drive firm innovativeness? The mediating effect of organisational trust<sup>2</sup>**

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<sup>2</sup> This chapter is currently under review in *Employee Relations* journal. In addition, it has been presented at national and international conferences. Full details are given in Appendix B.



## **How does Compassion Drive Firm Innovativeness? The Mediating Effect of Organisational Trust**

### **ABSTRACT**

A growing body of research is now highlighting the rising problem of suffering in organisations and recognising the important role compassion can play in helping to reduce the harmful effects of suffering in companies and improve the mental health of employees. However, in this paper we propose that its implications can be seen not only in the well-being of individuals, but also in key organisational aspects, such as innovativeness. In addition, to explore in depth the relationship between organisational compassion and firm innovativeness, we suggest that organisational trust could explain this relationship. To do this, we apply a structural equation model to a sample of Spanish companies from different sectors. The results reveal that compassion at work improves firm innovativeness, and also show that organisational compassion drives firm innovativeness indirectly through the organisational trust variable. Our study therefore, attempts to advance the literature by revealing the organisational consequences of promoting compassion at work.

## **2.1. INTRODUCTION**

Workplaces can be a source of satisfaction, motivation and creativity for employees (Zhou et al., 2013; Cooke and Saini, 2010), but sometimes they can also become places where suffering, along with dissatisfaction, unhappiness and mistrust, grow and spread. Indeed, numerous studies (e.g., Lee, 1988; Kramer and Schmalenberg, 2004) find evidence that a growing unease and dissatisfaction among workers leads to unhappy relationships and climate at work. Indeed, the company's work climate is one of the working conditions that may be fostering this discomfort and suffering (Kossek et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2018).

In turn, the emergence of a certain work climate may be fostered by certain organisational characteristics (Kossek et al., 2012). In particular, organisations with a work culture oriented towards competitiveness and individual achievement may be fostering a climate conducive to distress (Gagnon and Monties, 2022). Organisational cultures dominated by individualism, interpersonal competition and high demands can end up creating a hostile and aggressive climate (Laloux and Wilber, 2014). Such climates not only create problems for individuals, but also for the smooth functioning of organisations (Gagnon and Monties, 2022). In contrast, other work cultures, based on collegiality, mutual commitment or concern for others, are able to forge much more satisfying and healthy working relationships (Hart, 2004; Wang et al., 2010). Moreover, recent studies show that a culture of mutual support among workers translates into benefits not only for the workers themselves, but also results in better organisational functioning (Wang et al., 2010; Chung et al., 2016). In particular, some of these studies corroborate the positive effect of compassion on variables such as organisational performance or organisational learning capacity (Dutton et al., 2006; Harr et al., 2014). However, in the business world, the concept of compassion has traditionally been seen as irrelevant or even negative



(Cameron, 2017): it is often assumed that compassion is a value that can limit competence and performance and therefore does not belong in the workplace. However, in recent years, there is evidence to show that in the world of work and business, compassion is a valuable quality (Chu, 2016; Cameron, 2017)

Compassion is defined as a four-part human experience that unfolds in relation to suffering (Worline et al., 2017; Ko et al., 2021): the first experience is noticing the pain of others; the second, interpreting suffering in a way that leads us to understand that those who suffer are worthy of our compassion; the third, feeling empathic concern; and the fourth, acting to alleviate suffering in some way. The literature recognises multiple benefits of compassion in the workplace, such as increased dialogue (Lilius et al., 2011), engagement and trust, or decreased depression and work stress (Dutton et al., 2006; Eldor, 2018). Despite this evidence, organisations are still dominated by a management system characterised by values such as competition or ambition (Laloux, 2014; Lilius et al., 2011), which would miss out on the benefits of compassion at the organisational level.

The literature reveals that in a compassionate environment, individuals feel safer and more confident to discuss their problems, propose their ideas and reflect on the ideas of others (Harr et al., 2014; Guinot et al., 2020; Ong et al., 2022). In addition, people feel proud to be part of the team and feel confident about themselves and others when compassion is present (Kanov et al., 2004; Dutton et al., 2006). Studies have also found that in a compassionate environment, employees do not hold back, they freely share their feelings and ideas, collaborate, and use each other's skills and knowledge productively and innovatively (Liluis et al., 2011; Ko et al., 2021). It seems, therefore, that compassion could contribute to a climate of organisational trust that is also much more conducive to innovation.

Organisational trust, or the trust that exists between members of an organisation, is defined as an extremely complex, dynamic and beneficial phenomenon (Gilbert and Tang, 1998; Carmeli and Spreitzer, 2009) that has been associated with favourable consequences for both employees and the organisation (Mayer and Gavin, 2005; Guinot et al., 2014). For example, trust has been positively related to organisational performance (Niu, 2010), job satisfaction or innovation (Sankowska, 2013; Jiang and Chen, 2017). It has also been suggested that organisational trust provides the individual with the necessary security to experiment, to make mistakes and to learn. In this vein, authors such as Henderson (2017) point out that maintaining a high trust environment creates a sense of safety and security for organisational members to take on the responsibilities demanded by innovation. Therefore, trust could drive firm innovativeness.

However, despite the positive role that organisational trust seems to play in innovativeness, our literature review finds few empirical studies that directly analyse the contribution of organisational trust to innovativeness. Moreover, the existing studies have explored the relationship by focusing on specific trust referents, particularly trust in the leader or trust in the team. Other levels of trust, such as bottom-up trust (from the employee to the leader) or the general level of trust shared among all members of the organisation, have not been examined. To fill this research gap, in this study we approach trust from a multidimensional perspective, including simultaneously top-down trust (from managers to subordinates), bottom-up trust (from subordinates to managers) and general internal trust (trust shared among all members of the organisation). In this way, we aim to make further progress in this field of study by analysing trust from a more holistic perspective that better reflects the complexity of the phenomenon in its relationship with innovativeness.

Innovation in organisations depends, among other factors, on creating an environment conducive to its deployment. For example, Chandler et al. (2000) suggest that the values, behaviours and attitudes of organisational members play a crucial role in stimulating or inhibiting innovation in firms. One of the key questions for innovation is therefore to decipher which situations are conducive to innovation. While some authors suggest that compassion might be a condition for innovation, there is no empirical evidence to support this proposition. Therefore, our aim is to empirically analyse the consequences of compassion on innovation within firms, and to test whether organisational trust could explain this effect. Although some academic progress has been made in recent years on the topic of compassion in organisational settings (e.g., Chu, 2016; Worline et al., 2017), scholars and experts in the field have called for further examination of this field of study due to the potential it seems to demonstrate for understanding and improving organisational functioning (Dutton et al., 2017; Ko et al., 2021). Accordingly, we propose a research model that takes the management literature a step further by revealing how workplace compassion would foster firm innovation through trust.

This introduction is followed by a theoretical review of the central concepts of the model. The three hypotheses we empirically test are then presented. The next section offers a general discussion of the results and the paper ends with conclusions, the study's limitations and suggestions for future research.

## **2.2.THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **2.2.1. Compassion**

The concept of compassion has emerged for decades in broad fields of research such as religion, philosophy and sociology. In the field of organization and management, Peter Frost (1999) was one of the first authors to investigate this phenomenon. Frost defined compassion as the feeling that arises in an individual when perceiving the suffering of another, generating an intrinsic motivation to alleviate it. He also argued that compassion plays an important role in the workplace. This assertion sparked academic interest and several scholars have since explored the topic of compassion in greater depth. Among these authors, the study by Kanov et al. (2004) stands out. In contrast to previous research, this author defines compassion as a process through which an individual or group manages to identify and experience the suffering of another. This feeling enables them to act in a selfless manner to alleviate such suffering.

Compassion is considered to be a four-part process: (1) realising that suffering is present in an organisation; (2) making sense of the suffering in a way that contributes to the desire to alleviate it; (3) feeling a concern for the person or persons who are suffering; and (4) acting to alleviate their suffering in some way (Guinot et al., 2020; Worline & Dutton, 2017). Therefore, compassion can be understood as an emotionally based interpersonal process that involves voluntarily action to alleviate another person's suffering. Similarly, Kanov et al. (2004) suggest that compassion is characterised by three key sub-processes: noticing (perceiving that someone is suffering), feeling (feeling empathy) and responding (action to reduce suffering). Compassion also requires processes to move from individual to collective reaction. Kanov et al. (2004) refer to these processes as propagation, legitimation and coordination, which can help to unravel the dynamics of compassion in organisations.

Based on these premises, this study examines compassion at the organisational level, understood as the action of organisational members to alleviate the suffering of others (Guinot et al., 2020). Organisational-level compassion involves a process in which organisational members collectively recognise the pain present, share it, express empathy and act together to mitigate it (Lilius et al., 2011). In addition, organisational compassion can facilitate processes that contribute to the generation of resources, the strengthening of shared beliefs and values, as well as the cultivation of key relational skills (Guinot et al., 2020). Consequently, individual compassion can have positive effects on three fundamental aspects of the organisation. First, it can contribute to revitalising resources such as trust, altruism and healthy interpersonal relationships. Second, it can reinforce shared values and beliefs within the organisation. Finally, it can contribute to the development of important relational skills.

### **2.2.2. Trust in organisations**

Mayer et al. (1995) define trust as the willingness of one party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party, based on the expectation that the latter will perform an action that is particularly important to the trusting party, regardless of the ability to observe or control it. Therefore, we can highlight two very relevant aspects of trust: (1) we trust voluntarily, and (2) when trust appears, we make ourselves vulnerable to the actions of the other party. Moreover, as defined by some authors (e.g. Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau, 1985) trust is understood as positive expectations about the other party's behaviour, and distrust as negative expectations about the other party (Lewicki et al. 1998; Van et al., 2000). Mistrust, understood as the opposite of trust, is conceived as the lack of credibility in someone, implying a lack of certainty about the actions and attitudes that one person may have towards another (Govier, 1994).

Trust is seen as a psychological state, which involves a certain vulnerability or risk-taking derived from dependence on the actions of the other party (Van et al., 2000; Kramer, 2006). Therefore, trust is a mutual interaction that requires a certain degree of risk admission and reflection (Brown et al., 2015). Authors such as Shukla and Rai (2015) argue that risk-taking is one of the few common characteristics of all situations in which trust is present. Thus, for trust to develop, both parties have to be willing to take the risk and rely on each other (Rousseau, 1998).

The literature distinguishes two basic typologies of trust: intra-organisational trust and inter-organisational trust. Intra-organisational trust refers to the level of trust between members of the organisation, either between co-workers or between the manager and the employee or subordinate (Engle-Warnick and Slonim, 2006). In contrast, inter-organisational trust is the trust exchanged between organisational members and partner firms (Wei et al., 2008).

Intra-organisational trust is composed of two types of trust: trust between workers and the company itself, and trust between company members or interpersonal trust. In turn, according to McCauley and Kuhnert (1992), interpersonal trust consists of two fundamental dimensions: lateral trust and vertical trust. Lateral trust refers to the trust that is transmitted between co-workers at the same hierarchical level, whereas vertical trust deals with the level of trust between employees and their subordinates or superiors. In this study, we will focus on intra-organisational interpersonal trust at both vertical and horizontal levels. Specifically, we will measure the overall climate of trust within the organisation and the particular, trust between managers and subordinates.

### **2.2.3. Firm innovativeness**

Innovativeness has long been considered an essential component of organisational competitiveness and success (McAdam and Keogh, 2004; Edwards et al., 2005). This awareness of innovativeness has sparked interest among researchers to study the concept in depth. Examples include Erickson and Jacobson (1992) and Calantone et al. (2002), who define innovativeness as the ability of a company to adopt new ideas that lead to the development, improvement and launch of new products. Likewise, Hurley and Hult (1998) and Hurley et al. (2005) define innovativeness of firms from a collective perspective, that is, openness to new ideas as an aspect of corporate culture. Innovativeness has been associated with the adoption of improvements and changes in marketing and organisational processes (Schumpeter 1942; Hurley and Hult, 1998). In fact, the literature confirms firm innovativeness as a fundamental asset that generates value in the marketplace and improves firm performance and results (Zhang et al., 2016; Hurley, 2005). Innovativeness refers to a firm's ability to implement new ideas and work on new solutions (Crawford and Di Benedetto, 2003; Husain et al., 2016). Therefore, the literature regards it as a capability and not an outcome.

Moreover, innovativeness includes not only a firm's ability to innovate, but also all kinds of firm efforts and activities that competitors consider as unique and customers regard as meaningful (Hurt et al., 1977; Kunz et al., 2011). In the same line, Cavusgil et al. (2003) understand innovativeness as a process involving the development and application of creativity, aimed at satisfying consumer needs through value creation. The literature has defined firm innovativeness as progressive, dynamic, creative and risk-taking firms (Hurley and Hult, 1998; Calantone, 2002). Therefore, innovativeness requires creativity, vision, research, implementation of new ideas and tolerance of uncertainty (Moorman and Miner, 1997; Kunz et al., 2011).

Schumpeter (1934) suggests that innovativeness is like a mutation that breaks the monotony of economic cycles and drives continuous growth. To do so, firm innovativeness requires a set of skills such as constant learning, adaptability to change, networking, experimenting, observing and questioning (Calantone, 2006; Cavusgil et al., 2003).

## **2.3.HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT**

### **2.3.1. Organisational Compassion and firm innovativeness**

According to the literature, compassion is characterised by a feeling of concern when we see someone suffering or in pain, and this prompts a decision to alleviate their pain or suffering, to remedy it or to avoid it (Dutton et al., 2006). Likewise, compassion helps people to recognise mistakes and failures with open-mindedness, which fosters the learning and creativity necessary for innovativeness (Worline and Dutton, 2017). More specifically, compassionate behaviours foster a work climate based on dialogue, communication, exchange of ideas and opinions with the aim of finding different alternatives to alleviate such suffering (Chu, 2016). At the same time, according to Fidler and Johnson (1984) and Liang et al. (2022), communication and dialogue are structural characteristics that determine the degree of firm innovativeness.

In compassion-based relationships, others are expected to have good intentions and to seek the well-being of another individual (Dutton et al., 2014). In other words, it is assumed that the individual's approach is made with the intention of helping and alleviating suffering (Worline and Dutton, 2017). For this reason, we suggest that compassion may be related to risk-taking propensity, and according to Fidler and Johnson



(1984), risk and complexity are characteristics that lead to innovations within the organisation. Therefore, a compassionate organisational climate may be related to firm innovativeness.

This connection between compassion and firm innovativeness could be explained by the type of situations deriving from compassion among workers. In particular, compassion promotes deeper affective bonds between individuals, favouring relationships in which there is a greater exchange of ideas and more fluid communication (Guinot et al., 2020). In addition, workers are more likely to feel secure if they perceive a compassionate work climate where others care about them. If individuals feel more secure, they may be more willing to take risks, contribute more solutions, intervene in decisions and suggest new ideas. Similarly, in a climate of compassion individuals may also feel more confident about experimenting with new processes, ideas or ways of working. Therefore, a work climate based on compassion could be much more conducive to the processes needed to trigger firm innovativeness.

Thus, we postulate that compassion could promote and accelerate firm innovativeness. Based on the above arguments, we propose the following hypothesis:

*H1: Organisational compassion is positively related to firm innovativeness.*

### **2.3.2. Organisational Compassion and Organisational Trust**

As highlighted above, compassion is defined as a process that involves perceiving, feeling and acting to alleviate the suffering or pain of others (Lilius et al., 2011). Compassion is characterised by a feeling of concern and empathy towards suffering (Chu, 2016). It is the emotional concern that drives the individual to pursue the well-being of others voluntarily and without expecting a reward in return (Lilius et al., 2011; Worline et al.,

2017). And according to Hur et al. (2018) this participatory interaction strengthens social connectedness and trust between individuals. That is, showing compassion to another person helps to create a bond based on trust. For example, authors such as Worline et al. (2017) suggest that compassion, or what have been termed “compassionate interventions”, is an essential ingredient in strengthening interpersonal relationships leading to trust-building and reducing feelings of threat and fear. The compassion–trust relationship could be explained by Blau’s (1961) social exchange theory. This theory suggests that human behaviours are primarily exchange based, that is, a mutual relationship is created between individuals based on voluntary actions, which strengthens a unitary framework formed by the interaction and integration of all parties. Social exchange theory could support the idea that the exchange of compassionate behaviours leads to higher levels of trust. That is, when two people interact in a compassionate way, both tend to respond with greater trust. Thus, we propose that compassion at work could boost trust between individuals.

*H2: Organisational compassion is positively related to organisational trust.*

### **2.3.3. Organisational Trust and firm innovativeness**

The literature defines trust as a crucial ingredient that adds value in organisations at the individual, team and organisational levels (Lam, 2006; King and West, 1987). Indeed, authors such as Hart (2004) and Clegg et al. (2002) suggest that driving organisational change and adapting to environmental uncertainty requires a working environment characterised by high levels of trust. When trust is present, people step up and work optimally and efficiently (Carmeli and Spreitzer, 2009; Guinot et al., 2014). Moreover, they adopt a common purpose, take risks, commit to the company’s goals, help each other, create a network based on active, open and honest communication (Sauders, 2012;

Kramer, 2006), and think creatively (Jiang and Chen, 2017). Conversely, lack of trust leads to competition for positions and individualism (Niu, 2010). It also impedes the development of individuals and teams (Gunningham and Sinclair, 2009; Gilbert and Tang, 1998), which could be detrimental to the company's ability to innovate.

It therefore follows that if the level of trust is low, the learning process will be hindered, which translates into less knowledge, generation of ideas and creativity (Hall and Andriani, 2002; Darroch, 2005). By contrast, high levels of trust help create a working environment where risks can be taken with peace of mind, where all members have the right to participate, suggest ideas and exchange knowledge (Edmondson, 1999, p. 354). The literature recognises the influence of acquiring new knowledge on innovativeness (Brawn and Duguid, 1991). Indeed, the first stage of any innovation process is considered to be openness to what is new or improvable, and what is new requires the willingness of organisational members to learn, change and take risks (Schumpeter, 1934: 392). Therefore, organisational trust seems to facilitate the development of very useful capacities and skills for generating the new knowledge and ideas necessary to innovate (Alegre and Chiva, 2013).

Furthermore, the literature suggests that firm innovativeness requires the involvement of the organisation's members, which means that good organisational working relationships are crucial in both vertical (between members at different hierarchical levels, e.g., employees and subordinates) and horizontal (between members at the same hierarchical level) settings. For this reason, authors such as Amabile (1996) suggest that a trust-based work climate helps to make employees feel prepared to take decisions, trust management, be committed to the company, and share knowledge and ideas. A further outcome of a

trust-based work environment is learning and the acquisition of new knowledge, which could drive innovativeness.

Therefore, we suggest that a climate of trust could be fundamental in nurturing the innovative spirit, which leads us to the following hypothesis:

*H3: Organisational trust is positively related to firm innovativeness.*

#### **2.3.4. The mediating role of trust between compassion and firm innovativeness**

As discussed above, compassion at work could have a direct and positive effect on innovativeness (Worline et al., 2017). In turn, compassion would be positively related to organisational trust. Finally, this trust, which is achieved through compassionate attitudes, would lead to more robust innovativeness. Consequently, organisational trust could be considered as a mediating variable explaining the positive relationship between compassion and firm innovativeness, which leads us to propose a mediating effect in our final research hypothesis:

*H4: The relationship between organisational compassion and firm innovativeness is mediated by organisational trust.*

## **2.4.METHODOLOGY**

### **2.4.1. Sample and data collection**

The study is based on a list of companies provided by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness. This list includes heterogeneous, small-medium sized companies from different sectors that meet at least one of the following innovation requirements: 1) they have received public R&D funding in the last three years; 2) they have demonstrated their innovative character through the development of their own innovative products/services; and 3) their innovative capacity is verified through an official certification recognised by the Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness. Therefore, these are not necessarily highly innovative organisations, but organisations that are concerned with fostering innovation, adapting to change and promoting productivity in the company.

Data were collected from a total of 51 companies. In each of the companies, at least five employees responded to the questionnaire. Telephone interviews were used to complete the survey, as this technique is useful when questions are answered by different people in the same company or when it is difficult to reach them. A final sample of 272 cases was obtained. The size of the companies ranged from 10 to 496 employees, with a mean value of 85 employees ( $SD = 85.1$ ) and the average age of the companies was 26 years. All the companies were located in Spain and came from various sectors, such as industry, consulting and new technologies. The average age of the respondents was 40.3 years; 53% were men and 47% women. The majority had a university education (51.1%), 13.6% had a master's degree, 27.9% had a bachelor's degree, 5.9% had completed compulsory education and 1.1% had a PhD. The average length of service in the company was 22 months. The fieldwork was conducted in 2017. In addition, respondents' anonymity was guaranteed to encourage participation and stimulate more honest responses, thus

improving the reliability of the results. All items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale. Each Likert scale item was expressed positively and participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each item on the questionnaire. The items for each variable are listed in Appendix A.2.

#### **2.4.2. Measures**

##### *Compassion*

In this study, compassion in the work environment was assessed using the scale proposed by Petchsawang and Duchon (2009). This scale is a Likert-type scale with 7 points, where 1 indicates the lowest level of compassion and 7 represents the highest level. Since the four items used by the original authors to measure compassion were designed for the individual level, adaptations were made to suit the organisational context. According to Molina-Azorín et al. (2019), an individual level scale can be adapted to the organisational level by applying aggregation. Aggregation consists of obtaining data at a lower level and combining the values of that variable at the higher level. The literature suggests that the analysis is valid if we take an individual level variable to the organisational level, where we could have and use other variables at that level (Gaviria and Castro, 2005; Molina-Azorín et al., 2019). However, if the theoretical level of interest is the individual, it would be a mistake to interpret the results at the organisational level (Rousseau, 1985; Molina-Azorín et al., 2019). In other words, we cannot transform an organisational level variable into results at the individual level. The scale proposed by Petchsawang and Duchon is valid for the research model proposed, but as the objective of the study is to prepare a research model focused on the organisational level, it is preferable to apply aggregation to avoid errors in the results, since as can be seen below, the items of the variable

compassion focus on issues at the individual level and not at the organisational level. Some examples are “I easily put myself in the shoes of my co-workers””, and “I try to help alleviate my co-workers’ suffering and burdens”. However, the items of the other variables of the model focus on the organisational level. For this reason, and based on previous literature, we created a new variable of compassion through aggregation (averages). The new variable is referred to in the model as organisational compassion.

### *Organisational Trust*

We measured the construct of organisational trust using Huff and Kelley’s (2003) scale. This scale measures interpersonal trust (managers and subordinates) and the overall level of trust in the organisation. These authors confirmed the validity of the measurement scale and demonstrated its psychometric properties. It is a 7-point Likert-type scale, where 1 is the lowest level of trust and 7 the highest. The scale includes four items: “there is a lot of trust within this organisation”; “subordinates in this organisation have total trust in the managers”; “if someone in this organisation makes a promise, the others always trust them to do their best to keep it”; “the managers of this company trust their subordinates”.

### *Firm innovativeness*

Firm innovativeness was measured using the scale proposed by Calantone et al. (2002). This scale draws on Hurt, Joseph and Cook (1977), Hollenstein (1996) and Hurt and Teigen (1977), and has been validated by many subsequent studies. The scale includes six items to measure firm innovativeness and includes items such as: “our company often tries out new ideas”; “our company looks for new ways of doing things”; “our company is creative in its methods of operation”; “innovation in our company is perceived as too

risky and there is resistance to it". Each of these items was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

#### *Control variables*

Since external sources may affect a firms' innovativeness, firm size and firm age were included as control variables. Empirical studies examining firm innovativeness as a dependent variable have typically used firm size and firm age as control variables (e.g., Domínguez-Escrig et al., 2019; Jiménez-Jiménez and Sanz-Valle, 2011), as they have been shown to affect this variable.

#### **2.4.3. Descriptive statistics and reliability of measurement scales**

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics of the indicators considered in the study, including means and standard deviations, as well as correlation factors. In addition to Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951), two indicators were used to assess the reliability of the scale: composite reliability (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and average variance extracted (Alegre & Chiva, 2008) (see Table 5). Both Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability exceed the minimum acceptable value of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). Likewise, the mean variance extracted shows values above the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998; Nunnally, 1978).



Table 5. Chapter II. Means, standard deviation and correlation factors (N=271)

	Mean	S. D	Mean_ Firm innovativeness	Mean_ Organisational Trust	Mean_ Organisational Compassion
Firm innovativeness	4.724	0.899	1	.380**	.302**
Organisational Trust	4.875	1.252	.380**	1	.164**
Organisational Compassion	5.888	0.398	.302**	.164**	1

Source: the authors

\*Significant correlation ( $p < 0.01$ )

(1) For the standard deviations and correlations between factors, we worked with the mean of the items that make up each variable.

Table 6. Chapter II. Reliability of measurement scales.

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Cronbach's <math>\alpha</math></b>	<b>KMO Test</b>	<b>Bartlett Test Sig</b>	<b>Composite reliability</b>	<b>Variance extracted</b>
Organisational Compassion	0.922	0.752	0.000	0.70<p<1 0.935	0.50<p<1 0.784
Organisational Trust	0.846	0.825	0.000	0.70<p<1 0.898	0.50<p<1 0.689
Firm innovativeness	0.681	0.847	0.000	0.70<p<1 0.746	0.50<p<1 0.575

Source: the authors

The Cronbach alpha coefficient allows us to analyse the reliability of measurement scales. More specifically, it indicates the consistency between items (Bojorquez et al., 2013). The minimum acceptable value for Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.70; below this value the internal consistency of the scale is low. On the other hand, the maximum expected value is 0.90; above this value, redundancy or duplication is considered to be present (Cronbach, 1951; Cortina, 1993; Celina and Campus-Arias, 2005). As shown in Table 6, the value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient is acceptable for the variables organisational compassion (alpha= 0.922) and organisational trust (alpha=0.846). However, for the variable firm innovativeness it is just below the minimum acceptable level (0.681). The

Cronbach's alpha test is not sufficient to fully know the quality of the statistical analysis carried out, nor that of the scales used in the model (Cortina, 1993; Campus-Arias, 2006). Therefore, to demonstrate the complete reliability of the model, we performed the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The value obtained for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test measures the suitability of the data for factor analysis by comparing the values of the observed correlation coefficients with the partial correlation coefficients (González-Alonso and Pazmiño Santacruz, 2015; López-Aguado et al., 2019). In other words, it measures the sampling adequacy for each variable in the model. The KMO test offers several methods of analysis; in this case, we used the maximum likelihood method because ours is a model with structural equations. The test returns values between 0 and 1, and according to Fernandez (2011), an acceptable value is considered when  $KMO \geq 0.75$ . Therefore, the model demonstrates an adequacy of the variables and of the complete model because the KMO test for the three variables is higher than the minimum established:  $KMO_{comp} = 0.752$ ;  $KMO_{innov} = 0.847$ ;  $KMO_{Trust} = 0.825$ . On the other hand, the chi-square of Bartlett's test of sphericity is statistically significant in the three variables ( $p < 0.05$ ), which indicates that the correlation matrix does not correspond to an identity. Therefore, the items of the variables are correlated, which shows that the factorial model used is adequate for the analysis.

Since these are subjective assessment measures, we performed a single-factor Harman test with SPSS (Podsakoff et al., 2003; O'Connor, 2000) to assess the common method variance. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis with the 14 indicators loaded on a single factor showed a percentage of variance of 40.613%; according to the theory, if the percentage of variance is less than 50%, the data are not biased by the common method. The analysis of the study could therefore continue.

## **2.5.DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

We applied structural equation methodology to empirically validate the research model, using the statistical software EQS 6.1. The fit indicators show a good fit of the model (Table 7). As can be seen in Table 7, the results indicate a positive and significant relationship between compassion and firm innovativeness ( $\beta_1 = 0.208$ ;  $t=3.556$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ), confirming H1. The relationship between organisational compassion and organisational trust relationship is also positive and significant ( $\beta_2 = 0.202$ ;  $t=3.141$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ), thus supporting H2. Furthermore, the empirical results also reveal positive and significant relationships between organisational compassion and firm innovativeness ( $\beta_3 = 0.495$ ;  $t=6.942$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ), thus confirming H3. The results of the decomposition effects with standardised values indicate a significant indirect effect between organisational compassion and firm innovativeness with a value of 0.350 ( $t = 3.661$ ). These results confirm the mediating effect of trust in the research model. Therefore, all the research hypotheses are supported. Finally, no significant relationships were found between the control variables (i.e., firm age and firm size) and firm innovativeness.

Following the approach adopted by Tippins and Sohi (2003), a test of a possible mediating effect was conducted by testing two models: a direct effects model and a mediation model. The first model (direct effects) analysed the isolated impact of the independent variables on the dependent variables, i.e. the individual relationship between organisational compassion and the firm's innovativeness. In order to determine the presence of mediating effects, the coefficient of the direct effects model must be significant. The results obtained reveal that the coefficient of the direct relationship between organisational compassion and the firm's innovativeness is significant ( $\beta_1 = 0.298$ ;  $t = 4.573$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). In the second model, known as the mediation model, the same relationship was examined, but the mediating variable of organisational trust was added. According to Tippins and Sohi

(2003), the presence of the mediating effect of organisational trust in the relationship between organisational compassion and firms' innovativeness can be confirmed when the following criteria are met: (1) the mediation model explains more variance in innovativeness than the direct effects model; (2) there is a significant relationship between organisational compassion and organisational trust; (3) the observed significant relationship between organisational compassion and firm innovativeness in the direct effects model is reduced (partial mediation) or disappears (full mediation) in the mediation model; and finally, (4) there is a significant relationship between organisational trust and firm innovativeness. Table 7 shows that the above requirements are met, confirming partial mediation.

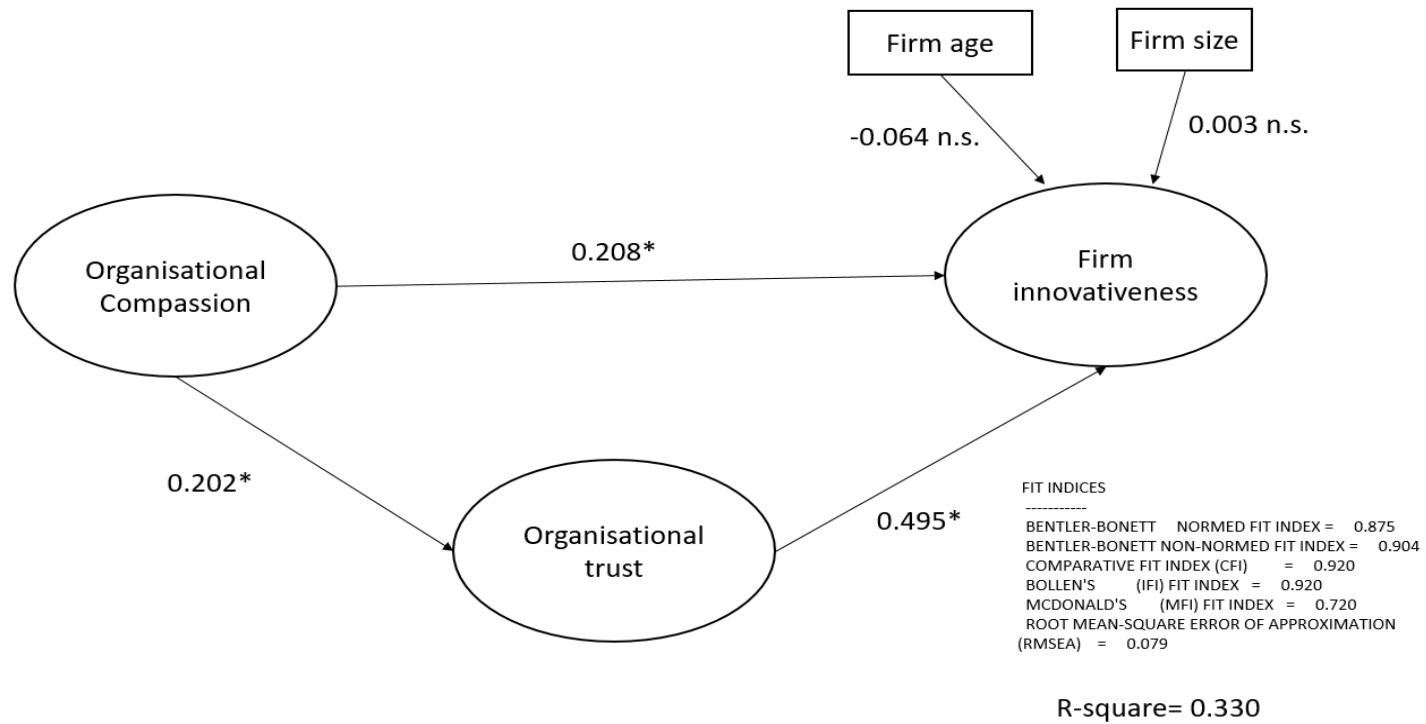
*Table 7. Chapter II. Results and fit index of the research model.*

<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Results of mediation model</b>	<b>Results of direct effect model</b>
<i>Hypothesis</i>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Org. Compassion → Firm.Innovativeness</li> </ul>	0.208 (3.556)	0.298 (4.573)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Org. Compassion → Org. Trust</li> </ul>	0.202 (3.141)	—
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Org. Trust → Firm Innovativeness</li> </ul>	0.495 (6.942)	—

R-Square	0.330	0.100
<u>Control variable</u>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Firm Age → Firm. Innovativeness</li> <li>▪ Firm Size → Firm. Innovativeness</li> </ul>	<p>-0.064 (-1.296)</p> <p>0.003 (0.083)</p>	<p>0.101 (-1.717)</p> <p>0.031 (0.742)</p>
<u>Goodness of fit</u>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ S-B chi-square</li> <li>▪ Df</li> <li>▪ p-value</li> <li>▪ BBNFI</li> <li>▪ BBNNFI</li> <li>▪ CFI</li> <li>▪ IFI</li> <li>▪ MFI</li> <li>▪ RMSEA</li> </ul>	<p>178.935</p> <p>74</p> <p>0.000</p> <p>0.906</p> <p>0.929</p> <p>0.942</p> <p>0.942</p> <p>0.810</p> <p>0.076</p>	<p>130.6568</p> <p>33</p> <p>0.000</p> <p>0.897</p> <p>0.891</p> <p>0.920</p> <p>0.921</p> <p>0.825</p> <p>0.108</p>

Source: the authors

Figure 4: Chapter II. Research model and results.



Source: own elaboration

## **2.6.CONCLUSIONS**

In recent years, a growing number of studies have begun to investigate the role of compassion in organisations (Dutton and Worline, 2017; Ko et al., 2021), exploring the consequences and benefits of this phenomenon at both the individual and the organisational level. Our paper contributes to this research by empirically analysing some of the organisational consequences of fostering compassion at work. First, we find that compassion has a direct effect on innovation and organisational trust. We also show that organisational trust could act as an explanatory mechanism or mediator of the relationship between compassion and innovation. In other words, we provide empirical evidence that both compassion at work and organisational trust could be considered antecedents of innovation, analysing how compassionate attitudes – feeling empathy or concern when seeing a person suffer (Lilius et al., 2012) – and a trust-based work climate foster communication, exchange of ideas, participation, engagement and learning, which in turn drive innovation. The results suggest that when compassion is transmitted among organisational members (managers, subordinates, employees, etc.), organisations are better able to share knowledge, thus gaining a competitive advantage that is difficult for other companies to imitate, leading to greater firm innovativeness.

This study also reveals how trust plays an important role in organisations, in particular, by influencing firm innovativeness. The results demonstrate that trust in the workplace promotes respectful, committed and mutually supportive working relationships and creates an environment in which employees are more likely to share their ideas and are more willing to be creative, acquire new knowledge and share information. Hence, trust is found to play a significant role in fostering organisational innovation. In line with previous literature on trust, which has long corroborated the important implications of this variable, this study reveals the beneficial role of trust for innovation.



We therefore conclude that companies could become stronger by creating an environment of compassion, which leads to higher levels of trust. However, the outsourcing of many activities, increasing job insecurity, mass layoffs, rigid controls over workers, excessive competitiveness within the company or the application of authoritarian leadership styles are major barriers to creating work environments based on compassion and trust. Rather, they lead to environments dominated by individualism, fierce competition among workers, disaffection and distrust. The study highlights the principles of more humanistic approaches to business management, based on shared values and where care, compassion and trust appear as central elements of working life and the functioning of organisations.

### **2.6.1. Practical implications**

Compassion in companies can be developed by establishing new leadership styles in which concern for others is valued. Although compassion is an issue that concerns all hierarchical levels, it is the leaders who, through their example, can more easily spread this value within companies. Moreover, performance evaluation and reward criteria should take compassion into consideration by, for example, evaluating the climate of compassion in teams or work groups when making decisions on issues such as rewards or evaluating the performance of workers and leaders. The ability to show compassion and act accordingly could also be adopted as a criterion in decisions about promotions or career paths and incentives. On the other hand, companies could consider compassion as a competency or skill to be considered in job designs or selection processes.

### **2.6.2. Limitations of the study and future lines of research**

The organisations included in the study sample belong to different sectors and are of different sizes. Therefore, future research could focus on a single sector or on companies of similar size. Another limitation is the cross-sectional nature of the sample. The cross-sectional nature of our study does not allow us to draw firm conclusions about causality in the observed associations (European Innovation Scoreboard, 2017). Therefore, long-term longitudinal studies are needed to confirm causes and consequences. Longitudinal studies are usually more precise because they collect data at different points in time.

Given that few studies have examined the role of compassion at work, further research is needed to explore and propose more complex and humane models of management that create work environments which help foster compassion and organisational trust. For example, it would be interesting to examine the role of compassionate leadership in our model, as well as other constructs such as human resource management practices, organisational structure, or organisational culture.

Finally, we hope that our study will contribute to shed light on these organisational phenomena and provide a basis and inspiration for further research in these promising fields of organisational research.

## **CHAPTER III**

# **Beyond Hierarchy: The Transformative Role of Self-Managed Teams<sup>3</sup>**

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<sup>3</sup> A version of this chapter has been published in the edictorial *Tirant lo Blanc*. In addition, It has been presented at national and international conferences. Full details are given in Appendix B



## **Beyond Hierarchy: The Transformative Role of Self-Managed Teams**

### **ABSTRACT**

In today's dynamic and competitive business environment, organizations face significant challenges in human talent management and employee retention. High labor turnover, coupled with precarious working conditions and lack of autonomy, pose costly threats to organizational stability. Against this backdrop, there is a need to rethink human resource practices. This study focuses on exploring the benefits of self-managed teams in the tourism sector, an area little explored in this context. It seeks to understand how these teams can improve employee satisfaction, engagement and additional behaviors, while reducing employee fatigue. Data will be collected from tourism companies in the Valencian Community, using statistical analysis to assess the impact of self-managed teams on various organizational outcomes. By investigating the potential of these teams in tourism, this study contributes to understanding their applicability beyond conventional sectors. The results are intended to offer valuable insights for organizations seeking strategies not only to optimize operations, but also to stand out in the competitive tourism industry.

### **3.1. INTRODUCTION**

Currently, the business environment is constantly evolving and facing significant challenges that transcend industry boundaries. These challenges have transformed the way organizations conceive human talent management and employee retention (Kandampully, 2002; Martin and Siebert, 2016). Globalization, the technological revolution, and changing employee expectations converge to create a highly dynamic and competitive work environment (Liu, 2013; Brand et al., 2021).

A prominent problem in many companies is high labor turnover, a costly and disruptive phenomenon that affects not only business continuity, but also organizational commitment and culture (Stamolampros et al., 2019; Sun and Wang, 2017). The constant inflow and outflow of employees challenges the stability and long-term development of companies. In addition, precarious working conditions, characterized by strenuous working hours and inequity, have generated widespread dissatisfaction among employees (Lee et al., 2011; Arzola, 2018).

The search for solutions to make working in a company more attractive and satisfying has become a pressing priority for organizations. Talent retention has become a strategic challenge, as companies seek not only to attract competent professionals, but also to retain them in the long term. Employee engagement has become a critical factor in achieving optimal performance, and people management has become an increasingly sophisticated field of study and application (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Nikolaou and Tsaousis, 2002; Afsar and Umrani, 2020).

In this context, the importance of rethinking management structures and teamwork dynamics becomes evident. Organizations often adopt various structures that influence their functioning and employee satisfaction (Katsikea et al., 2011; Warr and Nielsen, 2018). Traditional hierarchical structures, where decisions and authority emanate from

the top of the organization, are common in many companies (Mintzberg, 1991; Zhou et al., 2018). In these systems, leaders set the direction and employees follow predefined guidelines, limiting workers' autonomy and ability to influence (Mintzberg, 2013). Employees typically work in teams led by a leader who makes major decisions, redistributes tasks and evaluates team performance (Anser et al., 2021; Fernandes et al., 2022). Although this model can be effective for certain tasks, it can result in disengaged and demotivated employees (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008; Zhou et al., 2018).

The younger generation of employees has experienced a significant shift in their work expectations, seeking greater freedom and autonomy in their work roles (Anser et al., 2021; Llaoux 2014). This paradigm shift in the work environment makes a reassessment of HR practices essential to address the new needs of employees. The implementation of self-managed teams, where power is distributed among all members, emerges as an innovative formula. In these teams, there are no established power hierarchies, responsibility is shared, and leadership is shared (Lee and Edmondson, 2017; Yang and Guy, 2011; Power and Waddell, 2004; Taibo, 2022). Self-managed teams integrate flexible organizational structures, with democratic and egalitarian work politics (Wageman, 1997; Laloux, 2014).

Based on the above arguments, the proposed research on the benefits of working in self-managed teams in tourism companies is based on a solid foundation of existing studies and research. According to Ruotsalainen et al (2023), numerous papers have addressed the relationship between self-managing teams and various aspects of work behaviors and well-being. For example, Langfred (2007), Yang and Guy (2011), Michael et al (2017) have explored how the structure and dynamics of self-management teams influence individual and collective employee behaviors. Recent studies by Wu et al(2018), Wang et al (2017) have analyzed crucial aspects such as collaborative decision making, effective

communication and task coordination, consistently revealing that these teams tend to foster proactive behaviors and greater individual and group accountability.

For example, research such as that conducted by Eloy (2005) and Shively et al. (2013) has explored how the implementation of self-management teams can positively influence employees' perceived autonomy, stronger commitment to assigned tasks. In relation to work well-being, previous research has assessed how autonomy and self-regulation in self-management teams translate into levels of satisfaction and psychological well-being (Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001; Eloy, 2005; Zibari and Avdiaj, 2019; Doblinger, 2022). According to the findings of Ryan and Deci (2017), autonomy in the work environment is positively related to employees' job satisfaction and psychological well-being. Additional results from studies by Magpili and Pazos (2018) have indicated positive associations between the implementation of self-management teams and reduced job stress, as well as an increased sense of meaning and accomplishment in work tasks. These studies, along with research by Roy (2003); Hawkins (2013); Lee and Edmondson (2017); Magpili and Pazos (2018); and Doblinger, 2022, provide a comprehensive view of how self-management teams can affect various aspects of work behavior and well-being, thus establishing a solid foundation for our research.

Organizational commitment is essential for assessing employees' emotional and motivational connection to their work and the organization, especially in self-management teams, where active participation can significantly influence commitment. According to Meyer and Allen's (2001) research, organizational commitment is crucial for understanding employees' emotional relationship with their work and their willingness to contribute to the organization's success. Job satisfaction, in turn, is a crucial indicator of employees' perceived well-being in their work environment. Studies by Millikin (2010) and Arzola (2018) support the idea that job satisfaction is directly related to well-being



and work productivity. By exploring how self-management teams can influence job satisfaction, we seek to understand whether this structure contributes to a more rewarding and enriching work environment.

Research on burnout allows evaluating how self-management can affect fatigue and burnout, critical factors in the tourism sector. According to Maslach and Leiter (2016), burnout is a phenomenon that negatively affects health and work performance, being essential to understand how self-management can mitigate these effects. Trust among team members and towards the self-management system can be a critical factor for the proper functioning of these teams. The work of Mayer and Gavin (2005) highlights the importance of trust in the work environment and how it can influence team efficiency. Exploring trust allows us to understand how this variable can be influenced by self-management and how, in turn, it can affect team dynamics and efficiency.

Likewise, the observation of extra-role behaviors is justified by their impact on organizational effectiveness and work culture. According to Organ and Ryan(1995); Guinot et al (2014)extra-role behaviors can have a significant impact on organizational culture and service quality. Given that self-management teams often require a high level of collaboration and support among members, it is relevant to explore how these teams can influence voluntary and proactive behaviors that go beyond specific job tasks. In this text, job satisfaction is not only an indicator of employees' perceived well-being in their work environment, but is also closely linked to talent retention. According to research by Judge et al (2017), job satisfaction is a key predictor of employee retention. As well as, investigating how self-management teams influence job satisfaction can have significant impacts on service quality and firm competitiveness.

Therefore, the choice of specific variables, such as commitment, job satisfaction, burnout, trust and extra-role behaviors, in our study is based on a careful consideration of their relevance and significance in the work context. These variables have been selected because of their intrinsic importance in the work environment and their potential to provide an in-depth understanding of the effects of self-management teams in the tourism sector and are intended to fill the gap detected in the literature review on these relationships.

The objective of the proposed research is to verify and validate what has been investigated in relation to the concept of self-management team. We seek to confirm that this phenomenon does indeed influence key variables such as commitment, job satisfaction, burnout, trust, among others. This study is intended as an exploratory analysis of the phenomenon of self-management teams, with the purpose of progressing and deepening the research. In addition, it will serve as a foundation to continue proposing new relationships and connections within this field of study. We aspire to enrich the understanding of the effects of self-management teams and provide knowledge that can be directly applied to improve work dynamics in tourism companies. The proposed research not only fills a knowledge gap, but also contributes to the generation of practical information that can guide effective management and human resources strategies in the specific context of these companies.

To carry out this purpose, we will collect data from tourism companies located in the Valencian Community. We will use statistical regression techniques to decipher the effects of working in self-managed teams on variables such as extra-role behavior, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust or fatigue or burnout. All of these are behaviors or affective states that are essential for the proper functioning of companies, particularly tourism companies.

Following this introduction, the main concepts dealt with in the study will be reviewed, then the working hypotheses will be presented, followed by an explanation of the working methodology, then the results will be presented, and finally a series of conclusions will be proposed.

## **3.2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **3.2.1. Self-Managed Teams**

The term "self-management" is based on the premise that leading others requires, first and foremost, the ability to lead oneself. In other words, it refers to the employment of various methods, skills, and strategies that enable participants in a task to achieve their goals autonomously (Cohen and Ledford, 1994; Power and Waddell, 2004; Arzola, 2018). Authors such as Manz (1986) and Barker (1994) define the concept of "self-management" as the ability of individuals or teams within an organization to manage their activities, make decisions, and take responsibilities without depending on direct supervision from a superior. This philosophy promotes the idea that employees become more productive and motivated when they have the autonomy and control necessary for their work (Druskat Pescosolido, 2002; Yang and Guy, 2011).

Within the literature of self-management, the concept of "self-management teams" (Barker, 1993; Wageman, 1997; Taibo 2022) is found. These are teams of employees who collaboratively and participatively work together on every decision related to the tasks they perform. They are teams that are granted work flexibility to plan tasks, allocate resources and activities, as well as solve problems (Wageman, 1997). Self-managed teams are characterized by the decentralization of authority and control power. That is, each team consists of about 10 to 15 people who take full responsibility for their work

area (Barker and Tompkins, 1994). These teams make all decisions, coordinate all activities, and carry out all the necessary work to complete a final product (Barker and Tompkins, 1994). In theory, self-managed teams do not have supervisors or leaders; the team supervises itself and others, multiplying the number of employees (Barker, 1993; Cohen and Bailey, 1997; Robertson, 2015). However, there are situations where the team appoints a member as the informant or representative of the self-managed team (Barker and Tompkins, 1994).

Authors such as Millikin et al. (2010) and Michael et al. (2017) define self-managed teams as "a group of people with diverse skills and knowledge, with collective autonomy and responsibility to plan, manage, and execute tasks interdependently to achieve a common goal." Cooney (2004) states that self-managed teams operate based on a culture of equality, where power is distributed among all team members, and everyone has responsibility for the project's result and tasks. Also, authors like Wageman (1997) explain that the central principle of self-managed teams is to control their own performance and modify their action strategies as necessary to solve problems and adapt to changing conditions.

According to Barker and Tompkins (1994) and Michael et al. (2017), self-managed teams perform better in organizations characterized by interdependent tasks, complex processes, flexibility in deadlines, and the need for rapid changes and adaptation for several reasons. Firstly, these teams promote more effective coordination by allowing agile communication and collaborative decision-making, preventing possible errors (Druskat and Pescosolido, 2002; Yang and Guy, 2011). Secondly, their adaptability is crucial in changing environments, as they can adjust strategies and approaches quickly (Barker, 1994; Lee and Edmondson, 2017). Thirdly, the sense of shared responsibility they foster among their members is essential in interdependent tasks and complex processes,

ensuring sustained commitment and greater efficiency (Power and Waddell, 2004). Fourthly, by operating with less bureaucracy, self-managed teams streamline decision-making and facilitate the implementation of changes, easing the workload (Millikin et al., 2010; Magpili and Pazos, 2018). Therefore, self-managed teams are quickly becoming the preferred management practice for organizations that want to be more flexible, shift decision-making to the frontline, and leverage the intellectual and creative capabilities of employees to the fullest (Wageman, 1997).

According to the literature, there are various types of self-management teams that vary in scope and responsibilities. One of the most common types is single-level self-managed work teams, where employees in a specific department or area take responsibility for managing their daily tasks and decision-making related to them (Cohen and Ladford, 1994). Then, we have multifunctional self-managed teams, including members from different functional areas of the organization and focusing on projects or specific problems that require a wide range of skills (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993). Additionally, there are organization-wide self-management teams, where the entire company operates on the principle of self-management, with decentralized decision-making and a high degree of autonomy at all levels (Parker and Van den Bosch, 1999). These teams may vary in their level of autonomy and responsibility, but all share the characteristic of empowering employees to make key decisions related to their work, which can improve the efficiency, well-being, and adaptability of the organization as a whole.

### **3.2.2. Organizational Citizenship Behavior or Extra-Role Behavior (OCBI)**

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCBI), also known as extra-role behavior, is a widely studied concept in the literature of organizational psychology and human resource management (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Farh et al., 1990; Dyah et al., 2016). It refers to voluntary and positive actions that employees perform in the workplace but are not directly related to their formal tasks or responsibilities (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, 1991; Bolino et al., 2018). These actions go beyond basic job expectations and contribute to the well-being of the organization and its members (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Alkahtani, 2015).

This type of behavior has been extensively studied and discussed in the literature. Dennis Organ was one of the first researchers to introduce the term and define the concept as "individual behaviors that are discrete, voluntary, not recognized by the formal reward system, and that collectively promote the well-being of the social system" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). This definition emphasizes the voluntary and unrewarded nature of extra-role behaviors, as well as their focus on social well-being (Farh et al., 1990; Dyah et al., 2016). OCBI includes behaviors such as assisting coworkers in their tasks, providing emotional support to colleagues in times of difficulty, suggesting improvements in work processes, actively participating in training and development activities, and promoting a positive work environment (Organ, 1988; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Alkahtani, 2015). These voluntary and positive actions have a significant impact on the organization's functioning, improving productivity, team cohesion, and employee satisfaction (Dyah, 2016).

Various studies have explored the antecedents and consequences of these behaviors. For example, Bateman and Organ (1983); Farh et al. (1990) proposed that transformational leadership can foster extra-role behaviors by inspiring employees and creating a positive organizational climate. Additionally, Podsakoff et al. (2000); Podsakoff et al. (2009) identified three key dimensions: altruism, courtesy, and organizational support behavior,

which are related to caring for others, good interpersonal relationships, and promoting the organization's well-being, respectively.

On the other hand, it has been found that extra-role behaviors are associated with various positive outcomes for both employees and the organization. For example, they are related to increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Organ and Ryan, 1995), better individual and team performance (Williams and Anderson, 1991), a higher perception of organizational justice (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Dyah et al., 2016), and a lower intention to turnover (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Furthermore, OCBI has been positively linked to job performance and organizational success (Bolino et al., 2018).

OCBI not only benefits at an individual and organizational level but also contributes to the construction of a positive work climate. Employees who observe and experience organizational citizenship behaviors tend to respond positively and engage in similar behaviors (Bolino et al., 2018). This creates a virtuous cycle that enhances organizational culture and strengthens relationships among team members.

### **3.2.3. Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is a fundamental concept in organizational psychology, referring to the subjective evaluation that employees make of their work and their level of satisfaction with various aspects related to it (Locke, 1969; Aziri, 2011). Job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct that encompasses satisfaction with the job itself, work relationships, opportunities for growth and development, compensation, among other aspects (Locke, 1976; Kramer and SCHMALENBERG, 1991; Judge et al., 2017). Locke's (1976) job satisfaction model is widely recognized and has been used as a theoretical basis in numerous studies on job satisfaction. According to this model, job satisfaction

originates from the comparison between employees' expectations and perceptions of different aspects of their work. If perceptions match expectations, satisfaction is experienced; if there is a negative discrepancy, dissatisfaction is experienced (Aziri, 2011).

Therefore, job satisfaction refers to employees' subjective evaluation of their work and their level of satisfaction with different work-related aspects (Judge et al., 2017; Jalagat, 2016). Locke's (1976) job satisfaction model provides a theoretical foundation for understanding how expectations and perceptions influence job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is influenced by a range of organizational and individual factors (Judge et al., 2001; O'Reilly et al., 2014). Positive relationships with colleagues and supervisors (Eisenbeiss, 2008), autonomy and control at work, recognition and fair rewards, workload and the balance between work and personal life, opportunities for professional development and growth, organizational culture, and shared values (Chatman et al., 2014), as well as effective communication and involvement in decision-making, are key determinants of job satisfaction (Judge, 2017). These factors not only impact employee satisfaction but are also linked to positive outcomes such as employee retention, organizational commitment, job performance, and psychological well-being (Bono and Judge, 2003; Aziri, 2011; Chatman et al., 2014).

Numerous studies have examined the antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction. For instance, factors like leadership, organizational climate, human resources policies, rewards, and social support at work can influence employees' job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001; Bakker et al., 2007). Job satisfaction has also been associated with a range of positive outcomes for both employees and organizations. For example, job satisfaction has been linked to higher organizational commitment, increased employee retention,



better job performance, and greater customer satisfaction (Harter et al., 2002; Judge et al., 2001).

#### **3.2.4. Organizational Commitment**

Organizational commitment, considered a concept deeply rooted in human resource management literature, addresses the profound connection between employees and their respective organizations (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Wright and Bonett, 2000). This commitment refers to the emotional relationship that individuals establish with their company and is a significant indicator of the extent to which they identify with the organization's values, goals, and culture (Porter et al., 1976; Allen and Meyer, 1996). Organizational commitment consists of three fundamental components: (1) adherence to the organization's values and goals, (2) willingness to exert considerable effort for the benefit of the company, and (3) a strong desire to remain an integral part of it (Modway et al., 1979).

Numerous studies have revealed that organizational commitment is a critical and advantageous factor for businesses. It has been demonstrated that organizations with highly committed employees enjoy several significant competitive advantages. Firstly, commitment has been inversely related to absenteeism and employee turnover. Committed employees exhibit higher attendance and a lower likelihood of leaving their jobs, contributing to personnel stability and significant cost savings in recruitment and training processes (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Additionally, commitment is positively correlated with organizational citizenship behaviors. Highly committed employees often willingly engage in actions beyond their specific job responsibilities, such as assisting colleagues, contributing to internal process improvement, and proactively collaborating on problem-solving (McElroy et al., 1993). This organizational citizenship can have a

significant impact on the efficiency and culture of the organization. A third highlighted benefit of organizational commitment is its positive influence on overall organizational performance. According to Wright and Bonett (2002), committed employees tend to display higher levels of productivity and quality in their work. However, the nature and direction of these relationships are complex and context-dependent, varying based on the specific variables under study (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky, 2002).

Numerous studies highlight the benefits of employees' commitment to the organization. For example, it reduces absenteeism and turnover, promotes organizational citizenship behaviors (actions beyond job requirements, such as helping colleagues or clients), and enhances performance (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; McElroy et al., 1993; Wright and Bonett, 2002), among other advantages. Hence, in recent years, many companies have shown interest in the level of commitment among their employees. One reason for this interest is the recognition that, to gain competitive advantages in a global economy, it is essential to have human resources aligned with the goals, values, and culture of the company. In addition to being one of the most effective approaches to achieving organizational goals, promoting a positive work environment, maintaining effective, efficient, and continuous communication with the team, fostering teamwork, among other practices (Allen and Meyer, 1996). Moreover, it has been observed that an employee's commitment to the organization is closely linked to their behavior in the workplace. However, the nature and direction of these relationships are complex and context-dependent, contingent on the variables under study (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky, 2002).

### **3.2.5. Organizational Trust**

Organizational trust is a concept of paramount importance in the field of management and organizational behavior. Within an organization, trust stands as the foundational pillar upon which relationships are built, decisions are made, and a productive work environment is fostered (Mayer et al., 1995; Sauders, 2012). It is defined as the belief and willingness of individuals within an organization to trust in the ethics of their superiors, colleagues, and the organization as a whole, as well as in the fulfillment of commitments and adherence to shared values (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau, 1998). Trust is not merely an attitude; rather, it is a crucial element influencing decision-making, cooperation, and the establishment of strong work relationships (Kramer, 2006; Brower, Lester, and Korsgaard, 2017). Authors such as Sauders (2012) and Engle-Warnick and Slonim (2006) define organizational trust as a crucial variable for improving the work environment, job engagement, organizational performance, and employee retention.

Organizational trust is characterized by three key dimensions. These dimensions include trust in leaders, trust in colleagues, and trust in the organization as a whole. Trust in leaders is based on the belief that they will act ethically and lead the organization effectively (Brower et al., 2000; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Mineo, 2014). On the other hand, trust in colleagues involves the conviction that they will collaborate efficiently and fulfill their commitments (Braun, 1997; Colquitt et al., 2007; Weibel et al., 2016). Lastly, trust in the organization is related to the belief that it will be fair, ethical, and consistent with its stated values (Mayer and Gavin, 2005).

Furthermore, the construction and maintenance of organizational trust are influenced by various factors. Effective communication, characterized by open and transparent communication, fosters trust in both leaders and the organization as a whole (Brower et al., 2000; Van der Werff, 2019). Additionally, organizational culture plays a crucial role

in promoting ethics and responsibility, strengthening trust (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Kramer, 2006; Fard et al., 2015). Employees' previous experiences with the organization and its leaders also influence their level of trust (Guinot et al., 2021).

The literature highlights multiple benefits of trust for both the organization and all its members. Firstly, it promotes a positive and collaborative work environment, where employees feel secure and supported, thereby fostering engagement and job satisfaction (Mayer, 1995; Kramer, 2006; Guinot et al., 2014). Additionally, organizational trust is closely related to employee retention, as those who trust their organization are more likely to stay in the long term (Fard and Karimi, 2015). From the organization's perspective, increased trust translates into improved performance and efficiency, as employees are more likely to collaborate effectively and take risks (Mayer and Gavin, 2005; Guinot et al., 2014). Moreover, organizational trust contributes to the creation of a culture of integrity (Weibel et al., 2016). Ultimately, organizational trust is a strategic asset that drives the success of the organization in a competitive and ever-changing business environment (Mayer and Gavin, 2005; Mineo, 2014; Sauders, 2012).

### **3.2.6. work exhaustion**

The concept of work exhaustion refers to the extreme exhaustion experienced by individuals in their work due to task overload, constant pressure, and a lack of resources to cope with work demands (Moore, 2000; Yu et al., 2015). Work exhaustion, considered a dimension of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001; Kim et al., 2015; Maslach and Leiter, 2016), is a widely studied concept in occupational psychology. It denotes a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion resulting from prolonged exposure to chronic work stress (Maslach, 1998; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). It is characterized by a sense of extreme exhaustion, depersonalization or cynicism towards work, and a decrease in

personal accomplishment in the work environment (Maslach et al., 2001; Yu et al., 2015). The burnout model proposed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) is one of the most influential theoretical approaches in this field. According to this model, job burnout is the result of a combination of high levels of job demands, a lack of personal and organizational resources to cope with those demands, coupled with a lack of rewards and job satisfaction.

At the organizational level, the concept of work exhaustion has gained increasing recognition in academic literature due to its negative implications for organizations. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) emphasize that job burnout is strongly related to an increase in absenteeism, implying that employees experiencing high levels of burnout tend to miss work more frequently. Additionally, job burnout is associated with a decrease in job performance (Wright and Bonett, 1997; Warr and Nielsen, 2018). Various studies have shown that burned-out employees struggle to maintain high levels of concentration, make sound decisions, and be productive in their work (Schaufeli et al., 2009). This decline in job performance can negatively impact the organization's efficiency and its ability to achieve its goals. On the other hand, work exhaustion is also related to a higher intention to leave the job (Leiter and Maslach, 2004; Ventura and Salanova, 2015). Employees experiencing high levels of burnout often feel demotivated and disenchanted with their work, leading them to consider the possibility of leaving the organization (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007).

### **3.3. DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES**

Below, the five working hypotheses proposed in this study are justified and presented.

#### **3.3.1. Self-management Teams and Organizational Trust**

Freedom and autonomy are two basic characteristics of self-management teams (Pearson and Lawrence, 2010; Robertson, 2015). In these teams, workers must take on responsibilities while reaching consensus solutions when necessary (Cohen and Bailey, 1997; Lee and Edmondson, 2017). Collaboration and mutual commitment are fundamental in these teams, requiring close cooperation among workers (Wright and Bonett, 2002). Simultaneously, with the elimination of the chain of command, horizontal communication becomes essential to direct the team's work and ensure optimal functioning (Li et al., 2016). Team members collectively determine roles, commonly setting tasks, objectives, responsibilities, and improvement procedures and practices (Hang and Guy, 2011; Xiao et al., 2013). Without the dominance of an authority figure and the disappearance of hierarchy based on command and control, a work environment characterized by trust relationships among all team members may emerge (Druskat and Wheeler, 2004; Druskat and Pescosolido, 2022).

Furthermore, by operating on more democratic and transparent procedures, trust among team members may increase. When working in a structure that allows direct participation in major team-related matters (Mühl, 2014), when all team members mutually recognize good work, and when decision-making power lies with all team members, an atmosphere of mutual commitment is likely to occur (Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001; Elloy, 2005). In this environment, personal bonds may strengthen, and trust may unfold. Therefore, we propose the following working hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 1: Self-management teams increase organizational trust.*

### **3.3.2. Self-management Teams and Extra-Role or Organizational Citizenship Behaviors**

For workers to demonstrate a complete willingness in their job and a desire to engage in behaviors or actions beyond their basic duties, certain conditions need to be present (Nelson and Quick, 2011; Dyah et al., 2016). The employee's engagement in these behaviors is only possible if an atmosphere of shared responsibility, collaborative work, and mutual recognition and support is established (Guinot et al., 2014; Tahiri et al., 2020). If the worker perceives themselves as an essential part of their team and, consequently, the company, they are likely to be willing to participate in more extra-role behaviors. By involving them in team decisions, providing autonomy and power, and allowing them to freely define their roles and responsibilities, the worker may feel more valued, useful, and confident (Sheng et al., 2010; Mallén-Broch et al., 2023).

In this situation, the worker may be more predisposed to help others, offer their time, integrate new company members, or make sacrifices for others (Spitzmuller et al., 2008; Song et al., 2020). Working in self-managed teams is likely to result in closer relationships based on collective interest, making the worker more willing to make sacrifices for others and assist as needed. Given the above, we propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2: Self-management teams increase Extra-Role Behaviors (OCBI).*

### **3.3.3. Self-management Teams and Job Satisfaction**

Teamwork is a way to promote more satisfying work relationships (Griffin et al., 2001; Judge et al., 2020). Humans are social beings who enjoy working on collective projects, engaging in a goal beyond individual interests, and collaborating in the pursuit of common purposes (Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001; Sheng et al., 2010). Working in a self-managed team is likely to evoke a sense of working toward a common goal that requires equal participation from everyone. These self-management teams ensure that the worker operates in an environment of equality, transparency, and democracy (Millikin, 2010; Rousseau and Aubé, 2010; Arzola, 2018). Hence, the worker may perceive their working conditions as more satisfying.

If the worker has a significant influence on team decisions, receives recognition from all other members, and can have a say in decisions affecting their work, this may contribute to increasing satisfaction with their work. The autonomy, freedom, and responsibility assumed in self-managed teams are likely to make the worker feel a greater sense of accomplishment (Power and Waddell, 2004), increased power and influence, and, overall, greater satisfaction with their job and working conditions. In this way, we propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 3: Self-management teams increase job satisfaction.*

### **3.3.4. Self-managed Teams and Organizational Commitment**

Working in a self-management team involves shared responsibilities. Everyone participates in task design, goal setting, and team operation control (Cohen and Ledford, 1994; Lee and Edmondson, 2017). Through joint participation, new, potentially more effective, work methods are established, and well-done work is mutually recognized (Barker and Tompkins, 1994; Magpili and Pazos, 2018). The company thus delegates



responsibility and autonomy to the worker, conveying trust in them (Cooney, 2004; Yang and Guy, 2011). Empowering the worker allows them to work more freely and become a fully active player in the company (Gino and Staats, 2014; Druskat and Pescosolido, 2022).

Ultimately, the company's employee may come to understand that they are a vital part of the company, and their participation, involvement, and commitment are essential (Yang and Guy, 2011; Michael et al., 2017). This is how, in the long run, the worker may express a desire to stay with the company for a longer duration, feeling the organization's issues as their own and forming an emotional connection with it (Williams and Anderson, 1991). Moreover, when the worker has more decision-making power, autonomy, and freedom, the sense of belonging to the company is likely to increase because the work performed may be more meaningful and less alienating. All of this can ultimately reinforce the worker's interest in continuing with the company, i.e., their level of organizational commitment. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 4: Self-management teams increase organizational commitment.*

### **3.3.5. Self-management Teams and Work Exhaustion**

Working in self-management teams means that the team has full autonomy to decide how tasks are organized, how functions are distributed, how performance is evaluated, or what improvements to adopt (Banai et al., 2000; Brown et al., 2015). It is the workers who can freely design their own activities and control their own work outcomes (Druskat and Wheeler, 2004; Yang and Guy, 2011). They plan all activities and are also responsible for finding ways to optimize team functioning (Millikin et al., 2010). Therefore, workers

themselves can redesign or reconfigure their positions, functions, or tasks according to changing circumstances (Barker, 1994; Taibo, 2022).

The organization of work in self-management teams thus offers sufficient flexibility to adapt to circumstances, redistribute workloads, or find tailored solutions (Barker and Tompkins, 1994; Druskat and Wheeler, 2004; Robertson, 2015). Self-management teams aim to clarify the functions and responsibilities of each member, and everyone can participate in planning activities (Magpili and Pazos, 2018). If the worker can participate in designing their own position and improving it, it is likely that the assumed duties and responsibilities will be more proportional (Warr and Nielsen, 2018; Chung et al., 2020). As the main responsible party and connoisseur of their own work, the worker is best positioned to set limits on their work and establish a pace, obligations, and timelines that can be assumed without compromising their physical or mental health (Chiva and Guinot, 2021). Therefore, when working in self-management teams, the worker would have more control over their work, potentially having more capacity to avoid risks such as fatigue, stress, or job burnout. Based on the above, we propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 5: Self-management teams decrease work exhaustion.*

## **3.4. METHODOLOGY**

### **3.4.1. Sample and Data Collection**

The study is based on a large database covering companies in the tourism sector, mainly small and medium-sized, located in the Valencian Community, Spain. The questionnaire, designed specifically for this study, was addressed to the employees of these companies. In each selected organization, at least three employees provided answers to the

questionnaire, which allowed us to obtain a more comprehensive and representative perspective of the business reality in question.

A breakdown of the demographic composition of the employed reveals that the male gender represents 34.7%, while the female gender makes up 65.3% of the sample as a whole. In terms of educational level, there is significant diversity, with 40.5% having university degrees and 39% having completed non-compulsory secondary education. The length of service of the employees in the companies analyzed varies, showing a diverse range of work experience. A total of 31.9% of the participants have between 2 and 5 years of seniority, while 24.7% have been in their positions for between 5 and 10 years. In addition, 10.8% of respondents have been in their current position for less than one year.

The average age of the interviewees was 38 years, providing a more complete context for understanding the demographic dynamics of the sample. These data were collected through telephone interviews, a strategic choice that proved effective, especially when it was necessary to collect responses from different people within the same company or when direct contact presented logistical challenges. In total, 249 questionnaires were collected and thoroughly analyzed, thus providing a solid basis for the study and its conclusions.

Fieldwork began in late 2022, and the final data were obtained in June 2023. During data collection, the anonymity of the respondents was ensured to encourage their safety and confidence in participation and stimulate honest responses, thereby enhancing the reliability of the sample for empirical and quantitative studies. The questionnaire variables consist of a series of items measured using the 7-point Likert scale method. Each Likert scale item was answered based on the degree of agreement or disagreement; that is, a value of 1 indicates totally disagree, and a value of 7 represents a higher score equivalent to totally agree. The items for each variable are listed in Appendix A.3.

### **3.4.2. Scales**

#### **⇒ Independent Variable**

##### *Self-Managed Teams*

We measured the construct of self-managed teams using the scale developed by Rousseau and Aubé (2010). The items on the Rousseau and Aubé scale were generated from literature and measures on self-management behaviors (e.g., Diefendorf et al., 2006; Lambe et al., 2009). The scale consists of 8 items measuring self-planning, self-monitoring, self-reinforcement, and self-adjustment. The items are (a) "We plan the execution of our team's work activities," (b) "We clarify the roles and responsibilities of each team member," (c) "We congratulate our teammates when they perform well," (d) "We evaluate the effectiveness of our team's functioning," (e) "We monitor the results of our work," (f) "We recognize the contributions of our teammates," (g) "We collectively seek better ways of working," and (h) "We implement new practices to perform our teamwork." The authors confirmed the validity of the measurement scale and demonstrated its psychometric properties. Respondents provided their responses to the items on a 7-point Likert scale (degree of agreement).

#### **⇒ Dependent Variables**

##### *Work Exhaustion*

The scale used is derived from the work of Schaufeli et al. (1996). The scale consists of five items that analyze an employee's level of exhaustion in the workplace. The items defining this variable are (a) "I feel emotionally exhausted by my work," (b) "I feel exhausted at the end of the workday," (c) "I feel fatigued when I wake up in the morning and have to face another day of work," (d) "Working all day is really a strain for me," (e)

"I feel exhausted by my work." The scale used follows the conditions of a 7-point Likert scale.

#### *Organizational Trust*

We measured the organizational trust construct using the scale by Huff and Kelley (2003). This scale measures interpersonal trust (managers and subordinates) and the general level of trust in the organization. These authors confirmed the validity of the measurement scale and demonstrated its psychometric properties. It is a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 is the lowest level of trust, and 7 is the highest. The scale includes four items: (a) "There is a very high level of trust throughout the company," (b) "In my company, employees trust the managers a lot," (c) "If someone in my organization makes a promise, the rest of the colleagues trust that person will do everything possible to fulfill it," (d) "The managers in this company trust that their employees will make good decisions."

#### *OCBI (Organizational Citizenship Behavior - Individual)*

For the organizational citizenship behavior construct (OCBI), the scale by Lee and Allen (2002) was used. It is a scale consisting of eight items representing individual employee behaviors not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system. The items are (a) "I help other colleagues who have recently missed work," (b) "I voluntarily assist colleagues who have work-related problems," (c) "Adjust my schedule to cover requests for breaks from other colleagues," (d) "I strive to make newer colleagues feel welcome," (e) "Even in difficult business/personal situations, I show concern and courtesy to my colleagues," (f) "I dedicate time to help other colleagues who have work-related or non-work-related problems," (g) "I help my colleagues with their tasks," and (h) "I share my personal belongings with other colleagues in their tasks." Like the other constructs, this variable is a 7-point Likert scale.

### *Job Satisfaction*

To measure job satisfaction, the scale by Baptiste (2008) was employed. These authors defined the concept of job satisfaction based on eight items that measure the employee's satisfaction level with their job and work environment. The items are (a) "I am satisfied with the sense of accomplishment my job gives me," (b) "I am satisfied with the opportunities to use initiative," (c) "I have influence in my job," (d) "I am satisfied with my salary," (e) "I feel that my job is secure (stable)," (f) "I am satisfied with the training I have received," (g) "I am satisfied with the work I do," and (h) "My boss involves me in decision-making." The scale used is a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7 points, with 1 being the lowest level of satisfaction and 7 being the highest.

### *Organizational Commitment*

The organizational commitment variable is a construct that has been previously validated by the authors Meyer et al (1993). In this research, the scale from these authors was used, but adapted by the authors Bulut and Culha, 2010), and it is one of the most updated versions of the scale for possible studies on organizational commitment. The scale was defined based on six items (a) "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this company," (b) "I really feel as if the problems of the Organization where I work are mine," (c) "I feel like 'part of the family' in my Organization," (d) "I feel 'emotionally attached' to the Organization where I work," (e) "The Organization where I work has great meaning for me," (f) "I have a strong sense of belonging to my Organization." The scale used is a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7 points, with 1 being the lowest level of commitment and 7 being the highest."

### 3.4.3. Measurement and Reliability of Measurement Scales

The constructs were measured using scales validated by the literature and previously published. To check the reliability of the scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 195) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Barlett et al., 2017) were used (see Table 1). It is observed that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is above 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978) for all analyzed variables. Likewise, the Bartlett's test reflects the significance of the items for each variable, indicating the reliability of the variable under analysis (Cortina, 1993; López-Aguado et al., 2019). Consequently, Table 2 represents the correlation matrix, allowing a systematic and numerical display of how the variables relate to each other. Specifically, it helps identify whether there is a positive, negative, or null relationship between variables, facilitating informed decision-making and hypothesis formulation in quantitative research. As shown in Table 9, there is a positive correlation between all relationships, except for relationships focused on the variable of work exhaustion, where a negative correlation is observed.

Table 8. Chapter III. Means, standard deviation, and reliability of scales (N=249)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>Bartlett's Test</i>	<i>Cronbach's <math>\alpha</math></i>
<i>Self-Management Teams</i>	5.014	1.382	0.000	0.951
<i>Organizational Trust</i>	4.290	1.563	0.000	0.895
<i>OCBI</i>	5.711	.964	0.000	0.876
<i>Job Satisfaction</i>	4.613	1.337	0.000	0.897
<i>Organizational Commitment</i>	4.153	1.560	0.000	0.928
<i>Work Exhaustion</i>	4.351	1.624	0.531	0.915

Source: the authors

Table 9. Chapter III. Correlation Matrix

	<b>Self- Management Teams</b>	<b>Organizational Trust</b>	<b>OCBI</b>	<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	<b>Organizational Commitment</b>	<b>Work Exhaustion</b>
<b>Self- Management Teams</b>	1	.655**	.632**	.673**	.589**	-.059
<b>Organizational Trust</b>	.655**	1	.439**	.728**	.740**	-.190**
<b>OCBI</b>	.632**	.439**	1	.496**	.495**	.114
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	.673**	.728**	.496**	1	.798**	-.218**
<b>Organizational Commitment</b>	.589**	.740**	.495**	.798**	1	-.215**
<b>Work Exhaustion</b>	-.059	-.190**	.114	-.218**	-.215**	1

Source: the authors

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (bilateral).



### **3.5. RESULTS**

In the first regression, the relationship between **self-management teams and organizational trust** was investigated (Table 10). The results show a p-value of 0.000 and an R-squared of 0.429. The p-value of 0.000 indicates the extremely low probability of observing such a strong relationship between self-managed teams and organizational trust, assuming there is no real relationship in the population. This p-value suggests statistically significant evidence of a real and appropriate relationship between the two variables. Moreover, the R-squared of 0.429 indicates that the regression model used explains 42.9% of the observed variability in organizational trust. This validates that self-managed teams have a significant influence on organizational trust. Therefore, the data support that organizational trust increases as work teams become more self-managed.

In the second regression, the relationship between **self-management teams and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBI)** was examined (Table 10). The results show a p-value of 0.000 and an R-squared of 0.399. The p-value of 0.000 indicates that the probability of observing such a strong relationship between self-managed teams and OCBI, assuming no real relationship in the population, is extremely low. This suggests statistically significant evidence of a relationship between self-managed teams and OCBI. Regarding the R-squared value of 0.399, it indicates that the regression model used explains approximately 39.9% of the observed variability in OCBI. This implies that self-managed teams have a significant influence on the behavior of organization members in terms of OCBI. However, there is 60.1% of variability unexplained by the model, suggesting that other factors influencing OCBI may not have been considered in the analysis. Therefore, self-managed teams are associated with higher OCBI among organization members.

In the third regression, the relationship between **self-management teams and job satisfaction** was investigated (Table 10). The results show a p-value of 0.000 and an R-squared of 0.450. Like in the previous regressions, the p-value justifies the existence of a strong and significant relationship between the two analyzed variables. The R-squared of 0.450 indicates that the regression model used explains approximately 45% of the observed variability in job satisfaction. This implies that self-managed teams have a significant influence on job satisfaction among organization members. Therefore, the results support the hypothesis that there is a positive and significant relationship between self-managed teams and job satisfaction. Self-managed teams are associated with higher levels of job satisfaction among organization members.

In the fourth regression, the relationship between **self-management teams and organizational commitment** was also investigated (Table 10). The results show a p-value of 0.000 and an R-squared of 0.347. The p-value of 0.000 still shows empirical and significant evidence of the relationship between self-managed teams and organizational commitment. However, the R-squared value is lower compared to previous regressions; nevertheless, the R-squared of 0.347 suggests that the proposed regression model explains approximately 34.7% of the observed variability in organizational commitment. This implies that self-managed teams have a significant influence on the organizational commitment of organization members. It is essential to consider that the remaining 65.3% of variability in organizational commitment is not explained by the model and may be related to other factors not considered in the analysis.

Finally, in the fifth regression, the relationship between **self-management teams and work exhaustion** was investigated. The results show a p-value of 0.351 and an R-squared of 0.004. These values clearly demonstrate that there is no significant evidence in support of the proposed relationship. The p-value of 0.351 indicates that the probability of

observing a relationship between self-managed teams and work exhaustion, assuming no real relationship in the population, is relatively high. In other words, there is no statistically significant evidence that a relationship exists between self-managed teams and work exhaustion. Furthermore, the R-squared of 0.004 indicates that the regression model used explains only 0.4% of the observed variability in work exhaustion. This implies that self-managed teams have a very limited, almost insignificant, influence on work exhaustion. The remaining 99.6% of variability in work exhaustion is not explained by the model and may be related to other factors not considered in the analysis. However, if we analyze the correlation, a negative effect exists; in other words, self-managed teams have a negative relationship with burnout, but this negativity is not high (Table 9). The effect is limited. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a relationship, but it does not reach statistical significance.

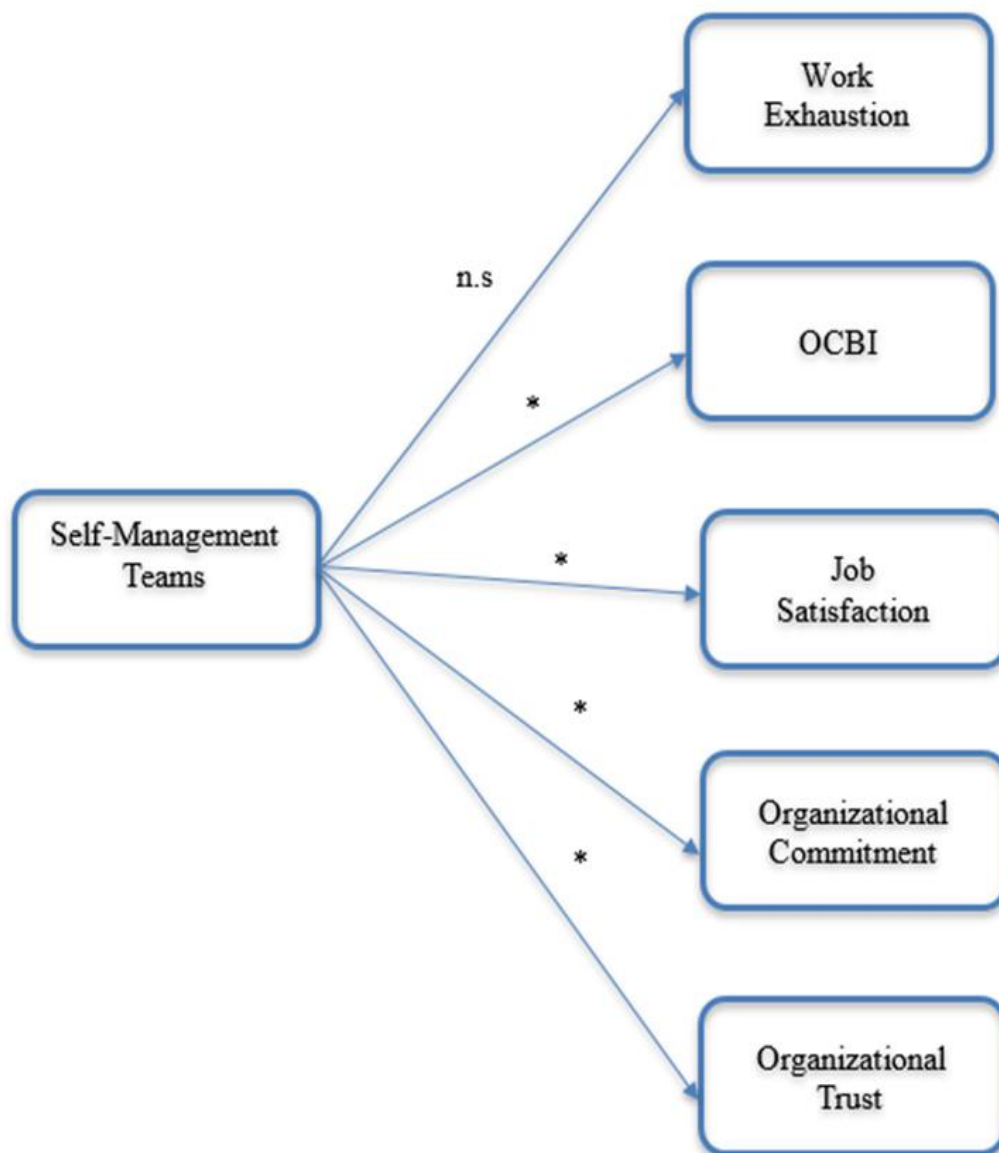
In summary, the results of the five regressions indicate the following: in the first three regressions, significant relationships were found between self-managed teams and variables such as organizational trust, OCBI, and job satisfaction, supported by low p-values and moderate R-squared values. This suggests that self-managed teams have a significant influence on these three variables. However, in the fourth regression, it is validated that there could be a significant relationship between self-managed teams and organizational commitment, but with a lower percentage.

Table 10. Chapter III. Regression results

Parameters	Model results
<i>Self-management teams</i> → <i>Organizational trust.</i>	P-valor: 0,000  R cuadrado: 0,429
<i>Self-management teams</i> → <i>OCBI</i>	P-valor: 0,000  R cuadrado: 0,399
<i>Self-management teams</i> → <i>Job satisfaction</i>	P-valor: 0,000  R cuadrado: 0,450
<i>Self-management teams</i> → <i>Organizational commitment.</i>	P-valor: 0,000  R cuadrado: 0,347
<i>Self-management teams</i> → <i>Work Exhaustion</i>	P-valor: 0,351  R cuadrado: 0,004

Source: the authors

Figure 5. Chapter III. Study model



Source: the authors

### **3.6. CONCLUSIONS**

The complexities faced by companies in the tourism sector to attract and retain talent highlight the pressing need to rethink current perspectives and practices in human resource management (Stamolampros et al., 2019; Ye et al., 2022). In this study, we addressed this challenge by exploring the impacts of implementing innovative management formulas focused on self-managed teams. The results obtained support the premise that granting full autonomy to work teams translates into a significant increase in employee engagement, satisfaction, and trust levels (Mercurio, 2015; Yahaya, 2016). Furthermore, there is increased involvement in extra-role behaviors, indicating a commitment beyond conventional job responsibilities. These findings suggest that tourism companies can significantly benefit from adopting less rigid and hierarchical structures, especially in the context of work teams. Although these structures may not be the norm in the industry, the results confirm their positive impact, presenting a strategic opportunity to attract and retain talent. By implementing these practices, companies not only optimize their operational performance but also foster extra-role behaviors that enhance overall efficiency (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008; Magpili and Pazos, 2018).

In particular, the results indicate that working in self-managed teams can be an invaluable management tool to elevate the attractiveness of tourism companies. This approach not only gives meaning to work but also strengthens employees' sense of belonging to the organization, creating a desire to stay in the long term. Additionally, it is highlighted that these self-managed teams contribute significantly to overall worker satisfaction, generating a sense of achievement and a greater appreciation for the opportunities offered by the company. The emergence of extra-role behaviors, such as supporting colleagues and interdepartmental courtesy, is magnified in self-managed environments, highlighting the positive impact on work dynamics and organizational culture. Trust, a crucial element

in any company, is reinforced through self-managed team work, creating an environment conducive to collaboration and shared decision-making. In other words, by allowing workers to perform their roles more autonomously, participate in decision-making, and find solutions independently, a healthier and more efficient work environment is forged (Mercurio, 2015; Lee and Edmondson, 2017).

In addition to the positive impacts identified regarding employee engagement, satisfaction, and trust, it is crucial to explore the relationship between self-managed teams and job burnout. Although the results do not show a clear statistical significance in this association, addressing this point is necessary, considering possible mitigating factors. The dimension of job burnout, specifically measured through work exhaustion, has been included in this study as an integral part of the employee well-being analysis. Despite not finding a significant relationship in this context, it is essential to note that job burnout is a multifaceted phenomenon encompassing various dimensions within the burnout concept. The choice to measure job burnout only through the exhaustion dimension may have limited the study's ability to fully capture the complexity of this relationship. Considering all dimensions of burnout, such as depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment, could provide a more holistic perspective on how self-managed teams influence employee psychological well-being. Additionally, other factors may be influencing the apparent lack of significance in the relationship between self-managed teams and job burnout.

In conclusion, working in self-managed teams, allowing employees to perform their work more autonomously, making decisions from shared responsibility, and enabling them to find solutions on their own, achieves the creation of a healthier and optimal work environment. This is the main conclusion of the study.

### **3.6.1. Theoretical and practical implications**

This study significantly contributes to the theoretical realm of human resource management and occupational psychology in the tourism sector. The confirmation that self-managed teams are positively associated with elevated levels of employee engagement, satisfaction, and trust reinforces existing theories on the importance of autonomy in work and shared responsibility. A new perspective is added by demonstrating that, although no significant relationship was found with job burnout, the research invites a deeper review of specific dimensions of burnout and contextual factors that could modulate this relationship.

From a practical standpoint, companies in the tourism sector can directly benefit from the findings of this study by considering the implementation of self-managed teams as a strategy to improve talent retention and attraction. The evidence that these structures promote higher employee engagement and satisfaction suggests that organizations can optimize their performance by fostering autonomy and shared decision-making. For business practice, it is recommended that companies design specific training programs to facilitate the transition to self-managed teams and address potential individual challenges or resistance to change. Creating an organizational culture that supports autonomy and promotes psychological well-being can be crucial in maximizing the identified benefits in this study.



### **3.6.2. Limitations and Future Lines of Research**

Among the limitations of the study, it is noted that the sample is cross-sectional, and it would be advisable to verify whether these results are equally likely regardless of the type of company in the sector (hotels, restaurants, or travel agencies). The results should be tested in longitudinal studies to examine if these relationships can be replicated in other types of larger samples that can more broadly confirm the results. Given the findings, it would also be interesting for future studies to continue exploring other potential effects of self-managed teams, whether on well-being, organizational behavior, or other variables related to business functioning. For example, advancing the understanding of the relationship between self-managed teams and burnout would be valuable. It is suggested to consider studies that incorporate a more comprehensive approach to burnout and examine how other contextual factors may modulate the connection between self-managed teams and job burnout. Additionally, investigating the individual perception and experience of employees in self-managed environments could shed light on possible tensions or specific challenges that may contribute to burnout.

## **CHAPTER IV**

# **Exploring the impact of self-management on well-being: the moderating role of team learning capability<sup>4</sup>**

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<sup>4</sup> This chapter has won the prize for the best paper in the area of human resources (AJICEDE congress). Full details can be found in Appendix B.



## **Exploring the impact of self-management on well-being: the moderating role of team learning capability**

### **ABSTRACT**

In today's society, marked by rapid evolution and constant change, the search for well-being and efficiency in the work environment is a fundamental priority. The management of self-managed teams is presented as an alternative model that promotes autonomy and collaborative decision making. Against this backdrop, the need arises to investigate whether this management approach positively influences the well-being. To this end, this study proposes a multilevel analysis that addresses two fundamental dimensions. First, it investigates how a work environment based on self-managed teams contributes to employees' peace of mind. Secondly, it explores how this same environment can decrease levels of burnout. As a result, this study reveals a research model that advances the understanding of creating self-managed teams and, Furthermore, it highlights the positive moderating role of team learning capacity in the relationship between self-managed teams and workplace well-being. To validate this model, a multilevel analysis was conducted on a sample of 480 cases collected from 120 companies in various industries. The findings of this research provide a more comprehensive perspective on the effects of self-management in the work environment and its implications for human resource management and team design today.

## **4.1. INTRODUCTION**

Today, we are witnessing a marked shift in the organizational structure of companies, moving away from traditional vertical hierarchies and embracing work structures that decentralize power (Druskat and Pescosolido, 2022; Pearson and Lawrence, 2010; Lee and Edmondson, 2017; Michael et al., 2017). This shift is due to a number of factors that reflect the prevailing need in today's business environment. First, this shift is in response to the growing need for organizations to adapt to a constantly changing business environment (Pearson and Lawrence, 2010). Globalization, rapid technological innovation and variability in employee and customer preferences have created an environment characterized by volatility, uncertainty and complexity (Martínez-León and Martínez-García, 2011; Laloux, 2014). In this context, rigid and hierarchical structures are inadequate to respond effectively to changing challenges (Robertson, 2015). Second, the transition to decentralized organizational structures is justified by the need to empower employees and teams. Workers desire a greater degree of autonomy and participation in decision making related to their work (Druskat and Pescosolido, 2022). Traditional hierarchical structures often limit this autonomy, which can demotivate employees and hinder innovation (Mintzberg, 1979; Robbins and Judge, 2018). In this sense, the literature recognizes that horizontal structures oriented to teamwork could be the best suited to the current scenario of continuous changes and challenges (Cohen and Bailey, 1997; Laloux, 2014; Lee and Edmonson, 2017).

These new models of organizational structure are often based on the use of self-managed teams (Druskat and Wheeler, 2004; Gino and Staats, 2014; Lee and Edmonson, 2017; Magpili and Pazos, 2018). The study of the concept of self-managed teams is of great relevance today, as they represent an innovative approach to organizational structure (Cohen and Ledford, 1997; Millikin, 2010; Yang and Guy, 2011; Michael et al., 2017) .

These teams are characterized by collaborative decision-making and resource management without a direct leader, which provides members with a high degree of autonomy and accountability (Rousseau and Aubé, 2010). This characteristic promotes agility and the ability to adapt to changes in the work environment. In addition, by giving employees greater control over their work, a sense of purpose, achievement and satisfaction, as well as higher quality interpersonal relationships in the workplace are favored (Power and Waddell, 2004; Arzola, 2018).

However, some cases of self-managed team implementation have generated adverse outcomes, such as escalation of conflict and decreased awareness of changes outside the team (Johnson et al., 2013; Wu, Wang, Bi, & Liu, 2013), suggesting mixed findings regarding the impacts of these teams. Additionally, the lack of comprehensive, evidence-based prescriptions that identify and address significant barriers to the success of self-managed teams has been noted (Wageman, Gardner, & Mortensen, 2012). Thus, research should delve deeper into the variables that influence the success of these teams (Magpili & Pazos, 2018; Doblinger, 2022).

Doblinger (2022) has identified specific competencies for self-managed teams, enhancing the findings by incorporating additional outcome variables such as performance behavior and affective and health outcomes (Mathieu et al., 2008). Similarly, Magpili and Pazos (2018) underline the importance of team members' well-being for the success of self-managed teams, highlighting the need to investigate factors that can help manage stress in these work contexts. Therefore, it is relevant to analyze the relationship between self-managed teams and well-being in the general framework of the implementation of these teams, recognizing the challenges and opportunities inherent to this innovative approach in the organizational structure.

Organizations that operate with self-management teams are usually embedded in a cultural context that is conducive to learning. Unlike bureaucratic and hierarchical organizations, these types of organizations share a culture in which mistakes are accepted, new processes are experimented with, and change is encouraged (Wu et al., 2013; Michael, 2017; ). Thus, among the cultural characteristics of these companies is change orientation, promoting in a context that is ultimately conducive to organizational learning (Alegre and Chiva, 2013; Chen and Tai, 2023). The operation in self-management teams seems to be, therefore, a factor that accompanies the organizational learning process. Thus, teams would be boosting their learning capacity when they are organized as self-management teams.

According to the conventional literature on organizational learning, the importance of team learning capability is highlighted as a crucial link between individual learning and learning within an organization (Yang and Chen, 2005; Chen and Tai, 2023). In fact, it is considered as the basic building block of organizational learning (Senge, 1990). This perspective justifies the use of team learning capability as a moderating variable in self-management teams, as it plays an essential role in team dynamics. This capability not only helps the team to overcome challenges, but also relates to greater work well-being for its members by making them feel more effective, committed and satisfied in their work, which reinforces the importance of fostering a healthy and productive work environment (Cohen and Ledford, 1994; Druskat and Wheeler, 2004; Millikin et al., 2010). From a broader perspective, team-based learning not only helps foster more efficient communication, participation, and problem solving, but also creates an environment in which employees feel supported and can approach work challenges with greater confidence. As a result, feelings of stress and a perceived lack of control over tasks are reduced, which directly contributes to employee well-being.

Based on the arguments explained above, our objective is to develop a research study that aims to discover whether an alternative management model based on self-managed teams influences workers' well-being. To this end, a multilevel study has been proposed that encompasses two models. On the one hand, we analyze how a work environment based on self-managed teams favors the peace of mind of all work members and, on the other hand, we reveal how this same environment reduces stress or burnout. Our literature review reveals little attention to these concepts, despite proposals indicating their positive effects for good organizational functioning (Warr and Nielsen, 2018; Schaufali and Salanova, 2014). Consequently, we propose a research model that takes the management literature one step further by revealing how self-managed teams influence workers' well-being. As well as, we reveal how the team learning capability variable moderates positively on the relationship between self-managed teams and worker well-being To validate the proposed model, we conducted a multilevel analysis of a sample of 480 cases collecting data from 120 companies from different industries.

The study consists of a theoretical review of the central concepts of the model. In addition, the four hypotheses will be presented in order to validate them, followed by a general discussion of the results obtained and, finally, conclusions, limitations and suggestions for future research will be presented.



## **4.2.THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **4.2.1. Self Management Teams**

Self-management teams, recognized for their ability to function without direct supervision, have gained popularity as a preferred management practice in contemporary organizations (Wageman, 1997). Barker and Tompkins (1994) along with Michael et al. (2017) suggest that these teams thrive in environments with interdependent tasks, complex processes, and a constant need for adaptation. Effective coordination, adaptability, shared responsibility, and agile decision-making emerge as key characteristics that influence the effectiveness of self-directed teams (Druskat and Pescosolido, 2002; Yang and Guy, 2011). Their ability to adjust strategies quickly and operate with less bureaucracy enables agile decision making and facilitates the implementation of changes, easing the workload (Millikin et al., 2010; Magpili and Pazos, 2018).

Authors such as Langfred (2007) and Ruotsalainen et al. (2023) argue that self-management teams go beyond simply increasing productivity, having a positive impact on employees' personal well-being. The autonomy and responsibility granted to the members of these teams foster not only a sense of purpose and achievement, but also stronger interpersonal relationships in the work environment (Power and Waddell, 2004; Arzola, 2018). The literature highlights that personal well-being becomes a fundamental pillar for the success and sustainable effectiveness of self-management teams, thus placing emotional and relational health at the center of the management of these innovative work ensembles (Magpili and Pazos, 2018). Moreover, the ability of self-managed teams to foster skill development and knowledge sharing highlights their inherent autonomy. According to Doblinger (2022), such teams highlight the importance of specific competencies, enriching the learning experience at the personal and group

level. Decentralization in decision making not only promotes collaborative problem solving, but also enables constant adaptation to new conditions, making self-managed teams pillars of learning, as noted by Stewart (2006) and Magpili and Pazos (2018).

#### **4.2.2. Team (Organizational) Learning Capability**

The concept of organizational learning capability refers to the organizational and managerial characteristics that facilitate organizational learning (Goh and Richard, 1997; Chiva and Alegre, 2009). Organizational learning capability is considered as a multidimensional concept, i.e. it is characterized by essential dimensions that seem to explain the propensity of an organization to learn (Alegre and Chiva, 2007). Chiva and Alegre (2009) identified the following dimensions of OLC: experimentation, risk acceptance, interaction with the environment, dialogue and participatory decision making. These five dimensions facilitate the process of organizational learning in a given company.

Experimentation can be defined as the degree to which new ideas and suggestions are empathetically attended to and stipulated (Nevis et al., 1995; Pedler et al., 1997; Chiva and Alegre, 2013). According to Nevis et al, (1995) experimentation leads to curiosity, to try new ideas, to make changes in work management, and involves the constant search for innovative solutions to problems.

Risk taking implies tolerance for ambiguity, uncertainty and mistakes. Kouzes and Posner (1987) consider that learning from successes and mistakes that derive from risk taking leads to the opening of new business opportunities. In the same vein, Sitkin (1996) points out that failure or error is an essential requirement for effective organizational learning.

The dimension of interaction with the external environment is defined as the degree of existing relationships with the external environment. The external environment is

understood as those factors that are beyond the direct control of the organization (Chiva and Alegro, 2008). For example, effects of the economic, political/legal system, competitors, among others.

Dialogue is an essential dimension of the organizational learning process (Oswick et al., 2000). Authors such as Brown and Duguid (1992) emphasize that dialogue generates both individual and organizational learning, since it allows the hidden meanings of words to be seen and leads to a common understanding. Oswick et al. (2000) assert that dialogue fosters organizational learning because it is a phenomenon that creates a community based on the interaction and communication of individuals.

Finally, these authors suggest the need for organizations with a democratic and participatory system. Participation is understood as the level of influence that employees have in the decision-making process. Moreover, as stated by some authors (e.g. Scott-Land and Chan, 2004) participatory decision making improves access to information, improves the quality of information and the ownership of decision outcomes. Therefore, participatory decision making is defined as one of the enablers of organizational learning.

Taken together, these dimensions of organizational learning capability help a firm adapt to a constantly changing business environment and improve its performance over time (Alegre and Chiva, 2013; Camps and Luna-Arocas, 2012). Organizations that cultivate these dimensions are more likely to learn from their experiences, to be more innovative and to be more effective problem solvers (Tippins and Sohi, 2003; Goh, 2003; Camps et al., 2016) .

Particularly, our research focuses on the phenomenon of organizational learning capability at the team level. Specifically, we will address team learning capability, which refers to the ability of a group of individuals working together to learn, adapt, and improve

in response to the challenges and opportunities they face (Coh, 2003). This approach involves analyzing how teams, as units of the organization, develop and apply key dimensions of organizational learning capability, such as experimentation, risk acceptance, interaction with the environment, dialogue, and participatory decision making, to optimize their functioning and achieve their goals effectively and collaboratively. By understanding how teams can improve their ability to learn, we can provide valuable insights into how teams can become more agile and efficient in an ever-changing business environment and foster their learning.

#### **4.2.3. well-being**

In recent years, the concept of wellbeing has been defined as the state of satisfaction and tranquility of an individual thanks to his or her good physical, mental and emotional conditions. Authors such as Warr and Nielsen (2018) suggest that wellbeing is achieved when the individual is satisfied in his or her job. And this is the result of a pleasant work environment and recognition, which has an impact on family and social well-being .

Well-being at work requires a balance between physical well-being and emotional or mental well-being (Jackson and Maslach, 1982; Forgeard et al., 2011; Maslach, 2006). Physical well-being is understood as the creation of plans and activities that promote the safety and health of employees (Forgeard et al., 2011; Lamers, 2012). In parallel, emotional well-being consists, on the one hand, of reducing stress or burnout and anxiety. And on the other hand, to increase tranquility, peace of mind, self-esteem and self-acceptance (Salanova et al., 2014). Therefore, to achieve well-being requires a healthy work environment that is characterized by continuous improvement in promoting and protecting the health, safety and well-being of workers.

Based on the circumplex model of well-being (Keyes, 2000), it is revealed that a high level of pleasure and low level of activation drives to achieve satisfaction, tranquility, serenity, relaxation and calmness. Which, could be associated with individuals' peace of mind (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011; Warr and Nielsen, 2018). However, a low level of pleasure and low level of arousal leads to a state of burnout (Russell, 1980; Warr and Nielsen, 2018). Key factors that drive the individual to a state of burnout include fatigue, stress, boredom, among others. Therefore, the work environment and workplace conditions play a paramount role in the well-being of individuals. In this study, we will analyze the consequences of burnout and peace of mind to achieve well-being.

#### **4.2.3.1 Burnout**

The concept of burnout appeared in the 1970s by the author freudenberguer (1740) to explain the process of mental and physical deterioration of professionals in the workplace. Since then, the concept of burnout has been defined as a psychological response to chronic work stress, of an emotional nature, which appears in the members of organizations, where the response is characterized by a cognitive deterioration consisting of a loss of the illusion of work, professional disenchantment or low personal fulfillment at work. It is also defined as an affective deterioration characterized by emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Emotional exhaustion is explained as the affective level in which the worker feels that he/she cannot give more of him/herself. That is, it is a situation of depletion of energy or one's own resources that limit him/her to remain productive in his/her job (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2016). With respect to depersonalization or dehumanization, it is defined as the development of negative and cynical feelings and attitudes towards coworkers ( Gil-Monte, 2007; Bakker and Oerlemans, 2016).

On the other hand, the literature reveals that the main cause of burnout lies in the work environment and company policies. Among the reasons highlighted a negative work climate, extended working hours, lack of autonomy, lack of communication between employees and senior management, low pay, lack of rewards, among others (Alvarez, 2011; Schaufali and Salanova, 2014). These causes of burnout awaken in the employee depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, feeling of failure, lack of concentration and low performance (Laschinger at al., 2003; Hatch et al., 2011; Maslach, 2011).

The burnout concept has been approached from two key perspectives: *the demands-control effect* and *the effort-reward effect*. The former refers to situations in which work demands exceed the individual's capacity for control, leading to burnout. On the other hand, the effort-reward effect focuses on the imbalance between the effort invested at work and the rewards, both monetary and non-monetary, received by the employee. In summary, burnout arises when workers face overwhelming burdens and demands without obtaining adequate compensation.

Burnout is characterized by three key dimensions: the exhaustion dimension, the cynicism dimension and the inefficiency dimension (Maslach, 2006; Lee and Ashaforth, 1990). The **depletion dimension** is the core component of burnout. It refers to individual stress that leads to feelings of weakness, emptiness and no source of energy (Lee et al., 2011). Also, the lack of strength to continue at work and face another day or another problem (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Regarding the **cynicism dimension**, it represents the interpersonal context component of burnout (Maslach, 2006). It usually appears once the first dimension is reached, i.e., the excess of emotional exhaustion. This dimension is defined as negative and insensitive responses to various aspects of work. For example, individuals with cynicism reduce effort, performance and the amount of hours and energy they put into their work. Finally, the **inefficiency dimension** represents the self-

evaluation component of burnout. In this dimension, the individual feels incompetent, lacks achievement, success and productivity at work (Lee and Ashforth, 1990).

#### **4.2.3.2. Peace of mind**

The concept of peace of mind is defined as the level of inner peace and harmony experienced by an individual (Tsai et al. 2006). This phenomenon was defined with words related to the LAP circumplex model of emotions, such as peaceful, serene, calm, comfortable, harmonious and balanced (Tsai, 2006; Lee et al., 2013). Likewise, Lee et al. (2013) revealed that those people who reach an internal state of tranquility and harmony tend to be more confident in themselves, their decisions, challenges and goals. As well as, they tend to face problems in a positive way based on the search for effective solutions (Watson and Tellegen 1985; Carson and Langer, 2006). On the other hand, peace of mind allows the individual to live in the present and reach a spiritual, mental, emotional and physical harmony that leads to greater awareness, attention and critical thinking (Lee et al., 2013). Also, Kant (1795) suggests that peace of mind gives rise to a series of emotions related to people, such as empathy, the pursuit of well-being, love and temperance (1795).

At the organizational level, the construct peace of mind has been related to organizational well-being (Chiva and Guinot, 2021), specifically, to more conscious, humane and sustainable organizations (Lee et al., 2013; Sophie et al., 2022). It is an internal state of peace that affects both the individual's mind and his or her environment (Chiva and Guinot, 2021). That is, the peace of mind of the members of the organization is reflected in the work climate and in the results. Among the benefits of peace of mind, the following stand out: first, it increases productivity because peace of mind further develops concentration (Sharifzadeh and Almaraz, 2014). Second, it promotes mental clarity for better decision making (Lee et al., 2013). Third, it fosters relationships and connection among workers (Chiva and Guinot, 2021). Fourth, it reduces stress, burnout and tension

(Weigelt et al., 2019). Finally, it fosters positive emotions and reduces conflicts and negative emotions (Weigelt et al., 2019).

### **4.3.HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT**

Figure 6 illustrates our research model. Specifically, it reveals a multilevel study (team level/individual level) that analyses how self-management team enhances work well-being through the reduction of burnout and the improvement of Peace of mind. Furthermore, this relationship can be better understood by considering the learning capacity of the team as a moderating variable. The model posits four hypotheses, which will be discussed below.

#### **4.3.1. Hypothesis 1.a: Self - Managed Team and Burnout**

Self-managed teams operate in a shared responsibility regime in which their members share a high level of autonomy (Lee et al., 2017). Decisions are made by consensus, looking out for the interest of all members and seeking mutually beneficial solutions (Robertson, 2015). Agreements are made following processes of dialogue, discussion of ideas and exchange of knowledge (Laloux, 2014). Discrepancies, diversity of opinions and individual differences are accepted. There is no authority that imposes its vision or conditions the will of the team members (Yang and Guy, 2011). Nor are individual reward and punishment systems imposed, but all responsibility for results is shared (Banai et al., 2000). Members also have a high level of freedom to express themselves, redesign work methods or manage work times. Each team member must take responsibility for his or her own work, while knowing how to coordinate with the other members (Robertson, 2015). In self-managed teams, the design of objectives, the distribution of roles and responsibilities, the evaluation of results or the recognition of work are tasks that are



assumed entirely by the members who are part of the team. They also have freedom of action to propose and implement new work practices (Milikin et al., 2010; Micheal et al., 2017).

This literature suggests that the lack of task delegation, the absence of autonomy in decision-making or the lack of recognition are aspects that negatively affect worker satisfaction (Warr and Nielsen, 2018; Chung et al., 2020). In particular, it is found that when the worker is subjected to an excessively hierarchical, rigid and monotonous work system his morale may eventually succumb. Moreover, in such a work context, workers are more likely to perceive their work as uninspiring, meaningless and excessively boring. Not surprisingly, new human resource management models have moved away from this management paradigm to one in which the employee can take on more responsibility and enjoy greater autonomy. The results of research on these new management approaches confirm that by ceding responsibility to the employee and following a more horizontal hierarchical operation, not only better performance results are achieved, but also better job satisfaction (Laloux, 2014; Cheng, 2016; Chiva and Guinot, 2021). Thus, while hierarchical, rigid control and disciplinary structures undermine the will, trust and worth of individuals, more democratic, participative and horizontal structures result in a source of satisfaction (Finlay et al., 1995; Nelson and Quick, 2011).

In an environment in which the employee is distrusted, avoiding giving him freedom of action or assuming responsibilities, it is likely that this will end up undermining his self-confidence. In addition, if the employee does not see the job as his or her own because he or she cannot make decisions that affect it, a sense of depersonalization may be awakened in him or her. Emotional exhaustion is also more likely to occur when the worker loses the ability to act on what influences his daily work (Bakker and Oerlemons, 2016). In

contrast, the possibility of directly influencing the design of objectives, the way tasks are executed or the implementation of new initiatives can end up being a positive stimulus for the worker (Warr and Nielsen, 2018). Likewise, more participative ways of working also serve to arouse feelings of greater self-efficacy and usefulness for the task one is doing (Maslach, 2011; Lee et al., 2011). Consequently, when working in self-managed teams it is likely to mitigate the perception of ineffectiveness and uselessness in the worker, awakening in him/her a greater interest and enthusiasm for his/her work, and also reducing his/her feeling of emotional exhaustion. Accordingly, we propose the following hypothesis:

*H1a: Self-Managed Team is negatively related to Burnout.*

#### **4.3.2. Hypothesis 1.b: Self-Managed Team and Peace of Mind**

As noted in the previous hypothesis, functioning in self-managed teams could have an impact on workers' mental health or emotional well-being. An abundant number of studies have tried to explore the question of what working conditions positively or negatively impact on work well-being (Russell, 1989; Warr and Nielsen, 2018) . Among these studies, one of the issues that appears as an element that has an impact on workers' well-being is the functioning of work teams (Lee and Edmondson, 2017; Kim et al., 2022). The way in which teams are led, their structure, the level of camaraderie, the determined use of rewards or fairness in decision-making are, among other issues, elements that have been linked to well-being within the company ( Maslach, 2011; Robertson, 2015).

This teamwork formula therefore entails higher levels of responsibility but also freedom. The worker can freely decide many issues about his own work, without being subjected to continuous discipline and surveillance, while working interdependently with the other

members with a common goal (Lee and Edmonson, 2017). Therefore, this way of working combines individual freedom with collective commitment. The worker will benefit not only by being able to deploy himself at work with full autonomy, but will also find himself working for a common project (Michael et., 2017). He will therefore be able to feel more self-fulfilled and satisfied by enjoying high levels of autonomy, and also find the protection of the team. If there is greater autonomy for the worker, shared responsibility among members and a work climate of cooperation and mutual recognition it is likely that this will result in the worker experiencing higher levels of harmony, tranquility, stability and satisfaction with himself. Previous studies begin to point in this direction, noting that organizational models and cultures based on horizontal structures lead to more positive emotions and mental states (Warr and Nielsen, 2018; Chiva and Guinot, 2021). Along these lines, the hypothesis put forward here is that working in self-managed teams would lead to a work climate conducive to raising employee peace of mind.

*H1b: Self-Managed Team is positively related to Peace of Mind.*

#### **4.3.3. Hypothesis 2.a: The moderating role of Team Learning Capabilities between Self-Managed Team and Burnout.**

In addition to exploring the direct effects of the relationship between SMT and Burnout, the introduction of facilitating variables would help us to explain this relationship in more depth. Thus, some variables could help us to explain this effect and to understand specific processes that condition the effect of SMT on burnout. Specifically, to try to offer a more complete explanation of this effect, we propose to introduce a variable that could moderate the relationship proposed in H1.a. To this end, following the same line of argument that we proposed in the previous hypothesis, we will again introduce the TLC variable on this second starting hypothesis.

As explained, working in self-managed teams grants full autonomy to workers to be able to make decisions in many parcels of their work at the team level (Lee and Edmondson, 2017). This involves from the roles assumed, the way to achieve objectives or the way to measure performance (Ciborra, 1996; Adler, 2001) . This form of teamwork also implies that workers will know how to recognize the work of teammates and congratulate each other for a job well done (Robertson, 2015). In addition, they will be able to collectively find new ways to come up with better solutions and deal with problems. In order to function in this way, it is therefore necessary that there is open and frequent communication between all team members (Edmondson, 2002; Michael., 2017). In addition, peer recognition of a job well done will strengthen relationships and mutual commitment. On the other hand, in these teams, problems are solved as a group and are set up so that one can continuously experiment and propose ideas to others (Lee and Edmondson, 2017). Likewise, the form of task coordination is through mutual adaptation. That is, direct observation is used in order to coordinate (Davis et al., 2009). They are teams that are also committed to continuous improvement (Edmondson, 2002).

Organizations that operate with self-managed teams are ordered through work teams. That is, work teams are the axis around which the functioning of the organization revolves (Robertson, 2015; Magpili and Pazos, 2018). Therefore, information flows fluctuate horizontally, making communication more open. This also causes workers to have a high capacity to intervene in decision making since it is mainly team members and not top management who make most decisions. As this power is delegated, people will have to be willing to take more risks and launch new ideas. This organizational and teamwork scheme in which there is mutual support and collaborative spirit would help workers receive greater support when they submit proposals (Robertson, 2015). In addition, by

the very idiosyncrasy of these teams, being part of a self-managed team would also invite workers to seek on their own for information needed for their work (e.g., from customers, suppliers, competitors, etc.), thus promoting interaction with other groups outside the company.

Based on the above, it could be suggested that self-managed teams could facilitate the dimensions of organizational learning capacity. That is, working in these teams could encourage experimentation, risk acceptance, interaction with the external environment, dialogue and participative decision making. In turn, organizational learning capacity could reduce burnout. For example, when one receives the support of one's teammates in making decisions and feels that one can count on their support in solving problems, emotional burnout may take longer to appear. In turn, when the worker is invited to take risks, experiment with new processes and participate in important decisions this can increase their perception of worth and give greater meaning to their work (Camps et al., 2016; Cheng and Chien, 2016). On the other hand, the perceived usefulness of the job could also be elevated if the worker is recognized as an integral part of the team and the organization (Michael et al., 2017), which goes hand in hand with TLC. Likewise, if the worker can gather information from and interact with his environment and know and handle sufficient information this may result in a higher perception of efficacy (Alegre and Chiva, 2013; Cheng and Chien, 2016). In addition, this perception of efficacy may also be contributed to by being granted high autonomy in decision making. Being able to be involved in decision making and having their opinions taken into account could be key for the worker to make a better assessment of their professional work and self-efficacy (Camps et al., 2016; Altinay et al., 2016). In short, the practices or behaviors that are accompanied by TLC could be reducing emotional exhaustion and loss of interest and

enthusiasm for work while increasing the worker's perception of usefulness, value and efficacy. In other words, TLC would reduce the experience of burnout.

Taking into account the above premises, we propose that the negative effect between SMT and burnout could be conditioned by TLC. Specifically, SMT would positively affect FTA and this would produce a negative effect on burnout. Therefore, TLC could moderate the relationship between SMT and burnout. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

*H2a: Team Learning Capabilities negatively moderates the relationship between Self-Managed Team and Burnout.*

#### **4.3.4. Hypothesis 2.b: The moderating role of Team Learning Capability between Self-Managed Team and Peace of Mind.**

As in the previous hypothesis, the introduction of explanatory variables could shed light on the positive effect initially proposed between SMT and peace of mind. To this end, following the same line of argument that we proposed in the previous hypothesis, we will reintroduce the TLC variable into this second starting hypothesis.

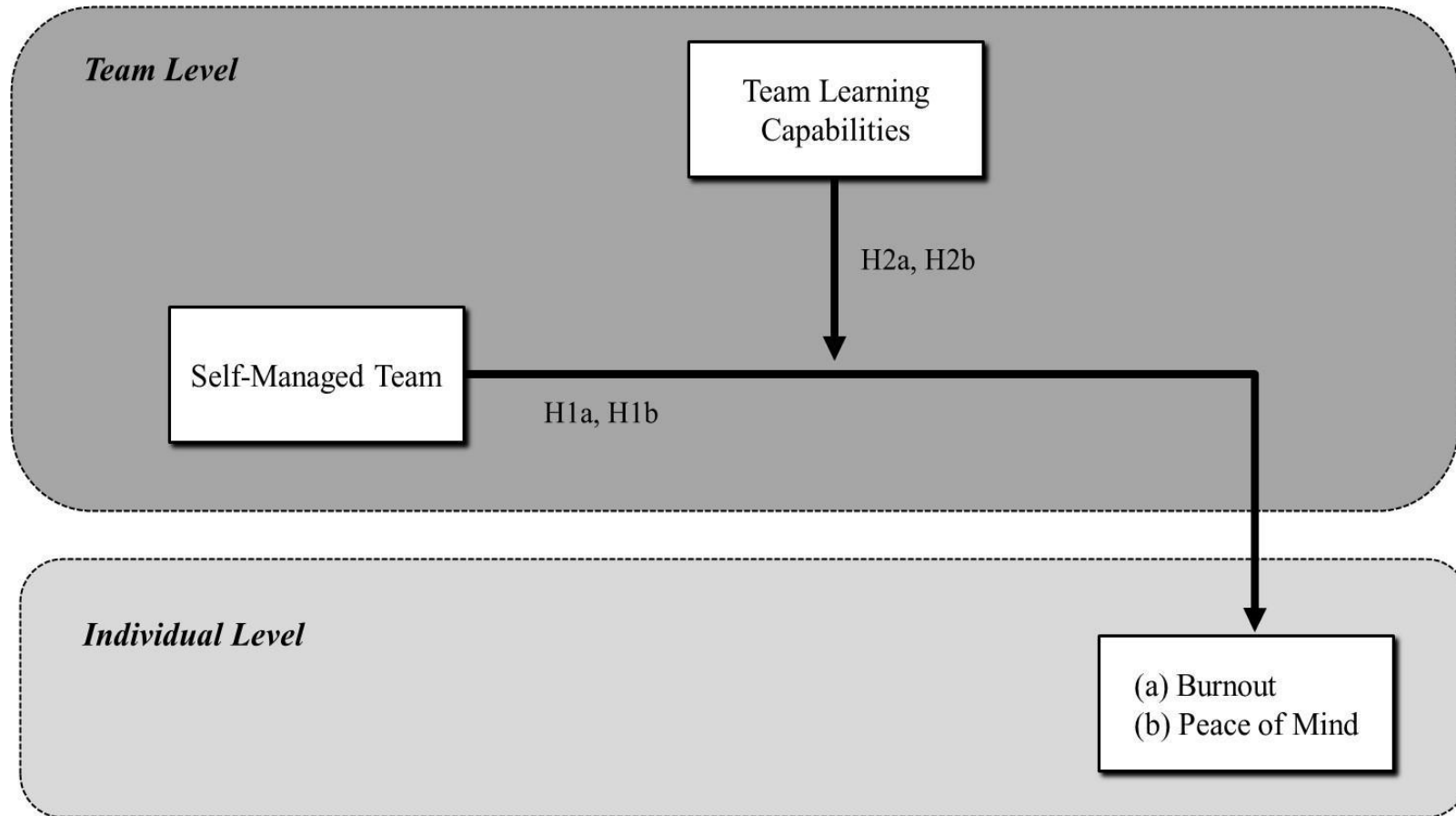
The idea is put forward that self-managed teams have the potential and capacity to learn within an organization. Consequently, this improved organizational learning capacity could have a positive impact on the emotional well-being of employees, particularly in terms of peace of mind. For example, by feeling involved in decision making and being able to talk freely and work in an atmosphere of mutual acceptance, employees are likely to experience higher levels of harmony and satisfaction (Maslach y Jackson, 2013; Robertson, 2015). Likewise, frequent communication and being part of a collective or team, which is characteristic of team organizational learning, can help the worker feel

less restlessness and greater stability (Chiva et al., 2007; Camps et al., 2016). On the other hand, receiving the support of other colleagues when expressing ideas or proposing initiatives can lead to more serene and relaxed moods (Hume, 2012). In short, team organizational learning would be able to produce feelings of greater peace and stability in the worker, making the worker feel satisfied with him/herself and feeling in harmony and calm. Thus, by promoting team organizational learning, the employee's peace of mind would be favored.

In summary, as proposed here, self-managed teams would increase team organizational learning, and in turn, the latter could have a positive impact on peace of mind. Therefore, the positive effect between self-managed teams and peace of mind could be strengthened by team organizational learning. Thus, we put forward the following hypothesis:

*H2b: Team Learning Capabilities positively moderates the relationship between Self-Managed Team and Peace of Mind.*

Figure 6. Chapter IV. Study hypotheses



Resource: the authors



## **4.4.METHODOLOGY**

### **4.4.1.Sample and data collection**

The study is based on a database that includes a list of small and medium-sized companies (from 10 to 249 employees) with at least five years' experience in various sectors such as tourism, biotechnology, culture and tiles. Specifically, data was collected from a total of 120 national and international companies, but all of them located in Spain. This database was drawn from a population of 3,000 companies. In each company, four team members responded to the questionnaire, one of whom was classified and chosen by the team members as the informant or team leader. This member answered a questionnaire focused on the team and organizational level. For example, the variable self management team and team learning capability. The rest of the team members (3 members) were asked another questionnaire with questions focused on the individual level. Therefore, the database collects responses based on three levels, individual level, team level and organizational level. In this research we propose a model focused on two levels, individual level and team level. To carry out the selection of variables and to propose the multilevel study, it was carried out under the criteria and previous literature such as Klein and Kozlowsk, 2000; Peccei and Van de Voorde, 2019).

Telephone interviews were used to complete the survey, since this technique is useful when the questions are asked by different people in the same company or when it is difficult to contact them. In the end, a total of 480 questionnaires were collected. Regarding the sociodemographic data, the average age of the respondents was 40 years. Of the employees surveyed, 54.4% are men and 45.6% are women. It can be seen that the difference is not very high. Moreover, most of the respondents have a university degree (44.4%) and a Master's degree (39.7%). The average length of service of the respondents in the company is 5 years.

Fieldwork began in 2020 and the final database was obtained in 2022. In addition, anonymity of the respondents was guaranteed at all stages to encourage their safety and confidence in participating and to stimulate honest responses, thus improving the reliability of the sample for empirical and quantitative studies. The questionnaire variables consist of a series of items that were measured using the 7-point Likert scale method. Each Likert scale item was answered based on the degree of agreement or disagreement, i.e., a value of 1 indicates a very low degree of agreement with the statement and a value of 7 corresponds to a very high degree.

#### **4.4.2. Measures and reliability of measurement scales**

The measures of the constructs are based on scales validated by the literature and previously published. To test the reliability of the scale, in addition to Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951), three indicators were used: composite reliability (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) and average variance extracted (Alegre and Chiva, 2008) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Barlett et al., 2017) . Both the values of Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978; Greco et al., 2018). In addition, the mean variance extracted shows values above the recommended minimum of 0.5 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black 1998; Nunnally, 1978).

#### **⇒ Independent Variable**

##### *Self Management Teams*

We measured the construct of self-management teams or self managing teams using the Rousseau and Aubé (2010) scale. The items of the Rousseau and Aubé scale were generated from literature and measures of self-management behaviors (e.g., Diefendorff

et al., 2006; Lambe et al., 2009). The scale consists of 8 items measuring self-planning, self-monitoring, self-reinforcement, and self-adjustment. The items are (a) "We plan the accomplishment of our work activities," (b) "We clarify the roles and the responsibilities of each member," (c) "We assess the effectiveness of our team functioning," (d) "We monitor the results of our work," (e) "We congratulate our team mates when they do well," (f) "We recognize the contributions of our team mates," (g) "We search for better ways of working," and (h) "We put into place new practices to do our work." The authors confirmed the validity of the measurement scale and demonstrated its psychometric properties. Respondents gave their responses to the items on a 7-point likert scale (degree of agreement). (Appendix A.4)

The items of the Rousseau and Aubé scale demonstrate complete reliability ( $\alpha > 0.70$ ; Bartlett Test  $< .001$ ; Composite reliability  $(0.70 < 0.847 < 1)$ ; Variance extracted  $(0.50 < 0.685 < 1)$ ).

### ⇒ **Dependent Variables**

#### *Burnout*

The burnout variable was analyzed at the individual level, i.e., a list of items was given to employees to express how they feel in their job. For this purpose, we used the scale derived from the work of Schaufeli et al. (1996). The items that were posed were grouped into 3 subscales: the exhaustion subscale (AG) is made up of 5 items (e.g., "I am emotionally exhausted by my job", "I am "burned out" at the end of a work day"). The cynicism subscale (Ci) also comprises 5 items (e.g., "I have lost interest in my job since I started in this position", "I have lost enthusiasm for my job"). The professional efficacy subscale comprises 6 items (e.g., "In my opinion I am good at my job", "I have achieved many valuable things in this job"). High scores on burnout and cynicism and low scores

on professional efficiency define the variable burnout. Therefore, the burnout construct consists of 16 items. However, there are works by the authors Salanova et al (2000) that reduce the scale to 15 items (Appendix 4). In our analysis we will use the scale with 15 items. The scale used is a Likert-type scale of 1 to 7 points, with 1 being the lowest level and 7 the highest. (Appendix A.4 )

The reliability of the scale is validated where the cronbach's alpha exceeds the value recommended by the literature 0.70 and the bartlett's test is  $<.001$ . Likewise, the composite reliability and the mean variance extracted are above the minimum accepted value (Composite reliability:  $0.70 < 0.831 < 1$ ; Variance extracted:  $0.50 < 0.779 < 1$ ).

#### *Peace of Mind*

The peace of mind variable is a construct that is studied at the individual level. The fundamental interest was to analyze this phenomenon at the level of employees, for this reason, the peace of mind scale was raised in the questionnaire addressed to employees. To do so, we measured the peace of mind construct using the scale of Lee, Lin, Huang and Fredrickson (2012). The scale compiles a list of emotional words related to peace and harmony of the individual. For item generation the authors relied on the LAP circumplex model of emotions (Russell 1980; Tsai et al. 2006), including words such as peaceful, serene, calm, tranquil, harmonious, and balanced. This list of words defined the items of the peace of mind construct. Each item was designed to capture inner peace along with inner harmony, a total of 7 items were drafted to reflect the experiences of inner peace and harmony. The items are (a) "My mind is free and at ease", (b) " I feel content and comfortable with myself in daily life", (c) "My lifestyle gives me feelings of peace and stability", (d) " I have peace and harmony in my mind", (e) " It is difficult for me to feel settled (Reverse)", (f) "The way I live brings me feelings of peace and comfort", (g)

"I feel anxious and uneasy in my mind (Reverse) ". Respondents gave their responses to the items on a 7-point likert scale (degree of agreement). (Appendix A.4)

Peace of mind is a construct that has been previously validated by the authors Lee et al. (2012). All items demonstrate consistency and reliability to be able to develop the proposed study (( $\alpha >0.70$ ; Bartlett Test $<.001$ ; Composite reliability ( $0.70 < 0.883 < 1$ ); Variance extracted ( $0.50 < 0.764 < 1$ )).

⇒ **Moderating Variable**

*Team Learning Capability*

To measure the team learning capability variable, the organizational learning capability scale of the authors Chiva, Alegre and Lapiedra (2007) was used. These authors defined the concept of learning capability based on three perspectives: the social perspective (e.g., Brown and Duguid 1991; Weick and Westley 1996), the individual perspective (e.g., Hedberg 1981; Popper and Lipshitz 2000) and the organizational or team perspective (e.g., Pedler et al. 1997; Ulrich et al. 1993). The individual perspective considers learning as an individual phenomenon and, consequently, understands that organizations learn through individuals (Chiva and Alegre 2008; Simmons 1991). The social perspective considers learning as a social phenomenon and, therefore, understands that organizations learn through communities and groups (Brown and Duguid 1991; Chiva and Alegre 2008). The learning organization focuses mainly on the development of normative models for the creation of a learning organization (Alegre and Chiva 2008; Ulrich et al. 1993). This literature (Goh and Richards 1997; Pedler et al. 1997) describes a set of actions that ensure learning capability: effective generation of ideas through the implementation of a set of practices such as experimentation, continuous improvement, teamwork and group problem solving, observation of what others do or participatory decision making. Based

on this literature, the authors Chiva, Alegre and Lapiedra (2007) defined a final scale on learning capability that can be focused at the organizational level or at the level of work teams. This scale consisted of five dimensions and a total of 14 items. These dimensions are experimentation, risk-taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue and participation (Chiva and Alegre 2009). The scale used is a Likert-type scale from 1 to 7 points, with 1 being the lowest level of confidence and 7 the highest. In this research we are going to analyze the concept of learning capacity at the team level (TLC). Some items of the scale are: (a) "People are supported when they present new ideas", (b) "There is open communication in work groups", (c) "Teamwork between people from different teams is a common practice", (d) "We have systems and procedures to receive, collate and share information from outside the company/organization", (e) "People feel involved in major decisions". (Appendix A.4)

The validity and reliability of the TLC scale are confirmed by the following indicators ( $\alpha > 0.70$ ; Bartlett Test  $< .001$ ; Composite reliability  $(0.70 < 0.778 < 1)$ ; Variance extracted  $(0.50 < 0.784 < 1)$ ).

⇒ ***Control variables***

To account for the heterogeneity of the sample, age and gender were controlled for. The aforementioned control variables were chosen because they have been shown to be associated with occupational well-being (Van der Hulst 2003; Warr, 1992). Specifically, they have been considered as predictor variables for burnout (Huhtala et al., 2015) and peace of mind (Lee et al., 2012).

## **4.5. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

### **4.5.1. Analyses**

Traditional approaches to cross-level modeling in organizational science have been to disaggregate data by assigning group-level variables to individuals, or to aggregate individual data to the group level. Each of these options has potential empirical and conceptual weaknesses. Disaggregation provides biased estimates of standard errors; group-level aggregation weakens statistical power, discounts significant individual-level variance, and perhaps leads to inappropriate inferences (Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992; Hofmann, 1997).

We use version 8.1 of the Hierarchical Linear Model (HLM) with Restricted Maximum Likelihood to test these hypotheses because it is an appropriate approach for testing cross-level models. HLM allows an analyst to explicitly model both individual-level and group-level variance in individual outcomes. The intercept and slope from the level 1, or within-group, analysis serve as dependent variables in the level 2, or between-group, analysis. A significant parameter estimate ( $\gamma_{10}$ ) for the level 1 predictor indicates an individual-level effect, and a significant parameter estimate ( $\gamma_{01}$ ) for the level 2 predictor of the level 1 intercepts indicates a group-level effect (Hofmann, 1997; Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992). The HLM was the most appropriate approach because it allowed the use of individual predictors at the individual level and group predictors at the group level without the shortcomings of the aggregation or disaggregation approaches.

The next step of the hierarchical analysis, given that a group-level variable can only explain differences between groups, is to show that there are significant differences between groups for the dependent variables in our study (Hofmann, 1997). Thus, we ran null models without predictors, including only burnout and tranquility as dependent variables. The results indicate that 32% ( $ICC(1) = 0.32$ ,  $\chi^2[119] = 289.84$ ,  $p < .001$ ) of

the variance in burnout, as well as 24% ( $ICC(1) = 0.24, \chi^2[119] = 233.34, p < .001$ ) of the variance in tranquility, resided at the team level, justifying the use of HLM as an appropriate analytical technique.

#### **4.5.2. Results**

Table 11 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations between the study variables. Results showed that self-managed team was positively related to team learning capabilities ( $r = .48, p < .01$ ) comparable to previous research (Bresman and Zellmer-Bruhn, 2013) where coefficients of team structure were correlated with team learning experience ( $r = .29, p < .05$ ).

Table 12 provides a summary of the models and results used to test our hypotheses. To reduce potential multicollinearity problems and to aid in the interpretation of the variables, all study variables in our models were centered on the overall mean (Enders and Tofighi, 2007).



Table 11. Chapter IV. Means, Standard Deviations, and Bivariate Correlations among Study Variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
Level 1: Individual level					
1. Gender <sup>a</sup>	.46	.50			
2. Age (in years)	41.30	7.42	-.19**		
3. Burnout	3.52	.42	.01	-.02	
4. Peace of mind	4.71	.38	.01	-.11*	-.12*
Level 2: Team level					
1. Leader gender <sup>a</sup>	.35	.48			
2. Leader sge (in years)	47.87	6.68	-.17		
3. Self-managed team	5.54	.55	-.04	.00	
4. Team learning capabilities	5.58	.43	.03	.10	.48**

Source: the authors

Note. N employees = 360 N teams = 120.

<sup>a</sup> Gender: 0 = Male, 1 = Female.

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ .

Table 12. Chapter IV. HLM Analysis on Employee Burnout and Peace of Mind

Predictor variable	Dependent variable							
	Burnout				Peace of mind			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Coefficient	s.e.	Coefficient	s.e.	Coefficient	s.e.	Coefficient	s.e.
Intercept ( $\gamma_{00}$ )	3.52***	.03	3.52***	.03	4.71***	.02	4.71***	.02
Level 1 variables								
Gender ( $\gamma_{10}$ )	.02	.02	.02	.02	-.05	.03	-.05	.03
Age ( $\gamma_{20}$ )	.00	.03	.00	.03	-.04	.03	-.04	.03
Level 2 variables								
Leader gender ( $\gamma_{01}$ )	-.03	.03	-.04	.03	.03	.02	.04	.02
Leader age ( $\gamma_{02}$ )	-.02	.02	-.03	.02	.00	.03	.01	.03
Self-managed team ( $\gamma_{03}$ )	-.09** (H1a)	.03	-.09**	.03	.05* (H1b)	.03	.06*	.03
Team learning capabilities ( $\gamma_{04}$ )			-.01	.03			.01	.03
Self-managed team X Team learning capabilities ( $\gamma_{05}$ )			-.04* (H2a)	.02			.06** (H2b)	.02
$R^2$	.04		.05		.14		.18	

Source: the authors

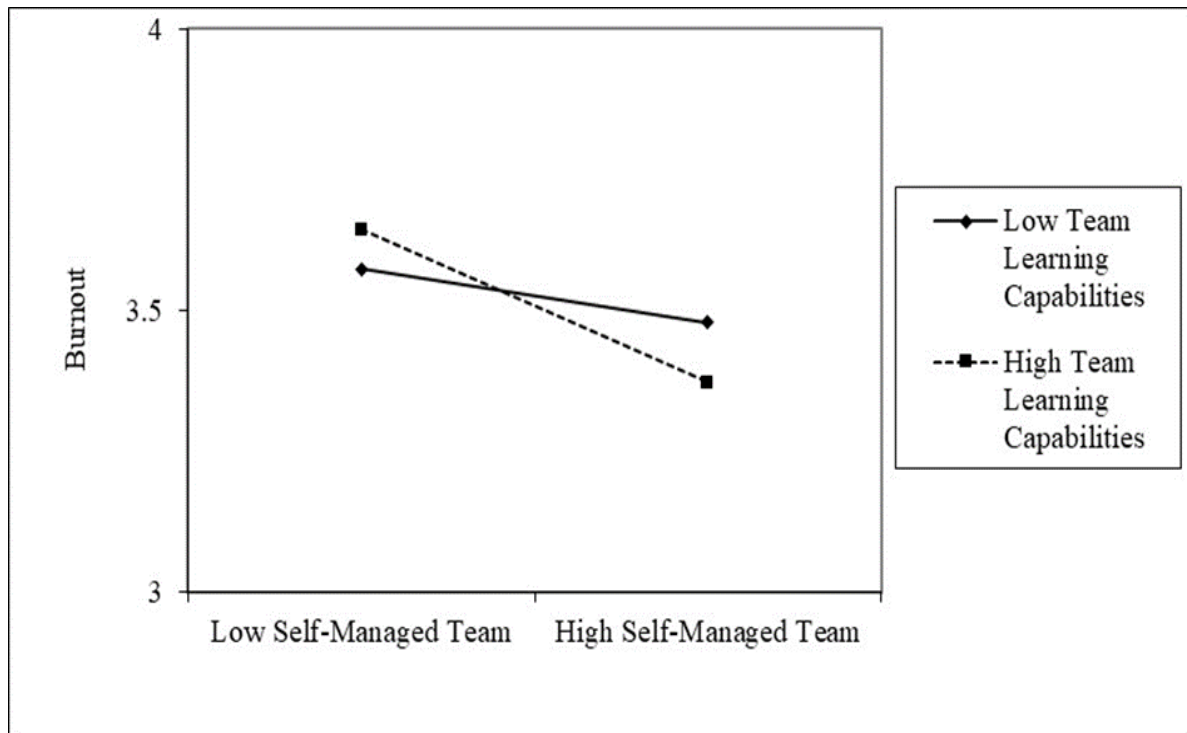
Note.  $N$  at Level 1 = 360, Level 2 = 120.  $R^2$  values indicate the percentage of total variance explained by predictors in the model. \*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

**Main effects of the self-managed team.** Hypothesis 1a states that self-managed team is negatively related to employee burnout. As shown in Model 1 of Table 12, the HLM results revealed that the self-managed team negatively influences employee burnout ( $\gamma = -.09, p < 0.01$ ), suggesting that the self-managed team could act as a burnout deterrent. Hypothesis 1a is thus confirmed.

Hypothesis 1b proposes that the self-managed team positively predicts calmness. As illustrated in Table 2, the results of the Model 3 tests indicate that the relationship between self-managed team and employee calmness is positive ( $\gamma = 0.05; p < 0.05$ ), supporting hypothesis 1b.

**Interactions between self-managed team and team learning capabilities.** Hypothesis 2a states that team learning capabilities negatively moderate the relationship between self-managed team and employee burnout. When team learning capabilities are high, self-managed team is expected to be less related to burnout than when self-managed team is low. As shown in Table 12, the interaction between self-managed team and team learning capabilities was significant ( $\gamma = -.04, p < .05$ , Model 2). In addition, we performed simple slope tests to confirm the nature of the moderating effect (Aiken & West, 1991; Preacher et al., 2006). Figure 7 shows that when team learning ability was high (1 SD above the mean), self-managed team was negatively related to burnout ( $b_{high} = -.14, t = -3.74, p < .001$ ); whereas when team learning ability was low (1 SD below the mean), the slope was not significant ( $b_{low} = -.05, t = -1.43, n.s.$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 2a was supported.

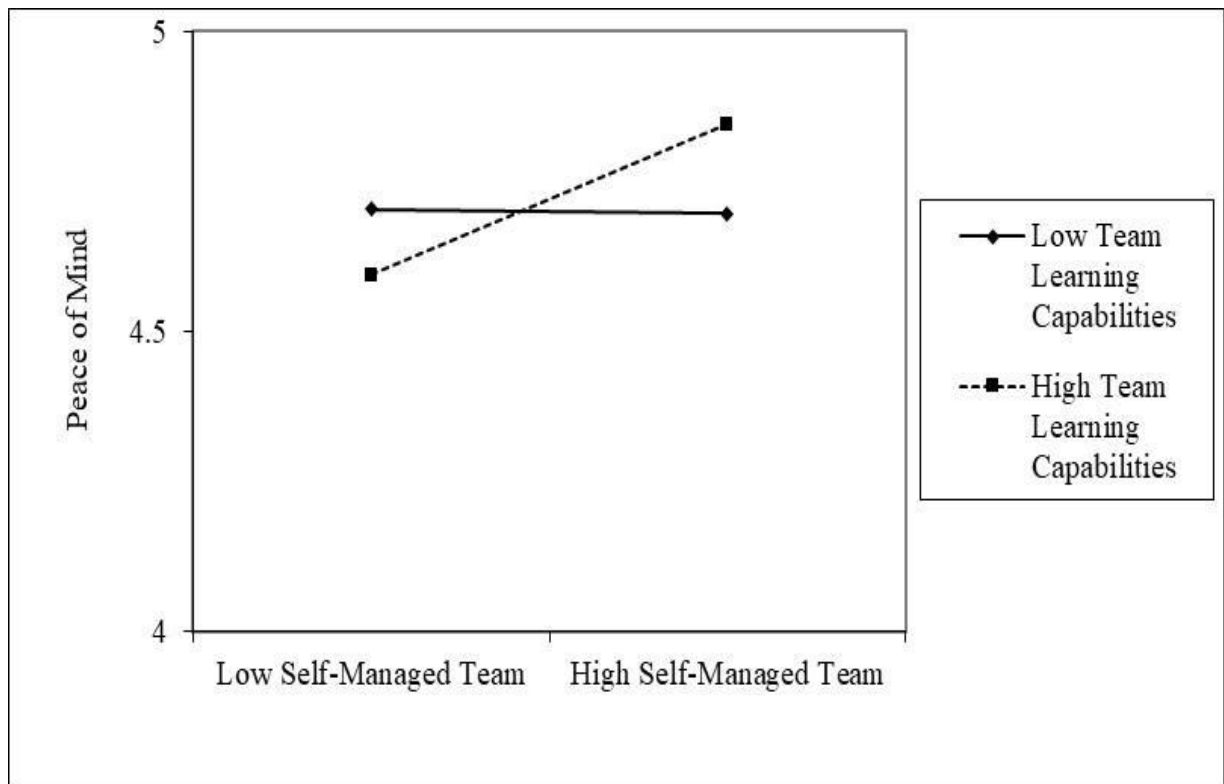
Figure 7. Chapter IV. *The interactive effect of self-managed team and team learning capabilities on burnout*



Source: HLM program

Hypothesis 2b postulates that team learning capabilities positively moderate the relationship between self-managed team and employee peace of mind. When team learning capabilities are high, self-managed team is expected to be more strongly related to peace of mind than when self-managed team is low. As shown in Table 12, the interaction between self-managed team and team learning capabilities was significant ( $\gamma = .06, p < .01$ , Model 4). We also conducted simple slope tests (depicted in Figure 8) that showed that when team learning capability was high (1 SD above the mean), self-managed team was significantly and positively related to employee peace of mind ( $b_{high} = .13, t = 3.84, p < .001$ ). In contrast, when team learnability was low (1 SD below the mean), the relationship between self-managed team and employee peace of mind was not significant ( $b_{high} = .00, t = -.10, n.s.$ ). Hence, hypothesis 2b is supported.

Figure 8. Chapter IV. *The interactive effect of self-managed team and team learning capabilities on Peace of mind*



Source: HLM program

#### 4.6. CONCLUSIONS

In the constant quest to improve productivity, efficiency and employee satisfaction, many organizations have explored different management approaches and methodologies. One of the approaches that has gained popularity in recent years is self-management, where teams have a high degree of autonomy and decision making. This approach has caught the attention of researchers due to its benefits and advantages it offers to companies that opt for this form of management (Laloux, 2014; Robertson, 2015; Lee and Edmondson, 2017). One of the major benefits of self-management or self-managed teams is that they foster collaboration and cooperation among workers (Edmondson, 2002). By allowing team members to work together autonomously, an environment is created in which

everyone can contribute ideas and solutions (Lee and Edmondson, 2017). This autonomous work environment makes the work environment more enjoyable and rewarding, as well as, allows the company to adapt to turbulent changes in the environment. Also, the literature suggests that self-managed teams foster a positive work environment based on mutual support and learning (Milikin et al., 2010; Michael et al., 2017). By giving team members the autonomy to manage, take responsibility for and control their own work, this leads them to foster communication, experimentation and team cohesion, which in turn can lead to more learning.

This research shows that self-managed teams can improve workers' well-being. As revealed, self-managed teams can reduce stress and pressure at work. By giving team members the freedom to manage their work without the control of a superior, the need to work under constant supervision and the pressure to meet deadlines and targets imposed by management is reduced. This can lead to a less stressful and healthier work environment. As highlighted in this research, the form of management based on self-managed teams could reduce stress or burnout for all team members, as well as, it can lead to a state of mind based on serenity, peace of mind.

This study also reveals that participation in self-suggested teams promotes team learning capability (TLC) in several ways. First, in self-suggested teams, feedback becomes an integral part of the work process. Team members are responsible for providing feedback to each other, which enables them to identify strengths, areas for improvement, and learning opportunities. Continuous feedback facilitates individual and collective learning (Chiva et al., 2007), as team members can adjust their performance and develop new skills based on the feedback received. Second, all team members have the freedom to try new ideas and approaches. This ability to experiment fosters creativity and innovation (Alegre

and Chiva, 2013), and also enables learning through discovery. As team members try different approaches and solutions, they learn from successes and failures, which provides valuable information and allows them to adapt and continuously improve.

However, despite the potential benefits of self-management on workplace well-being, many companies still do not venture to establish self-managed teams. Among the reasons for this reluctance to implement this management model is fear of change. Many organizations are accustomed to a traditional hierarchical structure, where roles and responsibilities are clearly defined. Adopting a self-managed approach involves redistributing power and allowing teams to make decisions without constant supervision. This change can be intimidating for some leaders and employees, as it involves relinquishing some control and relying on the skills and capabilities of the team. Also, another factor that may contribute to companies' reluctance to establish a management model that enhances employee well-being is the ego of leaders. Leaders can sometimes have a personal attachment to the power and authority they hold in the traditional hierarchy. Establishing self-managed teams involves, among other things, distributing power, which can threaten the leadership position of some individuals.

#### **4.6.1. Theoretical and practical implications**

The results of the study reveal some major contributions to the literature on organizational management. First, this study is the first to propose and empirically validate a multilevel model on the influence of self-managed teams and well-being at work, addressing concepts that have not been previously explored in depth, such as burnout and peace of mind. As well as, analyzing its antecedents and consequences. Therefore, this research advances the understanding of self-managed teams and their relationship to well-being,

providing evidence and insights that can help organizations adopt more effective approaches to managing teams and promoting well-being in the workplace. Second, this study is the first to reveal the importance of learning but at the team level (CAE). Specifically, exploring how team learning capability can contribute to improved workplace well-being by generating a greater sense of purpose, skill development, and recognition of individual and collective achievement.

Among the practical implications to be concluded from the study, I would highlight the following. First, organizations interested in an approach based on self-managed teams establish a formula for improving well-being at work. This involves providing an appropriate balance between workload and available resources, promoting a climate based on mutual respect and support, encouraging participation and recognition, and providing opportunities for personal and professional development. By investing in employee well-being, organizations can increase satisfaction, motivation and talent retention. Second, organizations can foster a learning-based climate that values knowledge sharing, experimentation and continuous improvement. This involves creating spaces for collaborative learning, promoting constructive feedback, and recognizing successes and lessons learned. In addition, leaders must exercise participative leadership and facilitate access to learning resources, such as training and professional development. In turn, the results of this climate tend to improve the mental health of individuals.



#### **4.6.2.Limitations of the study and future lines of research**

Inevitably, our study has a number of limitations that could be improved in future replications and extensions. For example, the organizations included in the study sample belong to different sectors and are of different sizes. Therefore, future research could focus on a single sector or on companies of similar size. Another limitation is the cross-sectional nature of the sample. It would be desirable to develop long-term longitudinal studies to confirm causes and consequences. Longitudinal studies better validate the sample data because they allow data collection at different points in time.

Regarding future lines of research, it would be necessary to continue exploring the factors that influence self-managed teams and well-being at work. For example, it would be interesting to identify and evaluate the critical factors that contribute to the success of self-managed teams. This involves analyzing how decision-making structures are established, internal communication, assignment of tasks and responsibilities, and the autonomy granted to team members. Also, comparative studies between self-managed teams and traditional teams can be conducted to analyze variables such as job satisfaction, commitment, stress, burnout and quality of life at work. This will allow a better understanding of the benefits and challenges associated with the implementation of self-managed teams and their influence on employee well-being. Another interesting line of research to explore would be to analyze the influence of organizational culture on self-managed teams and employee well-being. The objective of this proposed line of research would be to understand how organizational culture influences the implementation and functioning of self-managed teams, as well as employee well-being at work. To this end, variables such as organizational values, leadership, performance management practices and institutional support can be explored. Finally, in addition to focusing on analyzing the occupational well-being of individuals, it would be important to investigate the effects

of self-managed teams on organizational outcomes. For example, studies could measure variables such as productivity, innovation, quality of work and customer satisfaction in the context of self-managed teams. Understanding how these teams impact overall organizational outcomes is crucial to justifying their adoption and promoting their implementation in diverse work environments.



## **CHAPTER V**

### **General discussions of the results**

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## **5.1. GENERAL DISCUSSION**

As we explained at the beginning of this doctoral thesis, we find ourselves in a society that faces various social problems that require attention and solutions from organizations. The data show that economic inequality is one of the main social problems in many countries. There is a significant gap between income and wealth distribution, which generates socioeconomic disparities. This inequality negatively affects access to opportunities, social mobility and people's well-being. Moreover, economic instability is a constant concern in the current scenario. Economic cycles, financial crises and market fluctuations are having a significant impact on people's employment, income and financial stability. This situation has generated uncertainty and fragility in the economic life of individuals and organizations. Another social problem that has been detected after the analysis is economic insecurity. Many people find it difficult to access stable jobs, with fair wages and adequate working conditions. This translates into a lack of guarantees and protections in the workplace, which affects the well-being and economic security of workers.

A look at the current business context reveals the existence of organizations that are governed by bureaucracy, offering precarious jobs, high levels of demands and low levels of trust, which poses significant challenges in the labor and social spheres. Companies offer jobs that are characterized by low wages, temporary contracts, lack of employment benefits and poor working conditions. Workers in these situations increasingly face job insecurity, lack of commitment and limitations to professional development. These organizations also impose excessive workloads on their employees. This results in long working hours, tight deadlines and constant pressure. These conditions can have a negative impact on the physical and mental health of workers, leading to stress, burnout and a decrease in overall well-being and a lack of organizational learning. In addition, the

presence of low levels of trust in organizations can manifest itself in a lack of transparency, lack of effective communication, lack of support and lack of employee participation in decision making. This can generate a demotivating work environment, where workers do not feel valued or committed to the objectives and values of the organization. These labor practices have a negative impact on both workers and society as a whole. In other words, they are practices that contribute to social inequality, affect people's quality of life and can drive a wedge between employees and employers, making it difficult to establish healthy and productive labor relations.

It is essential that organizations recognize the importance of offering decent jobs, with fair working conditions, with work climates based on mutual support and mutual trust. This not only benefits employees, but also contributes to the company's productivity, performance and innovation. In short, the existence of organizations that offer precarious jobs, high levels of demands and low levels of trust is a relevant social issue. Addressing these challenges involves promoting balanced and transparent labor practices that foster shared values, well-being and employee development. This will require the commitment of both organizations and all social actors to create a healthier and more equitable work environment.

Science plays a crucial role in identifying problems and finding solutions to the challenges facing organizations today. In fact, scientific evidence shows that organizations managed with participatory, egalitarian and supportive management models are key to promoting well-being at work and optimizing company performance. However, most organizations remain conservative. Most organizations operate on the basis of hierarchical and formalized structures, centralized decisions and the absence of solidarity. Moreover, it has been observed that these hierarchical, achievement and power-oriented organizations

tend to generate precarious jobs, as their focus is on maximizing efficiency and standardizing processes (Mintzberg, 1984, 2009; Laloux, 2014; Guinot and Chiva, 2022).

With the aim of overcoming traditional paradigms and building a more equitable and adaptive working future, both from the academic sphere and from some social and political movements, organizations have been urged to promote alternative organizational management models. Accordingly, in recent years, from different spheres and contexts, new organizational models based on a culture of reciprocity, solidarity and equality have been promoted. These new management formulas emphasize the benefits of creating more democratic, horizontal and innovation-oriented organizations. The aim is to create management models that focus not only on competitiveness, individualism and the achievement of economic results, but also on promoting values centered on others and directing the strategy towards the common good. In short, in being able to deploy another type of organization from a more humanistic and conscious perspective that responds to the challenges we face today, both inside and outside organizations (George, 2013; Laloux, 2014; Albers et al., 2016; Lee and Edmondson, 2017; Warr and Nielsen, 2018).

Following this call to promote models of more human, fair, and equitable businesses, research in the field of management has begun to explore behaviors and work environments that are healthy for employees and also more innovative for the company. Among these studies, we can highlight research that has explored concepts such as organizational trust (Brown et al., 2015; Shukla and Rai, 2015; Xu et al., 2016; Zeffane, 2017), compassion at work (Worline and Dutton, 2017; Hur et al., 2018; Guinot et al., 2020; Andersson et al., 2021), altruism (Dur and Tichem, 2015; Guinot et al., 2015; Abdellah et al., 2021; Barghouti et al., 2022), among others. For example, studies conducted by scholars such as Deci and Ryan (2008) have shown in their self-determination theory that jobs that provide workers with a greater sense of autonomy,



trust, and connection with others have a significant impact on job satisfaction and the psychological well-being of employees. The connection refers to the need to feel connected with others and to have supportive relationships in the work environment. In other words, jobs that promote a trusting work environment, encourage teamwork, and positive interpersonal relationships contribute to a sense of belonging and mutual assistance. This sense of connection with others has been linked to improvements in psychological well-being, job satisfaction, employee learning, and the enhancement of creativity. Therefore, this theory has demonstrated that promoting organizational trust and interpersonal relationships benefits both employees and the company. For employees, a trusting environment fosters psychological safety, loyalty, and encourages communication, collaboration, and learning. And this environment allows the company to improve performance and productivity (Top et al., 2015; Emilisa, 2019; Guinot and Chiva, 2019).

On the other hand, authors such as Cameron and Spreitzer (2012) provide evidence focused on compassion and altruism-based management to improve the aforementioned working conditions. Cameron and Spreitzer argue that promoting compassionate and altruistic practices has a significant impact on the work environment. These management approaches focus on creating work environments that foster employee well-being and development, grounded in ethical values and care for others. It is suggested that compassion and altruism create a climate of trust and psychological safety within the team where employees feel more comfortable expressing their ideas and concerns, leading to increased job satisfaction, a sense of belonging to the organization, and personal development.

Similarly, other studies have revealed that a workplace based on altruism and compassion significantly benefits the company. For instance, Grant and Gino (2010) and Jane et al.

(2014) have shown that when workers experience selfless helping and collaboration among peers, it promotes communication and the generation of innovative ideas that contribute to business improvements. Altruism and compassion have also been linked to variables such as commitment and job satisfaction. This research suggests that when workers perceive that their colleagues and leaders are willing to offer them help selflessly and feel more valued and respected in their positions, it creates a sense of community and belonging, thereby increasing commitment to the organization and its objectives (Salas-Vallina and Alegre, 2018).

Therefore, there are some studies and research that provide alternative management models to the characteristics of bureaucratic and traditional organizations. However, these innovative approaches are still scarce, and further research is required to develop more effective solutions. The need to address issues related to precarious employment, workplaces that foster suffering, dissatisfaction, high levels of demand, and low levels of trust still requires priority attention in order to achieve improvement and promote a healthier and more productive work environment. Science and research play a crucial role in this process, providing valuable insights and alternatives to promote more humane management practices. It is essential to continue researching and developing new management models that focus on the well-being and motivation of employees, which will, in turn, benefit organizations and society as a whole.

Based on the academic arguments mentioned, this thesis provides some actions and contributions to foster understanding of the concepts of compassion and altruism in the academic field. One of the contributions that the thesis proposes to address the problem is the creation of workplace environments based on compassion and altruism. In this work, we have demonstrated that the implementation of work environments based on compassion and altruism promotes organizational resilience. In other words, our findings

confirm that when compassion and altruism are promoted in the workplace, a supportive and caring environment is created, fostering interpersonal relationships based on assistance. As a result, by prioritizing employees and providing necessary support during challenging times, a solid foundation for organizational resilience is built. This translates into an increased ability to adapt to changes and an improvement in overall performance. Therefore, it is evident that by cultivating compassion and altruism among employees and the organization as a whole, the bonds between organization members are strengthened, and a positive and productive work environment is created. This contributes to promoting organizational resilience and the smooth functioning of the company.

The findings also emphasize the importance of creating environments based on trust. For instance, our results confirm that when a climate of trust and psychological safety is established, employees feel comfortable expressing their ideas, concerns, and needs without fear of judgment. Furthermore, we have discovered that a work environment where mutual trust prevails fosters dialogue and open communication (Brown et al., 2015; Top et al., 2015; Guinot and Chiva, 2019), encourages the emergence of new ideas, and enhances creativity, thereby driving organizational innovation.

Finally, our results have also confirmed that the creation of self-managed teams is a potential solution to improve employee well-being and enhance learning capacity. Self-management allows employees to have greater control over their work and responsibilities (Lee and Edmondson, 2017). By not being subject to a strict hierarchy, team members can learn more. Additionally, they can organize their tasks flexibly, which can prevent situations of overwork, reducing the risk of burnout. Moreover, this form of self-management-based work contributes to a more balanced and harmonious work environment, promoting peace of mind and reducing work exhaustion or burnout. Self-management also reduces bureaucracy and micromanagement (Laloux, 2014), leading to

a decrease in burnout and an increase in the mental well-being of team members. Consequently, in line with our findings, self-managed teams emerge as an effective approach to promoting a healthy and learning-oriented work environment.

The results obtained in the various studies that make up this doctoral thesis confirm, therefore, that certain behaviors and work environments serve as precursors to improving workplace well-being and the effective functioning of companies. More specifically, it is evident that compassion and altruism in the workplace benefit employees by reducing relational conflicts and increasing their motivation, satisfaction, learning, and interpersonal relationships. On the other hand, these positive behaviors and environments benefit the company by increasing its performance, profitability, and organizational innovation. Likewise, the results affirm the importance and benefits of creating a work environment based on self-managed teams, that is, granting employees power, autonomy, decision-making authority, and responsibility, demonstrating that this environment succeeds in reducing states of stress and burnout and promotes states of mental peace and workplace well-being. Additionally, it is verified that the creation of horizontal organizations regulated by self-managed teams drives learning.

## **5.2. ACADEMIC IMPLICATIONS**

The findings of the doctoral thesis make significant contributions to the literature on organizational management. Firstly, Study 1 (chapter I) introduces and empirically validates a management model consisting of the variables of compassion and altruism in the workplace. This research delves into and analyzes these phenomena from a management perspective, whereas they have been more extensively studied in the field of psychology (Neff and McGehee, 2010; Radey and Figley, 2007; Marsh et al., 2018). In fact, there is a notable scarcity of works on this topic in the field of management. Moreover, this study is groundbreaking in revealing the existence of a relationship between compassion and altruism at work and organizational resilience. More specifically, it has been verified that promoting an organizational climate based on compassion and altruism leads to an improvement in organizational performance by enhancing the organization's ability to recover and adapt to challenges and adversities.

It is noteworthy that previous studies have examined the concepts of compassion and altruism, revealing that their presence in the work environment can lead to higher job satisfaction among employees (Valentine et al., 2011; Ray et al., 2013; Song and Zhang, 2020) and a better overall work environment (Lilius et al., 2011; Dutton, 2014; Guinot et al., 2020; Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 2021). The promotion of compassion and altruism has also been associated with increased talent retention and commitment (Kao and Sek-Hong, 1993; Lilius et al., 2008; San Román-Niaves et al., 2022). However, the results of this doctoral thesis broaden our understanding of how compassion and altruism can significantly influence management and organizational performance. Therefore, they contribute to a novel research line that seeks to observe the consequences of such behaviors for organizational functioning. This builds on a research path that has garnered attention from other scholars in recent years but is still in its early stages.

Within the highlighted academic implications of this doctoral thesis, it is relevant to mention Study 2 (chapter II), which delves into the phenomenon of compassion, but this time focuses on an organizational level. Typically, compassion has been studied at an individual level (Lilius et al., 2008; Barnard and Curry, 2011; Dodson and Heng, 2022). However, this study represents a significant advancement in the literature by examining how an organizational climate based on compassion can foster a trustful environment, which, in turn, has the potential to enhance innovation within the organization. Moreover, this study stands out as one of the first to validate a hypothesis demonstrating the simultaneous relationship between organizational compassion and its impact on organizational trust and innovation, making it highly relevant to research in management and organizational behavior. The findings support the idea that the presence of a compassionate climate can promote the creation of a work environment where employees feel supported and valued, thereby increasing trust in their leaders and colleagues. This increased organizational trust facilitates collaboration and the exchange of ideas, thus stimulating the generation of new proposals and innovative solutions to tackle the challenges that the company may face. These results provide a valuable contribution to the literature in the field of organizational management and emphasize the importance of cultivating compassion in the workplace to foster a more collaborative and creative organizational culture.

Among the significant academic implications of this doctoral thesis, the results obtained in the studies on self-management teams (chapter III and chapter IV) stand out. Study 3 focuses on the concept of "self-management teams" and its relevance in human resource management and work psychology in the tourism sector. The results contribute to the statements highlighted in the literature on the positive association between self-managed teams and high levels of employee commitment, satisfaction and trust, reinforcing

existing theories on the importance of autonomy at work (Maslach and Leiter, 2016; Judge et al., 2017, Arzola, 2018). Although no significant relationship with job burnout was found, the study invites further review of the specific dimensions of burnout and contextual factors that could modulate this relationship. This unexpected finding opens new perspectives for understanding the complexities in the interaction between self-managed teams and burnout. This constitutes a valuable contribution to the field and lays the foundation for the development of study 4, which delves into the empirical validation of a multilevel model addressing the phenomenon of self-managed teams and its impact on well-being at work.

Specifically, this study establishes an innovative connection between self-managed teams and key aspects such as burnout and peace of mind. Through a detailed analysis, both the negative (reduction of burnout) and positive (increase of peace of mind) impacts of implementing self-managed teams are revealed. This holistic approach not only enriches the understanding of organisational management, but also lays the foundation for future research and practice. Standing out as the first to highlight the importance of team-level learning (TLC), the study explores how team learning capacity contributes to improved work well-being through dialogue, participation in decision-making and experimentation. These findings not only contribute to the optimisation of self-managed teams, but also underline the crucial relevance of team learning capability to the development and success of organisations seeking a more humane and effective approach to management.

In conclusion, the results and findings presented in this doctoral thesis have significant implications for the field of organizational management and workplace behavior. Through the three conducted studies, a solid foundation has been established for future research and practices aiming to advance significantly in the understanding of various

relevant aspects to improve workplace well-being, create more humane and innovative environments, and enhance the effective functioning of the company.

### **5.3. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS**

This doctoral thesis also brings forth a series of practical implications, offering professionals and business leaders a set of management tools based on the findings in each model. Within these models, executives can discover strategies to enhance organizational performance and employee well-being. For instance, the results from the first study suggest that fostering compassion and altruism in the workplace can be beneficial for the organization. Leaders and human resources managers can implement programs and policies that encourage empathy and mutual support among employees, contributing to the improvement of the organizational climate and resilience in the face of challenges. It is also essential to consider that this proposal may yield additional benefits for the organization.

The second study (chapter II) highlights the importance of building an organizational culture based on compassion to foster trust and innovation. Leaders and professionals can promote trust through open communication, recognition of well-executed work, and support for innovative ideas. This will facilitate the generation of innovative solutions and enhance the company's ability to adapt to changes and face challenges.

The third and fourth studies highlight the potential benefits of self-managed teams. Organizations may consider the possibility of adopting a more conscious approach based on teamwork, allowing teams to make decisions and manage their tasks more autonomously. This can enhance the emotional well-being of employees. Moreover, it can also lead to boosting innovation and organizational success, as having healthy



employees increases productivity, creativity, and talent, thereby improving organizational innovation.

#### **5.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE THESIS STUDIES AND FUTURE LINE OF RESEARCH**

It is important to note that the studies comprising this doctoral thesis and leading to these results are not without certain limitations. For instance, the findings of the first chapter are based on data collected from a list of innovative organizations in the year 2015, provided by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness. However, it is relevant to point out that this database, while offering significant and representative information about the conditions and labor management related to innovation, is characterized by its heterogeneity, as the respondents belong to companies of different sectors and sizes. Therefore, it would be beneficial for future research to focus on a single sector or companies of similar sizes to address this limitation. Likewise, this limitation applies equally to the study in the second chapter. In this case, the study's data comes from a survey conducted on Spanish companies classified as innovative in the year 2017. Thus, the heterogeneity of the sample in this study is also acknowledged.

As highlighted in studies one and two, it is crucial to continue research to explore and propose more complex and humane management models that contribute to creating work environments fostering compassion. A promising future research direction would be to delve into the relationship between compassion at work and human resource management practices. Studies could examine how certain human resource policies and approaches, such as flexible work arrangements, emotional support, and leader training, can influence the promotion of compassion in the workplace. Additionally, investigating how recognition and reward policies can incentivize and strengthen compassionate attitudes among organization members. Another relevant research avenue would be to study how

organizational structure can influence the emergence and spread of a work climate based on altruism or compassion. It would be interesting to further explore how decentralization, horizontality, or the implementation of self-managed teams can facilitate the development of a culture of support, assistance, and empathy, thereby promoting altruistic behaviors and compassionate attitudes among collaborators. Furthermore, it is essential to inquire into organizational culture and its impact on these behaviors and environments. New research could help understand how shared values and norms within the organization can affect employees' willingness to exhibit the studied behaviors towards their peers and themselves in times of difficulty or need.

Regarding the limitations identified in the fourth chapter, it is essential to note that the companies included in the sample are both national and international. Therefore, in future research, it would be interesting to filter the data by countries or continents and conduct comparisons. For example, variables such as organizational learning and self-managed teams could be studied to verify which countries excel in adopting this management model and which countries predominantly maintain traditional approaches to organizational management models. Additionally, it would be valuable to investigate the cultural and contextual factors that could be influencing the adoption and effectiveness of self-managed teams in different regions of the world. It would also be interesting to explore how cultural differences affect the perception and implementation of self-management in the workplace, as well as its relationship with employee well-being and organizational performance. Another relevant limitation is the influence of the data collection period. Fieldwork began in 2020, and the final database was obtained in 2022. This period coincides with the stage of the COVID-19 pandemic, which could have affected the responses collected by workers and leaders in the study. A suggestive future research direction would be to replicate the study using the same questionnaire but

collecting data in the coming years. This way, it could be analyzed how companies have evolved, and whether the situation of change and crisis has impacted their ways of working and management.

A limitation evident in all four studies is the cross-sectional nature of the samples used. The cross-sectional nature of our study does not allow for precise conclusions regarding causality in the observed associations. Therefore, long-term longitudinal studies are needed to uncover cause-and-effect relationships. Longitudinal studies are typically more precise as they collect data at different points in time. Future research may also offer stronger support for these relationships by using a sample that gathers data from both managers and employees.

In conclusion, it is essential to address the limitations found in the three studies of the thesis and explore diverse perspectives for future research. Investigating specifically in conscious companies or comparing different types of organizations, analyzing the evolution of companies in periods of change and crisis, studying cultural and contextual factors, and exploring the relationship between the variables studied in the thesis and other key variables are some of the directions that can enrich the knowledge about employee well-being and business success.

# **CONCLUSIONS**

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The genesis of this research lies in the disturbing contemporary social crisis, characterised by the interrelatedness of problems affecting millions of people globally. Mental health, economic instability, inequality and job insecurity have converged, generating a significant impact on everyday life. The need to address these complex socio-economic challenges led to a profound revision of existing management models, which proved to be insufficient to deal with the complexity of today's reality. In this context, this doctoral thesis set out to explore management alternatives, focusing on the implementation of more innovative and horizontal models. To this end, it aims to analyse organisational behaviours and work environments that can improve the aforementioned conditions and contribute to the improvement of employee well-being, as well as to the innovation and success of the company. The research thus seeks not only to understand, but also to propose concrete solutions that foster more humane, conscious and innovative working environments.

The primary focus of the research was to examine the impact of self-managed teams on well-being at work and to highlight the importance of team-level learning (TLC) in improving well-being at work. This holistic approach sought to understand both the negative aspects, such as reduced burnout, and the positive aspects, such as increased peace of mind, resulting from the implementation of self-managed teams. However, the exploration was not limited to this model alone; three additional empirical models were addressed, each designed to quantitatively analyse the influence of organisational behaviours and environments on critical variables such as business performance and innovation.

The first research focused on creating work environments based on compassion and altruism, assessing their impact on business performance. The innovative proposal not

only shed light on the benefits of fostering compassion in the workplace, but also highlighted organisational resilience as a key mediating factor in these dynamics.

The second research explored the relationship between organisational compassion and innovation, highlighting organisational trust as a key element in this connection. This approach contributed not only to the understanding of the positive influence of compassion on innovativeness, but also highlighted organisational trust as a crucial mediating mechanism.

The third research explored in detail the phenomenon of self-managed teams by assessing its impact on key variables such as organisational commitment, job burnout, job satisfaction, extra-role factors, among others. This research provided a broader perspective on the potential benefits derived from the adoption of self-managed teams in the business environment and helped to further explore this concept in future models.

In conclusion, this thesis adopted a holistic approach to address the current social crisis by reviewing and proposing more appropriate management models. The exploration of self-managed teams and other innovative models not only contributed to the understanding of the challenges and associated benefits, but also offered valuable insights for future organisational research and practice. From the identification of the problem to the results obtained, this research reflects the urgency of rethinking management models in order to build more conscious, wellbeing-oriented work environments capable of coping with the complexity of the contemporary era.

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**THESIS**  
**APPENDIXES**

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# **Appendix A:**

## **Questionnaires used in the research**

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**APPENDIX A.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

Please, answer the following questions about your organization, using the following scale:

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree

***Organizational resilience: Lengnick-Hall et al.'s (2011) 3 ITEMS***

1.Our company is always learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.Our company prospers despite the challenges faced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.Our company develops new capabilities and engage in transformative actions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

***Firm performance: Tippins and sohi (2003) 4 ITEMS***

1.Customer retention	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.Sales growth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.Profitability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.Return on investment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

***Altruism: Podsakoff's et al.'s (1990) 4 ITEMS***

1.People in this company help others who have heavy workloads	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.People in this company help orient new people even though it is not required	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.People in this company willingly help others who have work related problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.People in this company are always ready to lend a helping hand to those around them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Compassion: Petchsawang and Duchon (2009) 4 ITEMS**

1. People in this company can easily put themselves in their coworkers' shoes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. People in this company are aware of and sympathize with their coworkers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. People in this company try to help their coworkers relieve their suffering	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. People in this company are aware of their coworkers' needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**APPENDIX A.2. RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

Please, answer the following questions about your organization, using the following scale:

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree

**Firm Innovativeness (Calantone et al., 2002) 6 ITEMS**

Appendix A: questionnaires used in the research.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.Our company often tests new ideas							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.Our company is looking for new ways of doing things							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.Our company is creative in its methods of operation							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.Our company is often first to market with its new products.							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.Innovation in our company is perceived as too risky and there is resistance.							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.The introduction of new products has increased in the last 5 years.							

***Trust (Huff, L., and Kelley, L. 2003) 4ITEMS***

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.There is a lot of trust within this organization							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.In this organization, subordinates have complete trust in the managers.							

Appendix A: questionnaires used in the research.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.If someone in this organization makes a promise, the rest always trust that person to do his or her best to keep it.							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.This company's managers trust their subordinates							

**Compassion (Petchsawang, P., and Duchon, D. , 2009) 4 ITEMS**

1. People in this company can easily put themselves in their coworkers' shoes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. People in this company are aware of and sympathize with their coworkers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. People in this company try to help their coworkers relieve their suffering	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. People in this company are aware of their coworkers' needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**APPENDIX A.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

Please, answer the following questions about your organization, using the following scale:

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree

*Self Management Teams (Rousseau y aubé 2010) 8 ITEMS*

1. We plan the accomplishment of our work activities
2. We clarify the roles and the responsibilities of each membre
3. We assess the effectiveness of our team functioning
4. We monitor the results of our work

Appendix A: questionnaires used in the research.

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5. We congratulate our team mates when they do well

6. We recognize the contributions of our team mates

7. We search for better ways of working

8. We put into place new practices to do our work

***Altruism: Podsakoff's et al.'s (1990) 4 ITEMS***

1. People in this company help others who have heavy workloads

2. People in this company help orient new people even though it is not required

3. People in this company willingly help others who have work related problems

4. People in this company are always ready to lend a helping hand to those around them



***Job Satisfaction (Baptiste, 2008). 8 ITEMS***

1.I am satisfied with the sense of achievement I get from my job

2.I am satisfied with the scope for using initiative

3.I have influence over my job

4.I am satisfied with my pay

5.I feel my job is secure

6.I am satisfied with the training I have received

7. I am satisfied with the work I do

8. My manager involves me in decision making

***Work Exhaustion (Schaufeli et al. (1996). 5 ITEMS***

1. I feel emotionally exhausted by my work
2. I feel exhausted at the end of the workday
3. I feel fatigued when I wake up in the morning and have to face another day of work
4. Working all day is really a strain for me
5. I feel exhausted by my work.

***Organizational Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993, adapted for Bulut & Culha, 2010). 6 ITEMS***

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.
4. I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
5. This organization has a great deal of meaning for me.
6. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

***Organizational Citizenship behavior – Individual (OCBI) (Lee and Allen, 2002). 8 ITEMS***

1. I help other colleagues who have recently missed work
2. I voluntarily assist colleagues who have work-related problems
3. Adjust my schedule to cover requests for breaks from other colleagues
4. I strive to make newer colleagues feel welcome
5. Even in difficult business/personal situations, I show concern and courtesy to my colleagues
6. I dedicate time to help other colleagues who have work-related or non-work-related problems
7. I help my colleagues with their tasks
8. I share my personal belongings with other colleagues in their tasks

***Organizational Trust (Huff and Kelley, 2003). 4 ITEMS***

1. There is a very high level of trust throughout the company
2. In my company, employees trust the managers a lot
3. If someone in my organization makes a promise, the rest of the colleagues trust that person will do everything possible to fulfill it.
4. The managers in this company trust that their employees will make good decisions

**APPENDIX A.4: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

Please, answer the following questions about your organization, using the following scale:

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree

***Team (Organizational) Learning Capability (Chiva, Alegre y Lapidra, 2007). 14 Items***

1. People receive support when presenting new ideas.
2. Initiatives often receive a favorable response, encouraging people to propose new ideas.
3. People are encouraged to take risks.
4. People often "dive" into unfamiliar topics.

Appendix A: questionnaires used in the research.

5.It is part of everyone's job to gather information about what's happening outside the company/organization.

6.We have systems and procedures for receiving, cross-referencing, and sharing external information.

7.Interaction with the environment is encouraged: competitors, customers, technological institutes, universities, suppliers, etc.

8.People are encouraged to communicate with each other.

9.There is open communication in workgroups.

10.Leaders facilitate communication.

11.Teamwork among people from different teams is a common practice.

12.The organization often involves people in important decisions.

Appendix A: questionnaires used in the research.

13. People's opinions are taken into account in deciding the organization's policies.

14. People feel involved in major decisions.

***Burnout (Salanova et al.,2000). 15 ITEMS***

1. I'm emotionally drained by my job.

2. I'm "burned out" at the end of a workday.

3. I'm tired when I wake up in the morning and have to face another day at my job.

4. Working all day is stressful for me.

5. I can effectively solve problems that arise in my job.

6. I'm "burnt out" from work.

Appendix A: questionnaires used in the research.

7.I contribute effectively to what my organization does.

8.I've lost interest in my job since I started in this position.

9.I've lost enthusiasm for my job.

10.In my opinion, I'm good at my job.

11.Achieving goals at work stimulates me.

12.I've achieved many valuable things in this position.

13.I've become more cynical about the usefulness of my job.

14.I doubt the significance and value of my job.

15. In my job, I'm confident that I'm effective in getting things done.

*Peace of Mind (Yi-Chen Lee · Yi-Cheng Lin · Chin-Lan Huang · Barbara L. Fredrickson J Happiness Stud (2013) 14:571–590). 7 ITEMS*

1. My mind is free and at ease

2. I feel content and comfortable with myself in daily life

3. My lifestyle gives me feelings of peace and stability

4. I have peace and harmony in my mind

5. It is difficult for me to feel settled (Reverse)

6. The way I live brings me feelings of peace and comfort

7. I feel anxious and uneasy in my mind (Reverse)



**SELF MANAGEMENT TEAMS (Rousseau y aubé 2010)**

1.	We plan the accomplishment of our work activities
2.	We clarify the roles and the responsibilities of each member
3.	We assess the effectiveness of our team functioning
4.	We monitor the results of our work
5.	We congratulate our team mates when they do well
6.	We recognize the contributions of our team mates
7.	We search for better ways of working
8.	We put into place new practices to do our work



## **Appendix B:**

# **Academic publications and conference papers resulting from research**

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### B.1. Thesis articles published in academic journals

Article title	<b>Compassion and Altruism in Organizations: a path for firm survival</b>
Authors	Barghouti Abrini, Zina Guinot Reinders, Jacob Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Year of publication	2022
Pages	1-19
Journal	INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL FO MANPOWER
Impact Factor	Q1 (Industrial Relations &Labor) Q2 (Management)
Character	International
Indexed in	ISI Journal Citation Reports
Reference	Barghouti, Z., Guinot, J., & Chiva, R. (2023). Compassion and altruism in organizations: a path for firm survival. <i>International Journal of Manpower</i> , 44(9), 1-19.

Article title	<b>Resiliencia Organizativa: la Fuerza de la Compasión y el Altruismo</b>
Authors	Barghouti Abrini, Zina Guinot Reinders, Jacob Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Year of publication	2022
Pages	251-277
Journal	Estudios Financieros
ISSN	2792-8314
Character	National
Indexed in	Latindex
Reference	Abrini, Z. B., Reinders, J. G., & Gómez, R. C. (2022). Resiliencia organizativa: la fuerza de la compasión y el altruismo. <i>Revista de Trabajo y Seguridad Social. CEF</i> , 251-277.

Article title	<b>Equipos Autogestionados: Beneficios de su Aplicación en las Empresas Turísticas</b>
Authors	Guinot Reinders, Jacob Barghouti Abrini, Zina Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Year of publication	2023
Pages	151-176
Book	La Experiencia Turística como Clave de Éxito
ISBN	978-84-1197-586-5
Character	National
Editorial	Tirant lo Blanch

## B.2. Articles in review

Article title	<b>How does Compassion Drive Firm Innovativeness? The Mediating Effect of Organisational Trust</b>
Authors	Barghouti Abrini, Zina Guinot Reinders, Jacob Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Journal	Employee Relations
Character	International
Indexed in	ISI Journal Citation Reports

### B.3. Papers of the thesis presented at Conferences

Article title	<b>Rethinking Organizations: The power of Altruism</b>
Authors	Guinot Reinders, Jacob Barghouti Abrini, Zina
Conference	XXX JORNADAS HISPANO-LUSAS
Place	Bragança (Portugal)
Year	2020
Character	International

Article title	<b>Organizaciones innovadoras en su gestión: el efecto de la compasión y la capacidad organizativo</b>
Authors	Barghouti Abrini, Zina Guinot Reinders, Jacob Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Conference	IV CONGRESO AJICEDE
Place	Madrid (Spain)
Year	2021
Character	International

Article title	<b>Creating More Innovative Companies: Compassion and Tools to Innovate</b>
Authors	Barghouti Abrini, Zina Guinot Reinders, Jacob Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Conference	ACEDE
Place	Barcelona (Spain)
Year	2022
Character	National

Article title	<b>Innovating Through Compassion: The Importance of Organisational Trust</b>
Authors	Barghouti Abrini, Zina Guinot Reinders, Jacob Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Conference	V AJICEDE
Place	Córdoba (Spain)
Year	2022
Character	International

Article title	<b>Uncovering The Effects of Self-Management Team on Wellbeing: the moderating role of Team Learning Capability</b>
Authors	Barghouti Abrini, Zina Clare, Ronald Guinot Reinders, Jacob Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Conference	VI AJICEDE
Place	Logroño (Spain)
Year	2023
Character	International

Article title	<b>Equilibrio en el Trabajo: Cómo los Equipos Autogestionados Impulsan el Clima Laboral</b>
Authors	Barghouti Abrini, Zina Guinot Reinders, Jacob Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Conference	VI AJICEDE
Place	Logroño (Spain)
Year	2023
Character	International



**Papers from the thesis accepted for future congresses:**

Article title	<b>EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF SELF-MANAGEMENT ON WELL-BEING: THE MODERATING ROLE OF TEAM LEARNING CAPABILITY</b>
Authors	Barghouti Abrini, Zina Clarke, Ronald Guinot Reinders, Jacob Chiva Gómez, Ricardo
Conference	XXXIII JORNADAS HISPANO-LUSAS
Place	Ceuta (Spain)
Year	2024
Character	International