

Emotional Intelligence and Compassion in Strategic Human Resources Management

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ABSTRACT

In an increasingly globalized and competitive world, employees who are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their organizations are an increasingly important competitive advantage for their organizations. Organizational environments characterized by high levels of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Self-Compassion (SC) promote greater employee satisfaction, commitment, and alignment with their organizations. Consequently, in today's world, it is of utmost importance that organizations benefit from Strategic Human Resources Management (SHRM), which promotes high levels of EI and SC, increasing job satisfaction and commitment. This study analyzes the impact of EI and SC on the satisfaction and well-being of employees of three Azorean organizations from different sectors. For this purpose, primary data were obtained at the micro level of the employees, as well as their level of EI and SC, through scales in line with the state of the art of Human Resource Management, Organizational Psychology and Contextual Therapy, namely the Situational Test for Emotional Understanding (STEU-B), the Situational Test for Emotional Management (STEM-B), the Self-Care Compassion Scale (SEFLCS), the Mindful Scale of Self-Care (MSCS), the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and the Appreciation and Recognition at Work (VR). Significant differences in the scores of the scales and subscales are identified, including those related to gender. Through the estimation of ordered probit models, we find the empirical determinants of job satisfaction. Women have higher values of JSS, MSCS, SEFLCS, STEU-B, STEM-B and VR compared to men. On average, the older the respondent, the lower the mean scores on the JSS, MSCS, SEFLCS, STEU-B, STEM-B, and VR scales. Healthcare professionals have higher average scores on JSS, not only compared to their counterparts in industry and tourism, but also compared to their North American counterparts. There is a high correlation between SEFLCS and JSS, suggesting that organizations that create compassionate work environments benefit from more satisfied and engaged employees. Similarly, there is a high correlation between MSCS and JSS, as well as between VR and JSS. There is a strong correlation between the STEU-B and STEM-B scales, but not between these scores and JSS. We also uncover a statistically significant positive correlation between compassion in the workplace as perceived by employees and their reported job satisfaction.

Keywords: Compassion in Organizations; Competitive Advantage of Organizations; Emotional Intelligence; Strategic Human Resources Management.

JEL Codes: O15



I. Introduction

Human beings spend a substantial part of their lives working, which is per se a matter of great importance in terms of how people feel in their workplaces, ideally with people's work contributing to their life's meaning, and, consequently, to their happiness.

As a consequence, it is important to rethink Strategic Human Resources Management (SHRM) models, as people who show signs of motivation at work are more creative, more productive, more satisfied with life and, consequently, happier. Therefore, SHRM should be based on the concepts of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and compassion, so that employees in organizations are equipped with psychological and emotional skills that allow them to deal with each other in an assertive and compassionate way, resulting in a mutually advantageous result for employees and their organizations, thus providing organizations with these skills, which should be seen as a sustainable competitive advantage.

This work studies the importance of EI and compassion in SRHM to understand how organizations can, simultaneously, present better competitive performance, while also being spaces for professional and personal well-being, including psychological and emotional well-being.

In this study, we follow the conceptual approach to well-being at work that considers the following three dimensions: job satisfaction, work involvement and affective organizational commitment. These three concepts, already consolidated in the field of HR Management and Organizational and Work Psychology, represent positive links with work (satisfaction and involvement) and with the organization (affective commitment) (Siqueira & Gomide Jr, 2004). Furthermore, the emotional connection with an organization can include positive emotional experiences, which translate into positive feelings, such as enthusiasm, pride, contentment, trust, attachment, and dedication. Therefore, the more we work on the concepts of EI and compassion within organizations, the better personal relationships and the work environment will be and, consequently, employee productivity will be higher. Therefore, it is essential to rethink organizations and their SHRM, since organizations where the concept of EI is present result in higher levels of personal and professional well-being, greater satisfaction with life, greater motivation and, consequently, fewer conflicts, more creativity, greater collaboration, more commitment, greater willingness to achieve the results desired by the organization and lower turnover, which will constitute an important competitive advantage for the organization (Brown et al., 2011; Goleman, 2007; Huang & Hsiao, 2007; Koys, 2001; Lance, 1991).

EI is the intelligent use of emotions, in which we intentionally manage them so that they guide our behavior, with the aim of achieving the results we desire (Goleman, 2007). Goleman (1998) confirms that "people with well-developed emotional skills are more likely to feel satisfied, to be effective in their lives and to master the mental habits that favor their own productivity". It is worth noting that EI, unlike certain purely cognitive abilities, can improve throughout life, as it depends on people and their willingness to cultivate it, so it should be SRHM's aim to promote increasing EI.

Recently, a growing number of authors have been researching how so-called compassionate organizations can provide better psychological, physical, mental, and emotional well-being to their employees, while they benefit from greater motivation and commitment, which should lead to greater productivity, via greater retention, less absenteeism and less idle work that, in turn, constitutes a competitive advantage (Araújo et al., 2016; Frost et al., 2000).

The concept of compassion consists of the ability to identify and feel the emotions of others as our own, accompanied by a desire to reverse situations marked by suffering. Organizations can equip themselves with mechanisms for identifying these situations, accompanied by mechanisms for managing them, leading to less absenteeism by reducing the incidence of long-term illnesses, such as depression and anxiety, as well as preventing the occurrence of situations that harm the productivity and effectiveness of employees' actions (including professional "hazard"). Likewise, it is also relevant to mention the concept of self-compassion. Organizations that contribute to the development of self-compassion should experience work environments where the level of well-being is higher.

It should be noted that in our contemporary economy of knowledge and innovation, the vital attraction and retention of talent involves the humanization of organizations, including the defense of values with which employees and other stakeholders identify. The most successful organizations in the world invest heavily in building humanized interfaces that reflect an attractive organizational culture, marked by concerns regarding the performance of "Diversity Equity and Inclusion" (DEI), which can even dictate the admissibility of these organizations as recipients of investment from discerning investors; for instance, Google created the Google Empathy Lab, which aims to understand, on a scientific basis, how empathetic and compassionate environments can be built, in order to promote organizational well-being.

This paper studies the prevalence of EI, as well as compassion in organizations in the Azores and how they are related to job satisfaction, by carrying out surveys among employees of three organizations in the health sector, in the private (hospitality) services sector and in the private manufacturing production sector, respectively. This study is the first in this field, EI and compassion and SRHM, which focuses on organizations in the Azores.

Primary data were collected from employees of the three Azorean organizations, through a survey, which was based on several scales, namely: a scale that measures emotional perception, Situational Test of Emotional Understanding, STEU-B (Allen et al., 2014); a scale that measures emotional regulation, Situational Test of Emotional Management, STEM-B (Allen et al., 2015); a scale that measures self-care, Mindful Self-Care Scale, MSCS (Cook-Cottone & Guyker, 2018); a scale that measures self-compassion, Self-Compassion Scale, SELFCS (Neff, 2003); a scale that measures job satisfaction, Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985, 1997); and, finally, a new scale that measures appreciation and recognition at work, valorization and recognition, proposed by us. Subsequently, a statistical, qualitative, and quantitative, analysis was carried out, using parametric and non-parametric analysis.

The remaining part of this paper is organized as follows. Chapter II presents a literature review. Chapter III focuses on the methodology and data processing processes. Chapter IV presents and discusses the results of the analysis. Finally, Chapter V highlights the main conclusions and limitations of the study and suggests recommendations for future research.

II. Literature Review

Compassion is a topic that, given its importance and transformative power, has been gaining more and more prominence in the organizational field, when discussing new forms of Strategic Human Resources Management (SHRM).

Gilbert (2005) presents an approach to compassion based on an evolutionary model of the theory of social mentalities. The capacity for compassion is linked to motivational, emotional, and cognitive-behavioral skills, which, in turn, are the result of the evolution of the species, of caring for others and increasing the species' chances of survival and prosperity. Furthermore, Gilbert adds that self-oriented compassion – self-compassion – involves the same skills underlying compassion towards others, namely: the development of authentic concern for our well-being; learning to be sensitive, understanding, and tolerant of our discomfort and developing a deep understanding (empathy) of its origin; becoming non-judgmental/critical; and developing “self-warmth” (Gilbert & Procter, 2006).

According to Dutton et al. (2014), compassion in the organizational context is an organizational process that involves attention and perception of suffering, as well as the interpretation of this suffering in the professional context. As such, this process informs the emergence of feelings, motivation, and actions that are taken in response to this suffering. It is a social-organizational process that arises from compassion as an individual emotion in its initial stage. The authors characterize this process in four distinct stages: (i) attention to suffering; (ii) creation of meaning in response to the suffering; (iii) feeling of empathic concern, and, finally, (iv) action to alleviate the suffering.

According to Neff (2003), there is ample and clear empirical evidence in the literature of the negative consequences of the inability to nurture self-compassion, which is associated with self-criticism, depression, anxiety, rumination, thought suppression, neurotic perfectionism, and negative affectivity. On the other hand, the ability to nurture compassion is positively associated with life satisfaction, happiness, EI, social connectedness, wisdom, personal initiative, optimism, curiosity, exploration, agreeableness, extroversion, conscientiousness, and positive affectivity in general.

Thus, the positive relationship between self-compassion and mental well-being gives rise to the perception of the advantage of promoting it in the context of organizations, since, in addition to the positive evidence of self-compassion as a trait, it is possible to promote self-compassionate states (see “The Compassionate Mind Training”, proposed by Gilbert and Procter (2006), and therapies that focus on self-acceptance or emotional self-regulation, such as Gestalt Therapy and Self-Compassion Focused Therapy).

According to Goleman (2007), among the most diverse successful businesspeople, there is a prevailing thought that profit should not be the only indicator of performance or organizational “success”. Therefore, and in accordance with empirical evidence, it can be stated that organizations with a more humanized vision and culture, in which compassion is at the core of the organizational culture, take into account not only results in terms of profit, but also the social and environmental impact of the organization, as with this “triple bottom line” they will be thinking in compassionate terms at the level of the organization's internal environment, as well as at the level of the external context in which it operates. An employee who feels that they are working in a compassionate environment feels a greater degree of commitment to the organization where they work; therefore, there is an almost natural phenomenon of attraction and retention of talents and greater productivity of employees: a critical factor of competitive advantage in a competitive and global economy.

In this study, the adopted definition of compassion is the act of feeling the passion or suffering of another person, that is, perceiving the pain of the other person, having as a reference the space and context of organizations, as there is a relationship that generates a feeling between the subjects involved – the one who suffers and the one who is a witness to such suffering (de Lima, 2012). Here, we are in the presence of a deep feeling towards suffering in the work environment, generating compassionate attitudes between individuals themselves and the respective actions of organizations, with the aim of minimizing this pain - when they incorporate the practice of compassion into management, including when it comes to what governs the relationship between leaders and followers (Dutton et al., 2002).

The term “compassion” began to be studied in a more systematic and attentive way, in the context of organizations, in the USA, around the 2000s (see, inter alia, Dutton et al., 2002; Dutton et al., 2007; Dutton et al., 2014; Dutton et al., 2006; Karakas & Sarigollu, 2013).

In this paper, we support a constructive approach to compassion, since there are mechanisms that generate compassion and that can result in benefits for both employees and their organizations.

The word ‘compassion’ has its roots in the Latin - ‘passio’, meaning suffering, plus ‘with’, that is, together (suffering with). The most used definition in the literature describes compassion as a process that is composed of several moments, concomitantly when suffering is noted in the work environment, that is, it is a process in which someone notices, feels, and responds to the pain of another, with the aim of alleviating it (Dutton et al., 2014). Thus, it can be said that the day-to-day life of organizations is a scenario where countless situations of compassion can be seen. However, there are still many organizations that have not yet adopted a culture based on compassion and have in place a strategy that is seen to be a defensive and occasional strategy. It is therefore crucial to promote and experience a turning point in which compassion can inspire formal Human Resources Management policies, to the point of establishing and structuring an effective compassionate Strategic Human Resources Management model.

According to Lilius et al. (Lilius et al., 2011), suffering is defined as unpleasant physical and emotional experiences, psychological stress, and existential anguish itself.

If there is a perception of employees' feelings of pain, in which the respective compassionate actions are implemented, suffering in the workplace decreases and, consequently, the connection with colleagues increases, as well as the bonds of belonging to the organization are strengthened (Dutton et al., 2002). As such, it can be said that compassion has a transformative effect on relationships between members of work teams (Dutton & Workman, 2011). Evidence shows that employees, when forced to repress their painful feelings, have consequences in terms of job performance, with inherent costs, as well as occupational and organizational hazards (Dutton & Workman, 2011).

By institutionalizing compassionate acts, organizations create positive connections with and among their employees. As such, the systemic appreciation of compassion can add individual and organizational gains (Frost, 1999). Furthermore, the implementation of compassion within organizations does not require an increase in costs, as there is no need to change the structure of the organization, nor capital costs, as compassion becomes a dynamic process built into the organizational fabric. Over time, compassion as a value becomes part of the organization's culture (Dutton et al., 2002), an intrinsic part of the Strategic Human Resources Management processes. Compassion becomes a competitive advantage for organizations, as it reduces the suffering of their employees, transforms workplaces into pleasant places, contributing to increased motivation, creativity, physical and psychological well-being of their employees, increasing their productivity, reducing absenteeism, mere on-site attendance (underperformance, stemming from idle human capital potential) and unwanted turnover and, finally, increased profits.

Dutton et al. (2006) study how responding to pain, caused by certain events, can generate relief and well-being for those involved, as well as intensify the feeling of belonging and emotional bonds between colleagues and with the organization itself and their common objectives. Faced with the pain experienced by their members, organizations can respond, providing relief and/or mitigating the impacts of the event that caused the said pain, avoiding transactional logic that interprets employees as mere factors of production and not human beings who carry emotions. From a humanist perspective, Dutton et al. (2006) developed the Compassion Organization Theory, which argues that it is possible to redesign organizations with one of the objectives being to achieve the innovative ability to respond to the pain of its employees, in addition to traditional objectives and in complementarity to these.

According to Goleman (1998), EI is defined as “the ability to recognize our feelings and those of others, to motivate ourselves and to manage emotions well within ourselves and in our relationships”. As such, we are in the presence of distinct qualities, but which are complementary to academic intelligence as they are purely cognitive abilities and measured by IQ. However, it is important to note that there are many people with interesting educational qualifications, but who largely lack EI, and who often end up working for people who have a lower IQ, but superior EI levels.

These two types of intelligence – intellectual and emotional – are associated with the activity of different regions of the brain. Intellect is based solely on the functioning of the neocortex, the most recently evolved regions located in the outer layer of the brain. The

emotional centers are inside the brain, in the oldest subcortex; EI is associated with the functioning of these emotional centers, in conjunction with the intellectual centers.

Among the most influential intelligence theorists who highlighted the difference between intellectual and emotional capacities, Howard Gardner stands out, and presented a model of Multiple Intelligences in 1983. His list of seven types of intelligence included not only verbal and mathematical abilities, but also two personal variables: knowledge of one's inner world and social aptitude.

A broad theory of EI was proposed in 1990 by two psychologists, Peter Salovey and John Mayer. Another pioneering EI model was proposed in the 1980s by Reuven Bar-On, another prominent psychologist. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined EI in terms of one being able to monitor and regulate one's own and others' feelings and to use these feelings as a guide to a certain and desired action. Daniel Goleman (Goleman, 1995) adapted this model to a version that seems to be more useful for understanding how these talents and capacities matter in a work environment. Thus, Goleman's framework includes five basic emotional and social components:

- **Self-awareness:** Knowing what we feel and using these preferences to guide our decision-making; having a realistic assessment of our own capabilities and a well-founded sense of self-confidence.
- **Self-regulation:** Managing our emotions in a way that facilitates – rather than interferes with – the tasks we must perform; be conscientious and delay gratification to achieve goals; have the ability to recover well from emotional depression.
- **Motivation:** Using our deepest preferences to advance and guide us towards our goals, to help us take the initiative and be highly efficient, and to persist in the face of setbacks and frustrations.
- **Empathy:** Understanding what people feel, being able to adopt their perspective and cultivating bonds and harmony with a wide range of people.
- **Social Skills:** Managing emotions well in relationships and accurately reading social situations; interacting with harmony; using these skills to persuade and lead, negotiate, and resolve disputes for cooperation and teamwork.

EI emerged in the 1980s and began to gain more importance around 1990, with Peter Salovey and Mayer. According to these authors, EI consists of managing the feelings and emotions of people, being able to make a clear distinction between feelings and emotions to guide our thoughts and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

In 1995, with the launch of the book “Emotional Intelligence” by Daniel Goleman, which explained scientific discoveries and changed the standards, methods, and procedures that were deeply rooted in organizations, such as the conventional Human Resources Processes, with hiring based solely on IQ and technical and functional performance. According to Goleman (1995), “in the early 1980s, Reuven Bar-On was the pioneer in proposing an EI model with 15 key skills, based on five general concepts; In 1983, Howard Gardner proposed a model of multiple intelligence that pointed to the distinction between intellectual and emotional abilities.”

According to Goleman (2007), “we have two types of intelligence: IQ and EQ (Emotional Quotient) ... and there are people with little academic and intellectual

knowledge who manage to obtain great results in their organizations. It is as if IQ influences the planning of good ideas and EQ puts everything into practice". However, it is also important to highlight the concept of emotional competence, which includes both social and emotional skills and is a learned ability based on EI, and its presence in an employee results in superior performance in the workplace. "All studies generally point to the fact that EI plays a central role in superior professional performance, greater than cognitive abilities and specialized technical knowledge" (Goleman, 2007).

Therefore, and given the pressing importance of developing EI in people and, more specifically, in employees, organizations are increasingly aware that this ability must be present in their employees, as a way for their talents to constitute a sustainable competitive advantage, which explains why organizations are adopting selection methods that assess emotional capabilities.

Hence, personal qualities such as EI, resilience, initiative, optimism, and adaptability are receiving renewed appreciation. In our globally competitive economy, with its inexorably fiercer competitive pressures, organizations value more than ever self-motivated people, with the capacity to take initiatives and in possession of perennial optimism. Therefore, in a recruitment and selection process, it is essential that organizations measure EI.

Another issue that can be more easily resolved within an organization, when its employees have EI, is the way in which internal conflicts are resolved, given that those who have EI always want to be part of the solution and never part of the problem. According to Goleman (1998) "(...) the parameters of the labor market are changing. It no longer only matters how intelligent we are, nor our training or degree of specialization, but also the way we deal with ourselves and others (...). It is true that these ideas are not new. What is new is the data. Today, we have the results of twenty-five years of empirical studies that confirm how important EI is for success." This statement leads us to think beyond the concept of EI as a retention tool for talent. In fact, and quite importantly, this logic takes us to the concepts of self-compassion and compassion to the extent that if we are emotionally intelligent and if we use this ability in the sense of being aware that it is not enough to deal transactionally with others, but to deal with empathy and compassion, we will have organizations with work teams focused on their objectives and solving problems, with the certainty that, if someone is in a more vulnerable situation and needs help, they know they can count on their colleagues, or even with managers to help solve their problem, thus making the organization not only emotionally more intelligent, but also more humanized.

Indeed, and according to Goleman (1998), there is good news regarding EI, as it can be learned. At the individual level, it is possible to learn this skill to guarantee another competitive advantage for employees and their organizations.

III. Methods

A. Instruments

A survey was conducted to measure EI, self-compassion, and job satisfaction based on a questionnaire that began by asking the respondent for socio-demographic information, followed by items related to the scales described below.

Situational Test of Emotional Understanding – STEU–B

The Situational Test of Emotional Understanding - STEU-B scale is the short version of the scale as proposed and found in Allen et al. (2014), which measures emotional understanding, a critical component of EI. In each item, the respondent is required to answer which of five emotions is most likely to result from a given emotional situation. Allen et al. (2014) show that the short form of the test (19 items) contains the same statistical information as the long form (42 items). In order to save response time, the STEU-B short version was chosen (Allen et al., 2014). MacCann and Roberts (2008) and Roseman and Smith (2001) are two prominent references in this literature and explain the basis of the construction of the items included in this scale. Each item contains only one correct answer; if the answer is correct (incorrect), a value of zero is assigned. With 19 items, the maximum value is 19 and the minimum value is zero, with the STEU-B score being the simple arithmetic sum of the items answered (0 or 1). The authors do not suggest cut-off values for the score to be considered particularly high or low. Allen et al. (2014) report a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.63 for the short version of the scale.

Situational Test of Emotional Management – STEM–B

The Situational Test of Emotional Management - STEM-B scale measures emotional regulation (MacCann & Roberts, 2008). In this study, we follow Allen et al. (2015), who propose a short version (Brief or B) that contains in 18 items, in a statistical and substantive sense, the information previously obtained from 44 items (long version), based on the Portuguese version of da Motta et al. (2021). Allen et al. (2015) demonstrated, using Item Response Theory and Latent Class Analysis, that the application of these 18 items is sufficient to measure an individual's ability to manage emotions. The test was developed using qualitative analysis based on semi-structured interviews and scored according to the judgment of experts in the field. Allen et al. (2015) report a Cronbach's alpha of 0.84 for the short version of the scale.

In applying the scale, each respondent is given a brief description of an emotional situation and is asked to choose one of four possible responses about the most effective course of action to manage both the emotions experienced by the person in the emotional situation and the problems that the situation is intended to solve. The goal is not to determine what the respondent would do if they were directly involved in the situation, or what they would find most pleasant, but rather the most effective response to the situation in question. It should be noted that certain items allow for more than one correct answer, with some answers being more valid than others. In only one of the 18 items (item 4, to be precise) is there only one correct answer, while the others are

completely wrong. In this case, the correct answer is marked with one and the incorrect one with zero. For the other items, the following combinations are allowed: {0;0.25;0.75}; {0;0.083;0.917}; {0;0.167;0.833}; {0;0.083;0.167;0.75}. Therefore, the sum of the scores for each item is 1 for all items; however, because only one response is possible per item and not all items allow a score of 1, the maximum score on this scale is not 18, but 14.167. The authors of the scale do not suggest any cut-off values.

Mindful Self-Care Scale – MSCS

The Mindful Self-Care Scale (MSCS) follows Cook-Cottone and Guyker (2018), adapted and validated for Portugal by Cabral et al. (2021). The Portuguese version consists of 42 items, which are aligned with a set of actionable practices that promote well-being and positive emotions. The items are grouped into the following eight subscales: physical care (eight items), supportive relationships (five items), mindful awareness (four items), self-compassion and self-purpose (six items), mindful relaxation (six items), support structure (four items), clinical (six items), and general (three items). Each item is scored on a Likert scale and measures the frequency with which you engage in the behavior in a given week: 1 = Never - 0 days (per week); 2 = Rarely - 1 day (per week); 3 = Sometimes - 2 to 3 days (per week); 4 = Often - 3 to 5 days (per week); 5 = Always - 6 to 7 days (per week). The total score is obtained by summing the scores for all items and calculating the scores for the subscales.

Self-care is defined as the daily process of being attentive to one's physiological and psychological needs, including the way in which one's daily routine is defined and one's intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships, as well as the environment, are viewed as necessary to promote self-care. The mindful dimension addresses the issue of self-care as well as awareness of the importance of mindfulness for well-being.

Mindful self-care is seen as fundamental and necessary for physical and emotional well-being and is associated with good physical health, emotional well-being, and mental health. Ongoing and intentional practice of self-care is seen as protective, preventing the onset of symptoms of mental illness, work, and school burnout, and improving productivity. This scale is designed to help individuals identify the areas of intentional self-care behavior that they are doing well in and those that could be improved.

Self-Compassion Scale – SELFCS

The Self-Compassion Scale (SELFCS) follows Neff (2003), adapted for the Portuguese version of the Self-Compassion Scale by Castilho et al. (2015). This scale assesses the three basic components of self-compassion: self-kindness, human condition or common humanity, and mindfulness.

Its 26 items are divided into six subscales: self-kindness (five items); self-judgement or self-criticism (five items); human condition (four items); isolation (four items); mindfulness (four items); and over-identification (four items). Each item is answered on a Likert scale: 1 = almost never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = often; 5 = almost always. The total score is obtained by adding up all the items and calculating the values for the subscales. To harmonize the results and facilitate comparison between the subscales, the total score per subscale is divided by the number of items for each subscale. It should be

noted that some items are recoded because some of them, associated with the self-criticism, isolation, and over-identification subscales, are reversed. Neff (2003) reports Cronbach's alpha values above 0.7 and does not suggest cut-off values.

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was developed by Paul E. Spector (1985) and adapted to the Portuguese version by Barreto Carvalho and J. Silva (2012). This scale consists of 36 items and is divided into nine subscales in order to obtain more detailed information, not only about the job, but also about attitudes towards the job. Each item is measured on a Likert scale: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = somewhat agree; 5 = moderately agree; 6 = strongly agree for the subscales. The JSS has some inverted items. The score for each of the subscales can range from 4 to 24 points, while the total score for the 36 items can range from 36 to 216 points. High scores on the JSS scale indicate high levels of job satisfaction.

Valorization and Recognition of Work (VR)

This scale was created by the author to measure the extent to which employees feel committed to the organization in which they work. The scale consists of seven questions measured on a 6-point Likert scale: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = somewhat agree; 5 = moderately agree; 6 = strongly agree. The items that make up the scale are 1 - "I feel that I am an integral part of the organization"; 2 - "I feel that my opinions are listened to and valued"; 3 - "I feel unique and special in the organization"; 4 - "Does my organization celebrate my birthday and/or other relevant personal events in my life?"; 5 - "Does my organization demonstrate an understanding of the more difficult moments/phases in my life?"; 6 - "Does my organization take care to provide facilities aimed at increasing the well-being and satisfying the needs of its employees during working hours and breaks?"; 7 - "Does my organization promote events that foster mutual understanding and cohesion among its employees (e.g. team building, Christmas parties)? The score for this scale is obtained by adding the values obtained for each response (from 6 to 36). The higher the score, the more engaged and valued employees feel by the organization they work for.

B. Procedures

The survey was conducted in three organizations on the island of São Miguel in the Autonomous Region of the Azores (RAA). Interest in organizations on the island of São Miguel is because, to the best of our knowledge, the subject of this dissertation has not yet been studied on the island of São Miguel, the most populous and important in generating employment and economic output in RAA. We chose to collect employee surveys from three organizations in the following areas: i) an industrial organization in the private sector ("Industry"); ii) an organization that owns several hotels in the private sector ("Tourism"); and a medical services organization in the public sector ("Health"). Considering organizations from different sectors (secondary vs. tertiary; private vs.

public) makes it possible to study differences in the phenomenon under analysis depending on the type of sector and organization.

The survey was based on a questionnaire developed in the Google Forms application. After explaining the objectives of the study to the governing bodies of the organizations invited to participate in the survey and ensuring the confidentiality and anonymity of the responses, an email was prepared and sent to the employees of the organizations inviting them to respond to the questionnaire between January 9 and February 21, 2021. Given the pandemic context during this period, online dissemination was preferred, which may have affected the response rate. The data were then processed using the Stata statistical software package, version 16.0, because of its versatility in handling databases and applying a wide range of statistical analyses in the social sciences.

C. Data analysis

This section describes the methods used to analyse the primary data collected. Due to the nature of the survey conducted, a qualitative analysis of the data was carried out from the outset, in order to understand how the scores of the different scales can be considered, i.e. whether they are high or low and, of course, whether patterns can be seen according to the socio-demographic indicators. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used in the study. The consistency of the data was assessed using the Cronbach's Alpha reliability indicator. Pearson's correlation coefficients are used to determine correlations between scales and subscales and their statistical significance ($p < 0.05$). Parametric tests were used to compare means between groups (t-test and ANOVA). Given the objective of explaining job satisfaction as a function, among others, of self-compassion and EI on the one hand, and the ordinal nature of job satisfaction on the other hand, ordered Probit and Logit models were applied. Graphical analysis (scatterplot and boxplot) was used to assess correlations and certain hypothetical patterns in the distribution of results

D. Sample characteristics

The original goal was to survey all employees of the organizations. However, the total number of completed surveys was $N = 60$. All surveys were completed in full, in part because the Google Forms were designed to require complete responses. We estimate that the number of respondents represents approximately 30% of the total number of employees in the three organizations considered. Although it was not possible to obtain a higher response rate, the sample size was considered sufficient since it allows the application of the usual statistical analysis techniques associated with the social sciences, as will be seen later in this document. In addition, as documented below, the responses are broadly reflective of the universe surveyed, so there is no a priori concern that the responses are concentrated in a particular or biased subset of potential respondents.

As documented in Table 1, most respondents (63%) are female, reflecting the greater weight of the female population in the employment structure of the tourism and health sectors. The tourism sector is the one that is most represented in the sample (55%). Approximately two-thirds of the sample is under the age of 40, and most respondents (55%) have a primary or secondary education.

Table 1: Sociodemographic characteristics (N = 60).

Variable	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative
Gender			
Female	38	63.33	63.33
Male	22	36.67	100.00
Sector			
Industry	13	21.67	21.67
Tourism	33	55.00	76.67
Health	14	23.33	100.00
Age group			
18-30	17	28.33	28.33
30-40	24	40.00	68.33
40-50	14	23.33	91.67
50-60	4	6.67	98.33
> 60	1	1.67	100.00
Education level			
Basic – 2 nd cycle	2	3.33	3.33
Basic – 3 rd cycle	5	8.33	11.67
Secondary	26	43.33	55.00
Bachelor	16	26.67	81.67
Master or Doctorate	11	18.33	100.00

IV. Results

A. Descriptive statistics

Table 2 presents descriptive statistics for all scales and items for the total sample and the gender subsamples. Reliability is confirmed by Cronbach's alpha, which is good ($\alpha > 0.7$) for the MSCS, SELFCS, JSS, and VR scales, and slightly below 0.7 for the STEU-B and STEU-M scales, but in line with the literature.

Furthermore, to analyze the consistency of the data collected, the reliability parameter was studied, applying a Structural Equation Model (SEM). The approach proposed by Baldwin (2019) was followed. It was assumed that there is a latent variable (i.e., unobserved factor) common to all items in this subscale, with the responses obtained being explained by this latent variable, as well as by an idiosyncratic or specific noise for each item. It should be noted that each subscale is designed to measure a common factor, so it is assumed that the common variance of the items belonging to this subscale reflects the common factor. However, there are several other reasons that can lead to variability in the items (from various levels of sensitivity or loading of respondents in relation to the common factor, errors by respondents when answering, different perceptions of respondents to the questions, including for reasons of semantic interpretation, among other reasons). Thus, we can decompose the variance observed in a given item into two components:

$$\sigma_{X_i}^2 = \sigma_C^2 + \sigma_U^2 \quad (1)$$

where $\sigma_{X_i}^2$ represents the variance of item i , σ_c^2 represents the common variance and σ_U^2 represents the variance of the single factor. The reliability parameter, ω , of the (sub)scale is given by the proportion of the total variance that is due to the common variance:

$$\omega = \frac{\sigma_c^2}{\sigma_c^2 + \sigma_U^2} \quad (2)$$

To measure σ_c^2 a Structural Equations Model (SEM) was adjusted, assuming a common factor for all items in the subscale. From the SEM model, we can obtain the factor loadings, which can be interpreted in the context of regression analysis in the usual way. Having obtained the factor loadings, it is possible to write ω as follows:

$$\omega = \frac{\Sigma(\lambda_i^2)\varphi_{11}}{\Sigma(\lambda_i^2)\varphi_{11} + \Sigma\theta_{ii}} \quad (3)$$

with $\sigma_c^2 = \Sigma(\lambda_i^2)\varphi_{11}$ being the sum of the squares of the factor loadings (λ_i) multiplied by the variance of the common factor (φ_{11}), and $\sigma_U^2 = \Sigma\theta_{ii}$ is the variance of the single factors, equal, in turn, to the sum of the individual variances (θ_{ii}). Subscript i represents the item. The SEM is estimated via Maximum Likelihood, with a good statistical fit (available upon request). We test the hypothesis that ω is statistically different from zero, via a test on a non-linear combination of the estimated parameters (Baldwin, 2019). In Table 2 we present the results for the MSCS Physical Care (CF) Subscale for the sake of illustration:

Table 2: Reliability Parameter for MSCS CF Subscale.

Coefficient	Standard deviation	z	$p > z $	[95% Conf. Interval]
0.756	0.046	16.25	0.000	0.665 – 0.847

As can be seen, ω is estimated with high precision (low standard deviation, high z -statistic and low p -value, with the 95% Confidence Interval not containing zero) and high. It should be noted that, as with Cronbach's alpha, there is no universal criterion for considering a certain value of the reliability parameter ω to be acceptable or not. However, the estimated value is considered high, taking into account the references found in the literature on SEM and applications to Social Sciences. Therefore, we conclude that the consistency of the Physical Care subscale is indeed high. Analysis of the consistencies of the remaining subscales was carried out in the same way, namely through the analysis of the correlations of the different items for each subscale, as well as Cronbach's alpha. Correlations of the subscale of any given scale are statistically positive, as expected. For parsimony of exposure, reliability parameters are not reported, as they are, like Cronbach's alpha, high.

However, given that we are proposing a new scale – Value and Recognition at Work (VR) – that has not been used elsewhere, we present the consistency analysis results. Therefore, it is important to check the validity and internal consistency, so, in addition

to Cronbach's alpha, we estimate the reliability parameter (omega, ω), as suggested by Baldwin (2019). The Work Appreciation and Recognition (VR) scale has seven items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.8196, meaning it has appropriate internal consistency. Next, the estimated value for the reliability parameter (omega, ω) is presented, as well as the respective standard deviation and significance test (by maximum likelihood, after estimating the SEM model, in Stata 16.0). Hence, we conclude that the new scale VR has interesting consistency levels.

Table 3: Reliability Parameter for VR Scale.

	Coefficient.	Standard deviation	[95% Conf. Interval]
ω	0.827	0.034	0.761 – 0.894

After documenting the high consistency of the subscales and scales, we analyze the results. Concerning the MSCS scale, on average, females obtained higher average scores, with the exception of the supportive relationships' subscale. The values obtained can be considered high and are higher for women. This is indicative that the employees who took part in this study may not only have good mental health, but also good professional performance and feel good.

On the SELFCS, women scored higher on average, with the exception of the self-judgment and isolation subscales. Evidence presented by Neff, the author of the SELFCS, suggests that self-compassion is positively correlated with mental health and that people with self-compassion are less likely to develop depression, anxiety, and to be dissatisfied with life. As self-compassion includes self-kindness rather than self-criticism, it is expected that SELFCS scores will be negatively correlated with measures of self-criticism. Similarly, because self-compassion involves seeing the suffering of others in light of an experience of shared humanity, SELFCS scores are expected to be positively correlated with measures of social connectedness. Furthermore, because self-compassion encompasses a state of good mental health and acts as a protective factor against negative life experiences, it is expected that SELFCS scores will show a positive correlation with measures of EI.

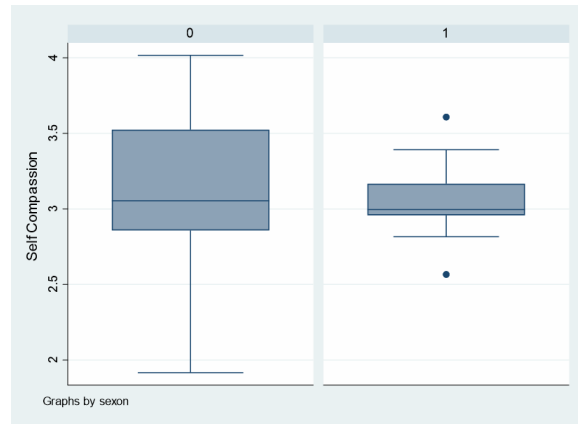
The SELFCS study also considered gender differences in self-compassion. As women tend to have a more interdependent sense of self (Cross & Madson, 1997; Gilligan, 1989) and are more empathetic than men (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983; Zahn-Waxler et al., 1991), it is expected that women will be more self-compassionate than men. On the other hand, there is empirical evidence that women have a natural tendency to be more self-critical and to engage in more rumination than men (Leadbeater et al., 1999), suggesting that women may have lower self-compassion scores. Given this conflict of expectations, no conclusions were drawn regarding the relationship between self-compassion and gender. Figure 1 shows a higher distribution of SELFCS scores for women than for men.

Table 4: Scales and item descriptives.Note: *M* – Mean; *SD* – Standard deviation.

Scale/Item	Mea- sure	Male		Female		Total	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
MSCS ($\alpha = 0.78$)	1-5	3.00	0.58	3.24	0.61	3.16	0.61
Physical care		2.70	0.64	2.65	0.58	2.67	0.60
Supportive relationships		3.53	0.96	3.81	0.98	3.70	0.97
Mindful awareness		3.17	0.69	3.31	0.78	3.26	0.74
Self-care and sense of purpose		2.89	0.57	3.33	0.77	3.17	0.73
Mindful relaxation		2.77	0.84	3.09	0.75	2.97	0.79
Structure support		3.39	0.78	3.51	0.71	3.46	0.73
Clinical care		2.58	0.56	3.01	0.76	2.85	0.72
SELFCS ($\alpha = 0.91$)	1-5	3.06	0.23	3.13	0.46	3.10	0.39
Self-kindness		2.68	0.63	2.95	0.84	2.85	0.77
Self-judgment		3.18	0.71	3.07	0.64	3.11	0.66
Common humanity		2.94	0.58	3.19	0.77	3.10	0.71
Isolation		3.32	0.69	3.25	0.77	3.28	0.74
Mindfulness		3.03	0.59	3.11	0.67	3.08	0.64
Over-identified		3.18	0.83	3.18	0.76	3.18	0.78
JSS ($\alpha = 0.82$)	1-6	13.73	2.44	14.33	2.61	14.11	2.54
Salary		11.32	4.44	11.26	4.26	11.28	4.29
Promotion		11.86	4.49	11.76	3.59	11.80	3.90
Supervision		15.82	4.88	17.47	5.43	16.87	5.25
Benefits		11.91	3.68	11.89	3.83	11.90	3.74
Rewards		12.00	4.83	12.79	3.86	12.50	4.22
Working conditions		13.59	1.94	13.42	2.80	13.48	2.50
Colleagues		15.91	3.50	16.76	4.10	16.45	3.88
Nature of work		17.09	3.52	18.61	3.72	18.05	3.69
Communication		14.09	3.52	14.97	3.98	14.65	3.81
STEU - B ($\alpha = 0.65$)	0- 14.17	9.00	3.19	9.13	2.80	9.08	2.92
STEM - B ($\alpha = 0.67$)	0-19	8.74	2.34	9.15	2.45	9.00	2.40
VR ($\alpha = 0.82$)	1-6	3.27	1.01	3.70	1.06	3.55	1.05
I feel that I am an integral part of the organization.		3.41	1.50	4.39	1.37	4.03	1.48
I feel that my opinions are listened to and valued.		3.41	1.22	3.74	1.20	3.62	1.21
I feel unique and special in the organization.		3.09	1.72	2.92	1.34	2.98	1.48
Does my organization celebrate my birthday and/or other relevant personal events in my life?		2.91	1.82	3.42	1.72	3.23	1.76
Does my organization demonstrate an understanding of the more difficult moments/phases in my life?		3.23	1.45	3.95	1.49	3.68	1.50
Does my organization take care to provide facilities aimed at increasing the well-being and satisfying the needs of its employees during working hours and breaks?		3.64	1.84	3.87	1.51	3.78	1.63
Does my organization promote events that foster mutual understanding and cohesion among its employees (e.g. team building, Christmas parties)?		3.27	1.42	3.66	1.65	3.52	1.57

Figure 1
SELFCS by gender (box-plot).

Note: 0 – Female; 1 – Male.



In order to interpret the results obtained on the JSS, we will consider the following cut-offs, which indicate the degree of dissatisfaction and satisfaction with the job: scores from 4 to 12 represent dissatisfaction with the job; scores from 12 to 24 represent satisfaction with the job (Spector, 1997). The results show that both men and women are satisfied with their jobs. Both women and men are dissatisfied with their salary, opportunities for promotion, and benefits (monetary and non-monetary). In contrast, both have scores indicating satisfaction with supervision, rewards (recognition and rewards for good performance), working conditions and communication, and high satisfaction with colleagues and the nature of the work.

Table 5: Comparison of JSS scores in the health sector.

Note: *M* – Mean; *SD* – Standard deviation.

Scale/Item	Spector		Sample	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Total JSS scale	13.73	2.44	14.33	2.61
Salary	11.32	4.44	11.26	4.26
Promotion	11.86	4.49	11.76	3.59
Supervision	15.82	4.88	17.47	5.43
Benefits	11.91	3.68	11.89	3.83
Rewards	12.00	4.83	12.79	3.86
Working conditions	13.59	1.94	13.42	2.80
Colleagues	15.91	3.50	16.76	4.10
Nature of work	17.09	3.52	18.61	3.72
Communication	14.09	3.52	14.97	3.98

It should be noted that Spector presents reference values for job satisfaction scores, both for the JSS scale and for the nine subscales of the JSS scale, for different professions and organizations (with a special focus on North America). In particular, the reference values presented by Spector for health professionals allow a comparison with the scores obtained in the health sector. Table 5 shows the comparison between the scores

presented by Spector and the average scores of this study for the healthcare sector. As can be seen, the health professionals surveyed in this study on the island of São Miguel have average scores for all the subscales that are lower than the reference values reported by Spector.

Analysis of the results obtained on the STEU-B (Table 2) shows a difference in the average score for women and men, which is consistent with the results presented by Allen et al. (2014). Women also score higher on the STEM-B scale. However, these differences are not statistically significant.

As for the VR scale, men scored below the mean, indicating that they feel their work is not valued and recognized, in contrast to women who feel their work is valued and recognized. In this case, the difference between the mean scores of women and men is statistically significant at 6% ($p = 0.06$).

B. Analysis of differences

This section analyzes the differences in the means of the MSCS, SELFCS, JSS, STEU-B, STEM-B, and VR scales for the different gender, education, age, and industry groups. Table 6 presents the means for the items of these scales.

Table 6: Scale descriptives by sociodemographic characteristics.

Note: *M* – Mean.

	Cases	MSCS	SELFCS	JSS	STEU-B	STEM-B	VR
Gender							
Female	38	3.24	3.13	14.33	9.13	9.15	4.12
Male	22	3.00	3.06	13.73	9.00	8.74	3.72
Sector							
Industry	13	2.97	3.02	14.42	10.15	9.44	3.64
Tourism	33	3.26	3.14	15.10	8.27	8.38	4.39
Health	14	3.09	3.07	11.48	10.00	10.06	3.32
Age group							
18-30	17	3.37	3.09	14.93	9.59	9.19	4.55
30-40	24	3.13	3.10	13.60	9.17	9.20	3.85
40-50	14	2.95	3.00	13.26	8.43	8.39	3.65
50-60	4	2.95	3.00	13.26	8.43	8.39	3.65
> 60	1	3.05	3.39	15.78	7.00	9.42	4.43
Education level							
Basic – 2 nd cycle	2	2.92	2.80	16.28	6.00	9.13	4.21
Basic – 3 rd cycle	3	3.04	3.32	14.51	9.40	9.15	3.54
Secondary	26	3.19	3.03	14.86	8.69	8.78	4.33
Bachelor	16	3.38	3.24	13.40	10.06	9.81	3.79
Master or Doctorate	11	3.03	3.02	12.60	9.60	8.73	3.81

The average MSCS scale score for women is higher than the average score for men (which happens in six of the seven MSCS subscales, the exception being physical care). To analyze the statistical significance of this difference, a t-test was performed, which resulted in a p-value of 0.07. Therefore, at 10% confidence, the hypothesis that women have a higher mean MSCS value than men cannot be rejected. It should be noted that women also present, on average, higher values than men in the scores for the JSS, SELFCS, STEU-B, STEM-B and VR scales. Clark (1997), among other authors,

documents that job satisfaction tends to be higher in women compared to men. However, using the t-test analysis, only in the case of VR is this difference significant ($p = 0.06$). In any case, it is interesting to note that women have higher scores than men on all scales considered (the issue of statistical significance is perhaps influenced by the sample size). Several methods were used to assess the statistical significance of these results, including non-parametric methods.

Regarding the level of education, the data suggest that higher levels of education tend to be associated with higher MSCS and SELFCS scores and lower JSS levels. However, an ANOVA analysis suggests that equality of means between the different levels of education for MSCS, SELFCS, STEUB, STEMB VR should not be rejected, although it is possible to reject equality of means for JSS ($p = 0.06$). Regardless, the low number of observations recorded in certain cells suggests a cautious approach in a hypothesis testing analysis plan.

With regards to age, and as there is only one respondent in the class over 60 years old, this section ignores this age group. The older the age, the lower, on average, the MSCS, SELFCS, JSS, STEU-B, STEM-B and VR scores. However, an ANOVA analysis suggests that equality of means between the different levels of education for MSCS, SELFCS, STEU-B, STEM-B should not be rejected, although it is possible to reject equality of means for JSS and VR ($p = 0.07$ and 0.09 , respectively).

With regards to the sector, it should be noted that the ANOVA analysis suggests rejecting equality of average scores across sectors for JSS (highest tourism; lowest health; $p = 0.00$), STEU-B (highest industry; lowest tourism; $p = 0.05$), STEM-B (highest health; lowest tourism; 0.06) and VR (highest health; lowest tourism; 0.007). It is worth noting that in the health and tourism sectors, it is likely that there would be higher average scores for STEU-B and STEM-B, as emotional understanding is particularly essential for good professional and relational performance.

Therefore, it is possible to identify certain differences in the mean scores of the different scales for certain groups, with the JSS and VR scales showing greater variation (in the sense of rejecting equality of means more frequently). It is interesting to note the higher scores for women and for certain sectors of activity. Finally, the results documented were corroborated by non-parametric tests such as Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Willis.

C. Correlations

According to Table 7, the MSCS scale scores are positively correlated with the SELFCS scale scores and in a statistically significant way ($p = 0.06$). Likewise, the MSCS scale scores are positively correlated with the STEU-B scale scores ($p = 0.09$). It should also be noted that the MSCS scale scores are positively correlated with the VR scale scores and in a statistically significant way, with a very low p-value. The SELFCS scale scores are positively correlated with the JSS scale scores and in a statistically significant way ($p = 0.01$). The JSS scale scores are negatively correlated with the STEU-B scale scores and in a statistically significant way at 10% confidence ($p = 0.09$). It should be noted that the JSS scale scores are positively correlated with the VR scale scores and in a statistically significant way, with a very low p-value ($p = 0.0008$). The scores on the STEU-B and

STEM-B scales are positively correlated and statistically significant ($p = 0.0004$). It is worth highlighting that these results are in line with the literature (Allen et al., 2015; Allen et al., 2014).

Table 7: Correlations.

Note: r – Pearson correlation; p -value – Sig. (2-tailed). Statistically significant correlations are presented in **bold**.

Constructs		MSCS	SELFCS	JSS	STEU - B	STEU - M	VR
MSCS	r	1					
	p -value						
SELFCS	r	0.349	1.000				
	p -value	0.006					
JSS	r	0.189	0.316	1.000			
	p -value	0.147	0.014				
STEU - B	r	0.221	-0.007	-0.221	1.000		
	p -value	0.090	0.956	0.090			
STEU - M	r	0.195	0.071	-0.106	0.445	1.000	
	p -value	0.136	0.590	0.420	0.000		
VR	r	0.455	-0.005	0.420	-0.014	-0.027	1.000
	p -value	0.000	0.971	0.001	0.915	0.836	

In relation to the VR scale, and as previously mentioned, its scores are strongly correlated with the scores of the JSS scale and with the scores of the MSCS scale, both for women and men (results not shown), and these correlations are statistically significant. It should be noted that the VR scale contains, as an item, a question that directly assesses the existence of organizational compassion. More specifically, Question 5 of the VR scale asks: “Does your organization demonstrate an understanding of the more difficult moments/phases of your life?” The scores for this item are positively correlated, +0.38, with the scores on the job satisfaction scale, JSS, with the correlations being statistically significant, both for women and men ($p = 0.01$ and 0.06 , respectively). Therefore, the results suggest that compassionate organizations, as perceived by their employees, have more satisfied employees.

It is also worth mentioning that the scores of the subscales of the JSS scale, namely, supervision, rewards, colleagues and nature of work, are positively and statistically significantly correlated with the scores of the self-compassion scale - SELFCS. The supervision and colleagues' subscales measure the quality of interpersonal relationships within the organization, indicating that we may be in the presence of relationships leading to greater compassion. It should be added that the scores on the self-care and sense of self-purpose subscale and the scores on the SELFCS self-compassion scale are strongly correlated, +0.35 ($p = 0.006$).

D. Relationship between emotional intelligence, self-compassion, and job satisfaction

In this section, we investigate the determinants of the level of satisfaction with work, or job satisfaction, measured by the JSS scale. This scale uses a Likert scale from 1 to 6 for each item, where, according to Spector, scores of 1 and 2 represent a feeling of

dissatisfaction, 3 and 4 represent an ambivalent feeling, and 5 and 6 a feeling of satisfaction. For sub-scales with four items each, we would have aggregate values of up to 8 corresponding to dissatisfaction, from 8 to 12, ambivalence, and finally, above 12, satisfaction. Thus, the level of job satisfaction can be divided into three levels: i) 0 - dissatisfied; ii) 1 - ambivalent and iii) 2 - satisfied. Spector also considers a simplification of this ordering, in which scores from 4 to 12 represent dissatisfaction and from 12 to 24 satisfaction; in this case, the degree of satisfaction with the job only has two levels: i) 0 - dissatisfied; ii) 1 - satisfied. The overall scale of 36 items is therefore normalized to meet these cut-offs. Job satisfaction is considered to be a limited variable (dependent, to be explained), following an ordered scale, either {0,1} or based on more values, such as {0,1,2}, but always based on non-negative integers, in which there is an ordinal logic. This characteristic of the dependent variable (its numerical limitation) suggests the use of ordered Probit regressions.

Below are the results for a Probit model in which the dependent variable is binary {0,1}, where 1 represents "satisfied" and occurs when the JSS score is greater than or equal to 12 (Table 8).

Table 8: JSS Probit regression.

Note: LR χ^2 – Likelihood ratio qui-square test; SE – Standard error; 95% CI – Confidence interval.

	Coef.	SE	z	P > z	[95% CI]	
					Number of observations	60
					LR χ^2	31.2
					Prob > χ^2	0.001
					Log likelihood	-11.431
					Pseudo R ²	0.577
Male	-0.04	0.823	-0.05	0.961	-1.653	1.573
Tourism	3.583	1.812	1.98	0.048	0.031	7.134
Health	2.097	1.227	1.71	0.087	-0.307	4.502
Secondary	-4.780	1219.63	0.00	0.997	-2395.19	2385.63
Bachelor	-4.667	1219.63	0.00	0.997	-2395.08	2385.74
Master or Doctorate	-4.234	1219.63	0.00	0.997	-2394.65	2386.18
STEM-B	0.0978	0.182	0.54	0.591	-0.258	0.454
STEU-B	-0.505	0.277	-1.83	0.068	-1.047	0.037
SELFCS	0.879	1.136	0.77	0.439	-1.348	3.106
VR	0.317	0.444	0.71	0.475	-0.553	1.188
MSCS	1.0243	0.764	1.34	0.180	-0.472	2.521
_cons	1.349	1219.63	0.00	0.999	-2389.07	2391.77

The explanatory variables are gender, including the dummy variable male (class excluded - female); industry, including the dummy variables tourism and health (class excluded - industry); education, including the dummy variables secondary, bachelor, master or doctorate (class excluded - basic cycle, i.e. lower than secondary). Also included: STEM-B, STEU-B to capture the effect of EI; SELFCS to assess whether different levels of self-compassion help predict job satisfaction; VR to determine whether different levels of appreciation and recognition help predict job satisfaction; and MSCS to assess whether different levels of MSCS help predict job satisfaction. It should be

noted that STEM-B, STEU-B, SELFCS, VR, and MSCS are found as continuous variables in the original scales described above. As can be seen from the regression (Table 8), in addition to the high fit of the model (LR χ^2 and pseudo R^2 values), being male leads to lower job satisfaction (in line with Clark, 1997). On the other hand, working in tourism or health is associated with higher job satisfaction and this effect is statistically significant. A higher score on the STEU-B scale is negatively related to the likelihood of being satisfied at work. In turn, higher scores on the STEM-B, SELFCS, MSCS, and VR scales are associated with a greater likelihood of being satisfied with one's job.

The following is an extension of the Probit model, namely the ordered probit model, where the dependent variable is job satisfaction, which takes the value 0 if dissatisfied, 1 if ambivalent, and 2 if satisfied. As can be seen in Table 9, the main conclusions remain unchanged.

Table 9: JSS ordered Probit regression.

Note: LR χ^2 – Likelihood ratio qui-square test; SE – Standard error; 95% CI – Confidence interval.

				Number of observations	60	
				LR χ^2	34.08	
				Prob > χ^2	0.0004	
				Log likelihood	-39.642	
				Pseudo R^2	0.301	
	Coef.	SE	z	P > z	[95% CI]	
Male	-0.496	0.399	-0.285	0.202	-1.258	0.265
Tourism	2.556	0.735	3.48	0.000	1.119	3.999
Health	2.017	0.673	3.00	0.003	0.698	3.336
Secondary	0.259	0.612	0.42	0.675	-0.953	1.472
Bachelor	0.449	0.667	0.67	0.501	-0.858	1.757
Master or Doctorate	0.428	0.774	0.55	0.581	-1.090	1.946
STEM-B	0.044	0.083	0.53	0.593	-0.118	0.207
STEU-B	-0.128	0.070	-1.82	0.068	-0.266	0.010
SELFCS	0.5399	0.478	1.13	0.260	-0.399	1.477
VR	0.228	0.217	1.05	0.293	-0.197	0.652
MSCS	0.298	0.361	0.83	0.409	-0.409	1.005
/cut1	2.963	1.820			-0.604	6.529
/cut2	5.564	1.930			1.783	9.345

IV. Discussion and Conclusions

Organizations will only be competitive if they are able to attract and retain talent that feels identified, motivated, and committed to them and their corporate values, including diversity, inclusion, and respect for the psychological and emotional well-being of their employees. Thus, organizations characterized by environments of high EI and compassion will, ceteris paribus, have employees who are more satisfied with their jobs, which will be a source of greater productivity, lower absenteeism, and lower turnover. In addition, these organizations will offer a higher emotional wage, which is also a material competitive advantage (Brown et al., 2011; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Goleman, 2007).

Finally, and from a humanistic perspective, we advocate that organizations should be spaces for the personal and professional growth of their employees, stemming from the logic of the positive correlation (and never antagonism) between the emotional well-being of employees and the results of organizations for their stakeholders, through the proper definition of the core processes of Strategic Human Resources Management.

This study reviewed the literature on EI and compassion and collected a set of primary data from three organizations in three different sectors of activity on the island of São Miguel, the most populated in the Azores, on a set of phenomena inherent to emotional well-being, degree of job satisfaction and levels of emotional understanding and regulation. To this end, we used the Mindful Self Care Scale (MSCS), Situational Test of Emotional Understanding (STEU-B), Situational Test of Emotional Management (STEM-B), Job Satisfaction (JSS), Self-Compassion and Care Scale (SELFCS) and Valuation and Recognition at Work (VR, developed by the author), following the state-of-the-art literature in human resources management, psychology, and organizational psychology. To the best of our knowledge, this was the first study on this phenomenon on the island of São Miguel.

The results show that women have higher JSS, MSCS, SELFCS, STEU-B, STEM-B, and VR scores than men, which is in line with the results reported by Allen et al. (2014; 2015). Similarly, the fact that the MSCS scale scores were higher for females than males is consistent with the results presented by Cook-Cottone and Guyker (2018). The mean JSS scores were also higher for women than for men, which is consistent with the evidence reported in the literature (Clark, 1999). According to Clark (1999), one possible explanation for the fact that average JSS scores are higher for women is that they may have lower job expectations than men. In addition, Clark (1999) shows that women who are younger and more educated, and who work in environments that were once male dominated, tend to have the same levels of expectations and job satisfaction. On average, the older the respondent, the lower the mean scores on the JSS, MSCS, SELFCS, STEU-B, STEM-B, and VR scales. There are differences in the average scores by sector of activity, and it is also possible to point out that health professionals have high average levels of job satisfaction not only compared to their compatriots working in industry and tourism, but also compared to their North American counterparts, given the reference values for health professionals reported by Spector.

There is a high correlation between self-compassion and job satisfaction, suggesting that organizations that create compassionate work environments will benefit from more satisfied employees. It should be noted that the VR scale includes one item that directly measures the existence of organizational compassion: "Does my organization demonstrate an understanding of the more difficult moments/phases in my life?". The scores on this item were positively correlated ($r = 0.38$) with the JSS scores, and the correlations were statistically significant for both women and men (p values of 0.01 and 0.06, respectively). It can therefore be assumed that compassionate organizations, as perceived by their employees, have more satisfied employees.

Similarly, there was a high correlation between MSCS and job satisfaction (JSS), as well as between appreciation and recognition (VR) and job satisfaction (JSS). Concerning the VR scale, women feel that their work is valued and recognized to a greater

extent than men. It should also be noted that there is a strong correlation between the scores obtained for the STEU-B and STEM-B scales, but not between these scores and the degree of job satisfaction.

Given the importance of the issue studied in this work, as well as the results obtained, we believe that in the future further surveys should be carried out to assess compassion in organizations, including in terms of employees' relationships with managers/leaders and colleagues, as a complement to the dimension of self-compassion studied in this work. In this way, it would be possible to obtain a more complete characterization of the presence of compassion in an institutional way, in the entire organizational environment that surrounds the employee - in addition to self-compassion - and to measure how this environment affects well-being and job satisfaction, in addition to employees' commitment to their organization.

It would be valuable to see whether the systematic differences in JSS and VR mean scores, with women reporting higher average scores than men, could be explained by the fact that women have lower work expectations (Clark, 1999), the result of decades of negative discrimination in working conditions. One possible line of research in this area could be to measure women's expectations of the labor market, explicitly and implicitly, including their age, education, occupation, and sector of activity, so that gender differences can be robustly identified and properly adjusted for the effect of expectations.

The data obtained support a positive correlation between MSCS and JSS and between MSCS and VR. A possible line of research could examine whether individuals with high positivity and, *ceteris paribus*, a greater propensity to report higher scores on the MSCS scale, tend to select more compassionate and positive organizational environments in which JSS and VR will be higher. In this way, this line of research would allow us to determine whether we are dealing with a self-selection phenomenon that underlies the positive correlations between MSCS and JSS and MSCS and VR, through the dynamics of entering and leaving organizations (to be studied using longitudinal data) in search of organizational environments with which they identify more.

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