

Book of Abstracts

Barcelona, April 26th, 2018

III Research Workshop

Missions, Strategy and Culture

Universitat Internacional de Catalunya

UIC

Chair of Management by Missions

barcelona *and Corporate Government*

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III Research Workshop

Missions, leadership and sustainability

Barcelona, April 26th, 2018



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Foreword

The III Research Workshop on Missions, Strategy, and Culture of the Universitat Internacional de Catalunya has left us an interesting collection of papers. In different ways, they discuss connections between corporate mission and crucial organizational elements, such as strategy, sustainability, leadership, and social enterprise. All of them make a contribution to a better understanding of the relevance of the mission and how to carry out management by mission. Some papers also showed the complexity of this topic and its character interdisciplinary, which includes management and organizational studies, social sciences and even philosophy and theology.

Often, any research raises new questions and opens the door to further research, as well as to knowledge advances. This is what occurred in discussing papers presented at this workshop. They invite to reflect on a research agenda, which, from my point of view, may include at least seven areas, as they are outlined next.

First, philosophical reflections on mission for a better understanding of this concept. Mission should be connected with the purpose of the firm within the society, which gives legitimacy to business firms. I would suggest distinguishing the generic mission of any business firm, and particular mission statement chosen by any particular company. There is necessary to keep consistency between the latter and the former.

A second area of research, can be oriented to gain an understanding on the role of the corporate mission, as a fundamental normative statement of the company or institution, and its connection with corporate values and ethics.

Studying the formulation and implementation of mission statements would be a third area. The implementation should focus on key elements of the organization, including strategy, objectives, structure, leadership, change management, and sustainability. It could be relevant both, empirical and conceptual research.

A forth and more practical perspective, is studying how to integrate corporate mission into the organizational activity: including decision-making, design of policies, management systems (communication, motivation, performance appraisal, among others) and practices.

A fifth area, can be related to study particular missions with an effective implementation and their consequences for behavioral performance (job satisfaction, learning, employee engagement, corporate citizenship behavior, etc.) and for corporate culture.

A sixth area is about the interface between particular mission and corporate mission: problems and proposals for increasing its harmonization. Finally, I think, it can be very interesting to explore the application of management by missions to fields such as education, politics, and cultural institutions.

These seven areas are not by all means exhaustive, but hopefully they can bring about significant advances in management by missions.

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Part I

Academic Research Papers

Missions and Strategy Session

Mission Statement: A Systematic Review of the Literature

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Abstract

Purpose: A mission statement is a widely used strategic tool that emphasises an organisation's uniqueness and identity. This article summarises and offers a critical overview of the literature on mission statements, since its inception in the early 1980s until today.

Methodology: Following a systematic literature review, 53 academic papers published in top leading journals in the field that focused on the role of the mission statement in organisations are presented and discussed.

Findings: Works dealing with mission statements can be classified into four main areas: (1) mission statement development, (2) mission statement components, (3) mission impact on employees, and (4) mission impact on performance. The synthesis of this literature shows that mission statements are widely used in practice but poorly researched in theory. Most articles in the area adopt a managerial phenomenon-based strand, lacking a deep theoretical foundation.

Contribution: This paper contributes to the existing literature in two main ways. First, it provides a comprehensive and critical review of scholarly research on mission statements. Second, it puts forward directions for future research on this area.

Keywords: Mission statement, literature review, bibliometric analysis, firm performance

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1. Introduction

The mission statement is a written declaration that communicates the purpose of an organisation. According to the annual report of Bain & Co. (Rigby and Bilodeau, 2015), the mission statement is one of the most widely used managerial tools worldwide. It became popular in the early 1980s, and since then it has received attention from managers and academics. In the present research, we examine this 35-year-long body of research on mission statements. What is a mission statement? Is there any advantage for organisations to explicitly define their company's mission statement? Is the mission statement really a useful managerial tool? Do managers actually refer to the mission statement and use it as a guidance for their strategic decisions? What components should a mission statement include, and which ones should it not? All these questions and others have been addressed by studies on mission statements, which are reviewed in the present paper.

Using a systematic review process, we identified 53 academic papers that specifically deal with the mission statement. The main research findings can be grouped into four themes: (i) mission statement development, (ii) mission statement components, (iii) mission impact on employees, and (iv) mission impact on organisational performance. We describe in detail each of these groups and identify research gaps and avenues for future research. Surprisingly, although the mission statement is one of the most commonly used managerial tools, and despite more than 30 years of research, studies in the area of mission statements have a predominant practical orientation and very limited theoretical development.

2. Methodology

Following the systematic literature review process suggested by Tranfield et al. (2003), we began by defining the research objectives. In our case the objective was to do a thorough review of all aspects concerning mission statements. To that end, we searched for all articles containing the specific term mission statement in three databases: EBSCO, ScienceDirect, and ISI Web of Knowledge. We believe these databases contain all relevant publications in the area of business and management. We first searched for

any document in the aforementioned databases that contained the term mission statement in the abstract, the title, or the keywords. This search returned 2,233 documents.

We then restricted the search to documents written in English in the areas of management, business, economics, social issues, and the social sciences. After these restrictions, we were left with 424 documents. Then, we narrowed the search to high-quality peer-reviewed journals. To decide on the quality of the journals, we used as a guide the Journal Citation Report (JCR) index as reported in the ISI Web of Knowledge. The JCR is computed annually by the Web of Knowledge based on several indicators of journal citations. Ordered by JCR index, journals can be ranked and divided into quartiles. Journals in the first quartile (Q1) are the 25% of total journals in that category with a higher JCR index and are therefore considered more prestigious and with a better reputation and quality in the journal category. In general, high-quality journals according to the JCR index coincide with those with a rating of 3, 4, or 4* in the ABS ranking and/or the first or second quartile in the Scimago ranking. To focus on high-quality journals, we decided to restrict the search to high-quality journals in either the Q1 or Q2 JCR index. Following that rule, we moved from 424 documents to 99 documents. We then reviewed each article one by one to check if they really addressed mission statement, and we discarded those that either did not match our research objective or were not research articles, such as editorials or book reviews. In that way, we were left with 53 research articles from high-quality journals in the areas of management, business, economic, social issues, and the social sciences that were written in English and that deal specifically with mission statement.

We did not put any restriction on the search in terms of time period. This was done on purpose to identify all articles since the topic originated. The first article we found was from 1984, and, as the search was done in December 2015, the last article was from 2014.

The 53 articles were published in 19 journals from a variety of management disciplines, including entrepreneurship, like *Journal of Business Venturing* or *Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice*; social issues and non-profit, such as *Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*; and general management journals, like *Management Decision* or *Journal of Management Studies*.

3. Results

3.1. Overview

The papers reviewed can be grouped into four main themes, each fitting into a certain time frame of mission-statement research. There is a group of papers concerning mission statement development, that is, the creation and implementation of a mission statement. Those papers were mostly written in

the 1980s and early 1990s, when the concept of mission statement first appeared. Only a few companies had created a mission statement, and most articles at this time tried to answer the question: how is a mission statement formulated? What stakeholders should be involved in the mission formulation? Which process should be followed to successfully formulate a mission statement? What should be the process to spread the mission throughout the organisation?

A second group of papers takes an observational approach and uses mainly content analysis to identify the words more frequently cited in organisational mission statements and draw conclusions based on that. Which stakeholders are cited in the mission statements? Is the mission statement more internally focused, mentioning employees, for example, or more externally focused, mentioning customer satisfaction?

The third and fourth groups both explore the impact of the mission statement on organisational outcomes. There is an important differentiation though, as some studies focus on the impact of the mission statement on employees and employees' behaviour and ethics (group 3), whereas other studies concentrate on the impact that having a mission statement has on organisational performance (group 4). Thus, the third group answers questions like is the mission statement really a guidance for strategy formulation. Is the mission useful, after all? Those papers mainly focus on internal organisational elements like the effect of the mission to strengthen organisational culture, improve relations among the different stakeholders, or enhance ethical behaviour. Finally, the fourth group tries to answer a similar question, that of the usefulness of the mission, from an external perspective. Do companies that have a clear mission statement perform better? Do companies with mission statements have better results than those that do not have a stated mission? The next paragraphs provide a detailed review for each group.

Group 1: Mission statement development

In the early 1980s academics, managers, and consultants recognised the need of explicitly formulating a mission statement in organisations. Lundberg (1984) acknowledged that although *'everyone agrees that they are necessary, statements of mission do not even exist in many organizations and are inadequate in others.'* Responding to that call, in the 1980s and early 1990s a group of researchers published several papers discussing how to formulate a good mission statement. The common approach was for top management to delegate the initial drafting of the mission statement to their subordinates and then review subsequent drafts until the CEO was satisfied. This method was time-consuming and did not provide the necessary involvement to obtain the benefits a good mission statement promised—enhanced motivation, improved organisational climate, and organisational alignment—.

Lundberg (1984) proposed a technique called zero-in, in which all managers responsible for major functions and activities of the organisation were involved in a series of meetings and planned activities with the objective of formulating a shared organisational mission statement. Similarly, Medley (1992) described the process by which a new mission statement was developed in World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) in the UK. The organisation had some difficulties after a rapid expansion, and a clear mission statement was found to help them clarify roles and functions at the management level and lead to organisation effectiveness. Davies and Glaister (1997) studied mission statements in business schools in the period 1987-1993 and claimed that most mission statements were designed top-down and with little involvement from the different organisational stakeholders. Overall, papers in this group highlight the relevance of having a clearly stated mission statement created with the involvement of different stakeholders. This way, it reflects the real organisational mission, not only the view of the CEO, which in some cases might not be comprehensive.

Group 2: Mission statement components

A second group of studies have examined the different elements—named components—that are included in a mission statement. The seminal work of Pearce and (1987) proposes the first classification, distinguishing eight categories: (1) the specification of target customers and markets; (2) the identification of principal products and services; (3) the specification of the geographic domain; (4) the identification of the core technologies; (5) the expression of commitment to survival, growth, and profitability; (6) the specification of key elements in the company philosophy; (7) the identification of the company self-concept; and (8) the identification of the firm's desired public image. A couple of years later, David (1989) performed a content analysis of 75 manufacturing and service firms to provide some guidelines in developing useful mission statements. In addition to the eight components proposed by Pearce and David (1987), he proposes an additional one (9) related to concern for the employees. The overarching conclusion is that higher performing firms do have comparatively more comprehensive mission statements.

Some years later, O'Gorman and Doran (1999) used Irish SMEs to replicate Pearce and David's (1987) landmark study of mission statements in large organisations. The analysis of 64 mission statements revealed that firms emphasise 'concern for survival (77%)', their 'product or service (72%)', and their 'concern for the customer (64%)' in their mission statements. Mission statements analysed tend to omit discussions of 'core technology', the 'target market', and 'public image'.

After the aforementioned pioneering works, new studies have emerged. For instance, Bart (1997) examined the specific content characteristics of

mission statements in industrial firms. He involved a sample of CEOs and presidents from 44 industrial corporations, identifying 25 components but only 11 being used to a high degree: (1) organisational purpose or *raison d'être*; (2) statement of values/beliefs/philosophy; (3) distinctive competence/strength of the organisation; (4) desired competitive position; (5) relevant/critical stakeholders identified; (6) statement of general corporate aims/goals; (7) one clear and compelling goal; (8) specific customers/ markets served; (9) concern for employees; (10) concern for shareholders; and (11) a statement of vision.

More recently, a focus has been placed on comparing the content of mission statements in different industries or countries. For example, Kemp and Dwyer (2003) studied the role of mission statements in the tourism and hospitality sector; and Markman et al. (2005) did so in university technology transfer offices (UTTO). In addition, Biloslavo and Lynn (2007) provided an analysis of the differences in the mission statement content in Slovene and US companies according to stakeholder emphasis and by the mission's component; Brabet and Klemm (1994) studied differences between Britain and France; and Moss et al. (2011) explored the dual identity of the mission statement in social companies and compared them with high-performance enterprises. It is also remarkable the study of Morris (1996), about how to write an effective mission statement.

All these studies used a content analysis methodology that works in the following way. First, they identified the mission statements of several companies and classified them according to a previous classification, such as that of Pearce and David (1987). They used several independent researchers to code if each of the mission components was present, and in some cases—such as in Moss et al. (2011)—computer-aided content analysis was performed to avoid human bias. In a second stage, researchers confirmed the consistency and accuracy of the ratings. Finally, different comparisons by descriptive statistics and correlations were used. Regression analysis was performed to relate components with outcomes such as business performance indicators.

Group 3: Mission impact on employees

Studies within this group question whether a mission statement is really a useful management tool and, most importantly, useful for what?

Klemm et al. (1991) make an important distinction when specifying that mission statements can be used for either internal—using the mission statement to motivate employees and to align staff objectives or external purposes—to enhance company image and promote external relations. Results signalled that mission statements are seen by managers to have a more important role internally than externally. This finding is in line with the fact that many companies do not publicise their mission outside of the

company, neither on their webpage (Bart, 2001) nor in their annual reports (Leuthesser & Kohli, 1997).

Once the main role of the mission statement was identified, that of shaping corporate identity (Leuthesser & Kohli, 1997) and improving employee motivation, some researchers investigated how effective the mission statement was in achieving this goal. Their conclusion was that the mission statement can only accomplish its goal if it is well formulated (Ireland & Hitt, 1992) and properly used (Mullane, 2002). At this point it is worth highlighting that companies' performance should be measured not only in economic terms but also on how good companies accomplish their mission (Bagnoli & Megali, 2009). In this sense, the mission can be considered as a "cultural glue" that permits an organisation to work as a collective unity. The mission should act as a philosophy that enables employees to understand the daily activities and actions in the same way and also to speak a common language. Campbell and Yeung (1991) distinguished two 'schools of thought' to describe the mission: in terms of business strategy and/or in terms of philosophy and ethics.

This latter perspective is the one adopted by Ostapski and Isaacs (1992) who argued that the mission statement, together with the code of ethics, plays an important role in defining an institutional context that supports the self-assessment process in business ethics. Similarly, Blodgett et al. (2011) discovered that US-based family businesses state more frequently their ethical values in the mission statement than their non-family corporate and international counterparts. Their findings suggest that the family business mission statement serves to provide ethical direction for the business.

Another topic related to mission and ethics is the business codes. Business ethical codes differ somewhat from professional codes and mission statements, yet the concepts are commonly interchanged by managers and sometimes misunderstood in the literature (Pearce & David, 1987). However, business codes are largely study. For example, Stevens (1994) studied the content and effectiveness of codes and how business codes are communicated and interiorised by workers, as well as how they influence workers' behaviour. More recently, Kaptein (2004) analysed the business codes of the largest corporations in the world.

Finally, it is worth mentioning the creation and development of ethics programmes within an academic context. Weber (2006) suggests the business school's attention to mission statements, curriculum development, ethics policy, and programme oversight and outcome assessment. An ethical culture and daily workplace environment begin with a solid commitment in the corporate mission.

Group 4: Mission impact on organisational performance

Research examining the relationship between mission statements and performance is scarce and inconclusive (Green and Medlin 2003; Atrill et al. 2005). Three main reasons support this diversity. First, studies have been conducted in various environments and employing different performance metrics. From the studies surveyed, business performance has been operationalised through a variety of metrics, ranging from the satisfaction and behaviour of key stakeholders to the financial performance of the company. Second, there are important discrepancies with what many organisations call a mission statement, observing a common overlap between a mission statement and a vision statement (Khalifa, 2011). Third, some authors argue that rather than the existence of a direct association between mission statement and performance, there are several intermediary outputs that mediate between these two constructs (Williams et al., 2014). Mixed results are therefore reported in the literature.

Within this category, there is a first group of studies suggesting that well-developed mission statements positively impact on the behavioural performance of a firm. Following this rationale, Hall et al. (1970) and Schneider et al. (1971) proved that once the mission statement is well stabilised, individuals accept it as their values and goals until the point that their behaviour changes. Demb et al. (1989) and Lin (2012) also elaborate on this issue. Both articles conclude that without a common mission statement, groups are subject to unconscious behavioural tendencies. In the airline context, Lin (2012) stressed the importance of the safety mission statement, which was found to be effective for building commitment and enthusiasm among employees. Yet, results showed that the safety mission statement had a negative direct effect on the pilot's safety behaviour. As Williams et al. (2005) and Rolls et al. (2008) signalled the effectiveness of a mission statement relies on the extent to which it is communicated to the employees.

There is a second group of studies that concentrates on the customer's component of mission statements and tries to establish a connection between this component and firm performance. In Germain and Cooper (1990) the authors investigated how written customer-service mission statements generate an advantage in the face of competitors. Their findings indicated that when mission statements include a customer-service orientation, the firm has internalised the key role of the customer, and thus, their activities are intentionally customer-oriented.

Another group of studies conceptualises the performance of the firm as financial performance. For instance, Bart and Baetz (1998) investigated whether there is a specific content of a mission statement that correlates with firm performance using from a sample of 136 executives from 500 large Canadian organisations. The authors found that firms with a formal written mission statement had a significantly higher ROS but a low

percentage of change in profits and sales. Metrics about the financial performance of the firm were found to be significantly higher for those firms that clearly articulate organisational values, identify financial goals, and recognise the organisation's purpose(s) in their mission statement. Also, they found that the higher the involvement of internal stakeholder in the mission development process, the higher the ROS. Similarly, in those firms in which employees displayed satisfaction concerning the mission development process, the financial performance was greater. Another key finding was that when the mission statement was highly aligned with its firm's performance evaluation system, the result was a much more focused resource allocation process in which the firm's efforts were concentrated and its resources efficiently distributed and consumed.

A couple of years later, Bart et al. (2001) proposed a new model suggesting that several mediating elements interfere in the relationship between mission statement rationale and firm performance. In this case, firm performance was operationalised through the ROA, the ROS, and managers' satisfaction with the overall financial performance of the firm. A survey was designed and sent to 83 of the largest corporations in North America. Using structural equation modelling, the authors validated that mission statements impact on employee behaviour, a construct that has a direct relationship with financial performance. The recent work of Williams et al. (2014) also discussed this moderation effect. Particularly, the authors focus on how each of the component actions relating to top management commitment impacts on this relationship.

Firm performance has also been understood as the ability to address stakeholders' issues. In Barktus and Glassman (2008), the authors investigated mission content alignment with firms' actions. Using mission statements from the top 100 firms listed in the Fortune 500, they observed that not all firms practice what they preach in their mission. Based on these results, one might question whether mission statements really matter. This paradigm is the starting point of the work of Hirota et al. (2010), who, in the Japanese setting found empirical evidence that mission statements have a significant impact on corporate policies and outcomes. However, this only applies to companies in which norms and values are widely shared and intensely held throughout the organisation. Their results also confirmed that strong-mission firms performed better than weak-mission firms.

Although the vast majority of studies concentrate on top firms operating in international markets, there are several works doing so in other sectors. In the educational context Palmer and Short (2008) analysed the relationship between the content of mission statements from 408 US business colleges and measures of performance. Drawing on Kaplan and Norton's (1992) balance scorecard approach, they found a significant association between the vector of eight mission components of Pearce and David (1987) and performance. Also remarkable is the study of Sufi and Lyons (2003), which

evaluated mission statements of 30 top hospitality enterprises and tested them for correlation with financial performance indicators. The findings revealed a statistically significant correlation between the mission statements and the annual turnover.

The overarching conclusion is that although the literature is still limited, all these studies seem to converge in signalling a correlation between a complete mission statement and superior firm performance. Mission statements are conceived as a powerful tool for companies. Nevertheless, for this positive effect with firm performance to take place, it is necessary to develop pre-development mission rationale and post-development mission alignment with employee behaviours. The engagement of all the stakeholders is crucial in order to make mission statements worthwhile.

Mission statements have also been studied in the family business literature. Prior research advocates that the process of formulating a mission statement is influenced by the need to ensure the health of the business (Chandler 1962) and by the health of the family (Ward 1987; Harris et al. 1994). Succession is used as a part of the business strategy by family businesses, becoming one of the most important and problematic issues for family business survival (Handler 1994). Aiming at shedding new light on this issue, Leon-Guerrero et al. (1998) surveyed 1,000 family businesses in Washington State. The authors observed that as the number of family generations increased, utilisation levels of family mission statements increased significantly.

Another viewpoint in our literature review is that some non-profit organisations developed new mission statements as their activities and partners change. A recent study by Koch et al. (2015) examined the effects of non-profit organisations' resource streams and network ties on changes to the services provided and clientele served as specified in the mission statements. They also observed that non-profit organisations are likely to change the activities and beneficiaries defined in their mission statements to mirror those of organisations with whom they work with.

4. Discussion and Conclusions

Research on mission statements has mainly followed a practitioner's perspective. Predominantly, published works have reviewed mission statements from top companies and analysed which are the main components and how the different stakeholders were involved in the definitional process of the mission. Although these studies provide interesting insights to practitioners on how to improve their missions and reinforce customer's and employees' commitment to the firm, one of the main gaps observed is the lack of a theoretical corpus in which to be grounded.

Accordingly, a clear avenue for future research is to reinforce the theoretical framework related to mission statement research. Theoretical perspectives that can contribute to and be expanded by research on mission statements are diverse and can be applied either at the organizational level or at the individual level. At the organizational level, literature on institutional stakeholders' perspectives and corporate governance could contribute to the mission statement literature. Following Suchman (1995) and Freeman and Reed (1983) one might question "what is the effect of the organisational mission statement on organisational legitimacy?" Theories related to organisational identity and social capital (Kreuter & Lezin, 2002) could also be a lens to look at the role of the mission statement. At the micro-level, focusing on how mission statements affect employee beliefs and behaviours, Goal-framing theory (Lindenberg & Steg, 2013) or self-efficacy theory (Maddux 1995) could also be successfully applied to mission statement research.

In addition to strengthening the theoretical background, a lot can be improved in the methods. Works reviewed typically use case studies that are not properly justified. In the quantitative papers, the statistical analyses tend to be restricted to basic descriptive statistics and mean comparison t-tests. In addition, the articles analyse cross-sectional data, making the observation of cause-effect relationships difficult. Answering questions such as the effect of mission statements on performance indicators will improve with the use of longitudinal analysis.

A clear and shared mission statement is supposed to enhance employee motivation and promote ethical behaviour, but those findings have not been empirically tested. Future studies should investigate the extent to which external forces —e.g., economic conditions and competition— together with internal ones —e.g., organisational culture, human resource practices, organisational structure, and technology— mediate the relationship between the mission statement, performance and employees' motivation.

Moreover, if the mission statement is considered a critical communication tool (Bartkus et al., 2000), it is relevant to study how effective this communication is. This stream of research can also contribute to the literature on mission statements and has already been pointed out by the research on mission in practice, which differentiates between espoused mission versus real mission (Cardona and Rey 2008). Similarly, if the mission is used as a communication tool, another relevant question is about the renovation or update of the mission statement. As Drucker (1973) pointed out, businesses must have clear "what the business should be" even more than "what the business is".

There is also an important strand of the literature analysing whether there is a significant relationship between mission statements and performance, and if so, which is the resulting effect. Studies that have

adopted this approach mainly rely on descriptive statistics, lacking empirically robust models to test the hypotheses. Difficulty in obtaining homogenous data for all companies in the analysis might limit the way performance is currently measured.

As for those studies analysing the value chain ‘mission statement > behaviour > performance’, it is worth questioning whether the effects of this relationship are the same across sectors. Firms operate in a variety of contexts that entail substantial differences in how the mission impacts on the business and among the various stakeholders. The studies reviewed mirror this diversity, signalling that it is difficult to converge in a one-way directional and positive effect. Based on this evidence, we argue that it is highly complex to define a mission statement that is able to reflect all the different aspects of the company. Indeed, the need for future research emerges in different directions.

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Logic Multiplicity in Strategy Formation

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Abstract

Logic multiplicity, as a source of strategic heterogeneity and innovation, has attracted growing interest in recent research. However, while the literature has traditionally considered logic pluralism in the context of institutions, other sources of logic multiplicity have been poorly developed in strategic theory. In this article, we explore, from the intersection of cognitive and strategic management theories, the interdependence and contributions of three sources of logic multiplicity—logic perspectives—salient in strategy formation: the institutional; systemic; and analytical perspectives. We use these logic perspectives to identify three types of strategic reasoning: the mono-perspective; the hybrid perspective; and the perspectives' integrator. By enhancing the concept of logic multiplicity, we are addressing the calls for improved dialogue between logic multiplicity and strategic practice.

Keywords: Logic multiplicity, institutional logics, business models, strategic practice, logic perspective

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1. Introduction

An independent director once had to deal with a conflict on the board of directors when a strategy expert from his consulting firm presented a report after six months of intensive strategic analysis.

According to the consultant, the only feasible scenario was to abandon the company's main customer segment and move into a new market segment. This would entail a considerable downsizing of the company. The report was based on a thorough and consistent analysis of the market share distribution, demographic trends, economies of scale, and different scenarios. The report was impeccable. It was so well argued and supported by data that it seemed impossible to even consider anything other than the consultant's proposal.

The president took the floor: "We cannot accept this under any circumstance. We are experiencing a time of great uncertainty, but now, more than ever, the principles of the company must be our priority. The best thing to do is to stay true to our company values. The consultant's advice to downsize would entail the opposite".

None of it made sense to the CEO. His main argument was emphatic: "I don't see how we can do this. I'm not against downsizing the company if necessary, but moving to this new segment? It is a big leap from our business. These matrices and long lists of data provided by the consultants are all very nice, but you must have experience in a market to understand it, and not everything can be explained by numbers. I've run this company for over 20 years, and I've always known where to focus our efforts. This proposal doesn't at all fit with the idea that I have of this business. Sorry guys, I simply don't see it."

When he got home, the independent director reviewed his notes and became more and more concerned. The next board meeting would be held in three days and he needed something more concrete. Each member had their own arguments, and he could not see how to frame one overall plausible course of action. He left his notes and took a deep breath, "So who's right?"

Logic multiplicity and the challenges it represents for organizations and individuals —e.g., complexity, conflict, hybridity— has attracted increasing interest in the recent literature (Bertels & Lawrence, 2016). As logics provide meaning and guide decision making, the field of strategy has recognized the relevant role of logic multiplicity as a source of strategic heterogeneity and innovation (Laasch, In press; Dong et al., 2016; Ocasio & Radoynovska, 2016) that allow strategists to enhance their reasoning by using different perspectives.

While the literature has traditionally considered the challenges of logic pluralism in the context of institutions (e.g., Bertels & Lawrence, 2016;

Martin et al., 2016; Smets et al., 2015; Mair et al., 2015; Almandoz, 2012, 2014; Geng et al., 2016; McPherson & Sauder, 2013; Greenwood et al., 2011; Reay & Hinings, 2009), strategic theory provides other sources of logic formation that have been poorly developed in the framework of logic multiplicity. In this article, we introduce the concept of logic perspective to expand the scope of logic multiplicity study and to understand the different sources of logic pluralism in strategy formation. By enhancing the concept of logic multiplicity, we hope to understand the potential ways strategists deal with the challenges of multiples logics and how they can improve their strategic reasoning. In this paper, we are addressing the call to develop conceptual frameworks that help to understand the gap between strategic theory and the logics of practice (Sandberg & Tsoukas, 2011; Powell, 2014; Paroutis & Heracleous, 2013) and calls for improved dialogue between logic multiplicity and practice (Zilber, 2011; McPherson & Sauder, 2013; Bertels & Lawrence, 2016).

2. Sources of Logic Multiplicity in Strategy Formation

Despite decades of research on strategy, ‘we still know little about what strategy means to actual strategists and how they use it in practice’ (Paroutis & Heracleous, 2013). The underlying problem is that while the science of strategy develops mass abstractions to explain why some companies succeed and others fail, the practice of strategy seeks to identify courses of action for solving problems and exploiting opportunities (Rey & Ricart, 2015; Powell, 2014). Indeed, there is an increasing concern that most management theories are not relevant to practice because most of them are unable to capture the logic of practice as they are developed under the logic of scientific rationality (Sandberg & Tsoukas, 2011). Strategic practice is developed in organizations that, beyond scientific rationality, typically face multiple logics that may, or may not, be mutually incompatible (Greenwood et al., 2011; Dahlmann & Grosvold, 2017) in which individuals can maintain coexisting conflicting or complementary logics (Smets et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2016). However, the study of logic multiplicity, abundant in institutional literature, has been poorly developed in the strategic management field, leaving a gap between the scientific rationality of strategic theory and the multiplicity of logics that typically govern strategic practice.

Logic perspectives can help close this gap between strategic theory and practice by providing an understanding of the different sources of logic multiplicity in strategic reasoning. A logic perspective is a conceptualization of related logics that provide meaning and guide decisions. As the concept of logic in the strategic management literature is considered a set of related principles or schemas (Dijksterhuis et al. 1999; Bacharach et al., 1996; Friedland & Alford, 1991; Prahalad & Bettis, 1986), we define a logic perspective as a set of related logics. Thus, we see logic perspectives as being at a higher level of conceptualization than logic. The concept of logic

perspective is coherent with the idea that individuals ‘exercise a great deal of agency in their everyday use of logics, both in terms of which logics they adopt and for what purpose’ (McPherson et al., 2013). As available logics are resources that can be used and combined to make strategic choices (McPherson et al., 2013; Venkataraman, 2016), we theorize about how managers can combine not only related logics (e.g. Bertels & Lawrence, 2016, Dong et al., 2016) but also different perspectives (sets of logics) to enhance meaning and improve the quality of strategic decision making. While the concept of strategy has the potential to help us explain how the relation between managerial cognitions and managerial practices leads to organizational outcomes (Paroutis & Heracleous, 2013), the logic perspectives, as sources of logic multiplicity, help to understand how different kind of logics may affect managerial cognitions of strategy. By considering how strategists can combine different logic perspectives, we want to enhance the understanding of logic multiplicity and complexity and how logics influence the development of strategic choices.

At the intersection of cognitive and strategic management theories, we identify three sources of logic multiplicity salient in the strategic literature—the institutional, systemic and analytical perspectives—that fit with the concept of logic perspectives (see Table 1). Each perspective, which we will explore in the following sections, corresponds to three different ways the literature uses the concept of logic. The institutional perspective corresponds to logics developed in a field or society; the systemic perspective has to do with logics developed in the firm; and the analytical perspective entails the logics of the analytical procedures used by managers to analyze reality.

Perspectives	Author	Examples of the logics	Description
	Venkataraman et al. (2106)	Market logic	Emphasizes transactions, money transfer and the accumulation of money
	Almandoz (2012, 2014)	Community logic	Characterized in terms of strong, affective, and enduring ties among members of small and bounded groups
		Financial logic	Characterized in terms of profit-maximizing objectives and self-interested

Institutional perspective	Pache & Santos (2013)	Social welfare	Structured around a predominant goal: making products and services available to address local social needs
		Commercial logic	Structured around selling products and services on the market to produce an economic surplus
	Dalpia et al. (2016)	Manufacturing logic	Achieve and increase economic profitability and market leadership
		Cultural logic	Gain recognition as a member of the cultural field
	Belenzon et al. (2016)	Familiar logic	Concerned with providing stable and secure income to family members
	Zhou et al. (2017)	Efficiency logic	Focuses on efficient resource utilization
	Dahlmann & Grosvold (2017)	Environmental logic	Concerned with protecting the natural environment and decreasing the firm's impact on natural resources
	Bettis & Prahalad (1995)	Dominant logic	Conceptualization of the business among the dominant coalition
	Möller et al. (2008)	Value Creation Logic	Describes the focus and means to create value-adding services
	Kim & Mauborgne (1997)	Logic of value innovation	Conceptualization of strategic drivers of innovation
	Vargo & Lusch (2008)	Goods dominant logic	Regards what the firm produces as the proper focal point for creating value
		Service dominant logic	Focused on intangible resources, the cocreation of value and relationships

Systemic perspective	Michel (2008)	Service logic innovation	Conceptualization of the customer (user, buyer and payer) and the related service innovation
	Santos & Eisenhardt (2005)	Logic of organizational boundaries	Related with organizational boundaries regarding efficiency, power, competence, and identity
	Laasch (In press)	Value logic	Conceptualization of value regarding paying customers, commercial value chains, competitive market and profit
	Crilly & Sloan (2013)	Enterprise logic	Conceptualization the firm and its relationship with actors in the firm's economic and sociopolitical environment
	Bacharach et al. (1996)	Organizational logic of action	Implicit relationship between means and ends underlying the specific actions, policies and activities
	McGinn & Keros (2001)	Shared logic of exchange	Conceptualization of value in a exchange relationship
	Dong et al. (2106)	Deduction logic	Reasoning that determines the validity of the conclusion if the premise of the rule is observed to be true
		Induction logic	Reasoning based in a limited set of cases to establish a degree of empirical truth for a hypothesis
		Abduction logic	A form of logical reasoning that introduces a hypothesis aimed at explaining given observations (in front of surprising observations)

Analytical perspective	Read et al. (2009)	Predictive logic	Takes the environment as outside the control of the decision maker, who therefore attempts to predict and adapt to changes in it
	Sarasvathy (2001)	Causation logic	Logical process that aims to reach a pre-defined goal
		Effectuation logic	An inversion of predictive rationality in the creation of new firms, products, services and markets
	Nadkarni & Barr (2008)	Causal logic	Perceived causal relationship between the environment and strategy
	Gavetti & Levinthal (2000)	Backward-looking logic	Efforts at sensemaking interpreted as a higher-order form of experiential learning
		Forward-looking logic	Beliefs about the linkage between the choice of actions and their impact on outcomes

Table 1. Logic perspectives

3. Institutional Perspective

This perspective comes from the literature on the logics in institutions, known as institutional or societal logics. In regard to strategic management, institutional logic pluralism is viewed as strategic resource (Dalpiaz, 2016; Venkataraman, 2016) that has implications for value creation and capture in terms of organizational business models (Laasch, In press), governance strategies, and strategic organizational choices (Ocasio & Radoynovska, 2016).

Based on the study by Friedland and Alford (1991), institutional logics represent the role of contingent sets of social norms and principles that shape individual and organizational behavior in the search for appropriateness (Vurro et al., 2010). Institutional logics constitute a source of legitimacy for social actors that guide and constrain decision makers (Scott, 1995). Institutional logics are overarching sets of principles (Greenwood et al., 2011) that provide guidelines on how to interpret and function in social situations (Bertels & Lawrence, 2016). ‘As people go

through their lives, they are constantly working with, for and against multiple institutional logics that shape their social and cultural contexts' (Bertels & Lawrence, 2016). Institutional logics shape the practice in firms when they are represented in the organization by individuals with a cognitive and motivational affinity for them (Fiss & Zajac, 2004; Pache & Santos, 2010; Tilcsik, 2010) and who incorporate them in their assumptions and values. This makes these individuals 'carriers' of institutional logics (Almandoz, 2014).

In the strategic management literature, we can identify several institutional logics salient in business such as market logic (Venkataraman et al., 2106), commercial logic (Pache & Santos, 2013), financial logic (Almandoz, 2012, 2014), manufacturing logic (Dalpiaz et al., 2016), and efficiency logic (Zhou et al., 2017). But these logics do not influence in isolation. Organizations typically face logic multiplicity as these logics combine with other social logics such as the environmental logic (Dahlmann & Grosvold, 2017), familiar logic (Belenzon et al., 2016), community logic (Venkataraman et al., 2106; Almandoz, 2014), professional logic (Martin et al., 2017), social welfare logic (Pache & Santos, 2013), and cultural logic (Dalpiaz et al., 2016).

While the institutional literature typically analyzes the influence of institutional logics on firms and individuals (e.g. Bertels & Lawrence, 2016; Martin et al., 2016, Smets et al., 2015; Mair et al., 2015; Almandoz, 2012, 2014; Geng et al., 2016; McPherson & Sauder, 2013; Greenwood et al., 2011; Reay & Hinings, 2009), we focus here on how firms and individuals conceptualize these influences to enhance strategic choices.

In this vein, the institutional perspective considers how strategists purposefully combine multiple institutional logics to gain meaning and make strategic choices. In other words, the institutional perspective reflects the way managers make use of institutional logics to enhance strategy development. The institutional perspective can also be seen as the underlying conceptions that influence how strategists stimulate the internal representation of the institutional logics. As firms seek to gain or maintain societal legitimacy by responding to and complying with the central institutional logics of their field (Pache & Santos, 2013; Bjerregaard & Jonasson, 2014; Van Gestel & Hillebrand, 2011), the institutional perspective focuses on identifying those central logics and purposefully represents the ones that can provide the firm with a desired strategic identity.

The institutional perspective provides the logic foundations for purposeful developing an institutional identity, which can be developed through narrative and other symbolic means in ways that allow individuals to actively manage the degree to which institutional logics are accessible and active (Bertels & Lawrence, 2016). The institutional perspective can be articulated through "statements", such as the company's purpose, mission,

vision, values, etc. (Rey & Ricart, 2015), although these statements are only formal representations of the institutional perspective's true scope (Rey & Bastons, In press).

The institutional perspective is related to institutional work. Thus, it is more about “why” and “how” rather than “what” and “when” (Lawrence et al., 2011). Strategists can therefore use institutional perspectives as motivational resources that are especially relevant in strategic change to gain internal legitimacy because, as suggested, ‘one of the most effective ways to influence behavior is to influence their identification with a logic and its associated practices’ (Lok, 2010). In the same vein, the institutional perspective motivates managers to place the company's interests ahead of their own and promotes a long-term view (Rey & Ricart, 2015).

4. Systemic Perspective

The second research stream that lends itself nicely to the logic perspective studies the logic multiplicity that underlie the conceptualization of business models, initially identified under the concept of dominant logics (Prahalad & Bettis, 1986). Considering business as complex systems, a dominant logic is presented as a conceptualization of the business to achieve goals and make decisions stored as a shared cognitive map—or a set of schemas—among the dominant coalition (Prahalad and Bettis, 1986). It acts as a filter and enables processing large amounts of information (Reger & Huff, 1993) and managing complex strategic issues (Lampel & Shamsie, 2000). A dominant logic originates within the firm (Crilly & Sloan, 2012) and reflects different organizational factors such as the characteristics of managers, self-references based on shared experiences and company history (Von Krogh & Roos, 1996).

The early literature presents dominant logics as the result of organizational learning based on four elements: competitive strategy; values and expectations; measures of performance; and reinforced behavior (Bettis & Prahalad, 1995). But the concept of dominant logic, initially identified as something unfinished and highly plastic that individuals can use in different ways through considering self-references and different scales (Von Krogh & Roos, 1996), was later used in such a way that expanded its scope to encompass wider or more specific dimensions of value creation. For example, value creation logic represents the way managers conceptualize the service innovation strategies and shape business models (Möller, 2008). In a similar vein, value logic refers to the conceptualization of value regarding paying customers, commercial value chains, competitive market, and profit (Laasch, In press). The logic of value innovation outlines how organizations conceptualize innovation (Kim & Mauborgne, 1997). More specifically, service logic innovation is based on two elements: the conceptualization of customers and the conceptualization of how to make service innovations

(Michel, 2008). Likewise, strategy scholars have studied how individuals conceptualize other fundamental elements of the business models related to value creation and value capture. For instance, the conceptualization of organizational actions, policies, and activities; (Bacharach et al., 1996) the logic of organizational boundaries (Santos & Eisenhardt, 2005); the creation and allocation of value with regard to the firm relationship with stakeholders (Crilly & Sloan, 2012); and the conceptualization of value in exchange relationships (McGinn & Keros, 2001).

As a business model articulates the logics on how a business creates and delivers value to customers (Teece, 2010; Laasch, In press), the combination of dominant and value creation logics has been considered a primary resource for business model creation and evolution (Crilly & Sloan, 2012; Michel et al., 2008; Möller, 2008). Based on this idea of value creation and value capture logic multiplicity, we develop the concept of the systemic perspective as the holistic conceptualization of value creation and value capture logics employed by strategists to gain meaning and interpret the business model. In this context, the systemic perspective resembles a tangram game that offers different conceptualizations via different combinations of logics. From this perspective, strategist not only focus on the dominant organizational logic to gain understanding of business models. Following the idea that strategist should combine dominant logics with other logics of value creation (Prahalad, 2004), the systemic perspective can be a considered a valuable resource for strategists to reframe the dominant logic of the organization and reinvigorate business models.

The systemic perspective is developed through a profound knowledge of reality that allows establishing valid hypotheses regarding fundamental aspects of the business model (Rey & Ricart, 2015). As business models reflect choices and their consequences (Casadesus-Masanell and Ricart, 2010), the systemic perspective deals with understanding the key strategic choices and the implicit relationship between choices and consequences. This entails paying attention and interpreting not only the dominant logic of the organization but also other logics of value creation by, for example, focusing on the dominant logics of other companies, experimenting, or looking beyond industry or geographical borders (Prahalad, 2004).

5. Analytical Perspective

The third perspective is related to the logics of analytical procedures. Analytical procedures play a joint role with dominant logics in filtering data to aid strategy development (Bettis & Prahalad, 1995) and have been considered a main source of strategy development (Grant, 2016). The strategy literature is full of examples of how managers make use of analytical logics. This includes, for instance, causal logic, which is considered the primary basis for decision making in general (Fiske and Taylor, 1991) that

influences how strategic decisions are made (Nadkarni & Barr, 2008). Analytical logics also include predictive logic, which is conventionally used to tackle the known and the unknown in strategic analysis (Read et al., 2009). The literature gives similar consideration to deduction and induction logics (Dong et al., 2016); causation logic (Saravathy, 2001), which entails selecting between means (A, A', A''...) to create certain effects (B, B', B''...); and forward-looking logic, which entails linking actions and outcomes (Gavetti and Levinthal, 2000). All these logics are considered basic logics that underlie analytical tools and procedures.

These basic logics of analysis can be combined with more elaborate forms of analytical logics that provide analytical logic multiplicity. This includes, for instance, combining deduction and induction with abduction, which entails introducing an hypothesis to explain observations, when we face surprising strategic situations that are difficult to explain (Dong et al., 2016); combining prediction logic with effectuation logic, which entails the inversion of predictive rationality and is especially salient with entrepreneurs and in entrepreneurial activity (Read et al., 2009); and combining forward looking logic with backward looking logic—based on experience—to gain a better understanding of the strategic analysis (Gavetti and Levinthal, 2000).

Through analytical logic multiplicity, strategists gain a better understanding of situations to obtain further explanations and conclusions (Dong et al., 2016; Nadkarni & Barr, 2008; Gavetti and Levinthal, 2000; Read et al., 2009). Based on this idea, we build on the analytical perspective as the conceptualization of the analytical logics that managers use in their analytical procedures. The analytical perspective represents the logic multiplicity in the use of analytical procedures strategists employ as resources for understanding reality. As analytical logics are based on explicit information from both the environment and internal resources and capabilities (Ricart & Rey, 2017), the analytical perspective uses empirical evidence or estimations of the behavior of variables to reach conclusions. The analytical perspective emphasizes the way managers conceptualize reality by means of analytical procedures. In other words, it reflects how strategists make use of analytical logic multiplicity to make strategic choices. In developing an analytical perspective, managers gain experience using different strategic analytical tools and procedures and can nimbly undertake their analyses.

5. Perspective Combination in Strategic Reasoning

The three logic perspectives we have been referring to are represented by the characters introduced at the start of this paper. The consultant established a plan of action from an analytical perspective (“following numbers and market estimations”); the president based his arguments on an institutional perspective (“it goes against the principles of the company”); and the CEO, using a systemic perspective (“I simply do not see it”), needed

to get an overview and understand what was happening and how the changes would affect the business model. Although logics can be conceptualized within the three perspectives, individuals may tend to have a propensity for certain perspectives. We can see this in the different roles in companies (Ricart & Rey, 2017). For example, entrepreneurs are more likely to lean towards the systemic perspective, financial departments tend to use the analytical perspective to understand strategy, and HR or CSR managers tend to favor the institutional perspective.

However, beyond the salient logics related to individual characteristics such as an individual's role in the organization (McPherson and Sauder, 2013; Martin et al., 2017), motivational affinity (Almandoz, 2014), education (Geng et al., 2016), entrepreneurial path (Sarasvathy, 2001), and institutional biography (Lawrence et al., 2011), we believe managers can develop different perspectives. Applying this idea to how the different roles in an organization combine these three perspectives, we find seven forms of strategic reasoning that we group into three types (see figure 1).

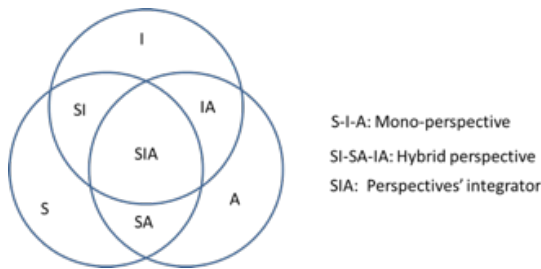


Figure 1. Strategic reasoning types

Mono-perspective (S-I-A). This kind of reasoning conceptualizes situations and decisions under the frame of one perspective. This reasoning can be of use for problems such as how to face environmental changes using managerial cognition to strategize in unanalyzable environments (Nadkarni and Barr, 2008), how to deal with institutional complexity (Bertels & Lawrence, 2016), or how to foster innovation performance with analytical logics (Kristinsson et al., 2016). But in these cases, even though it appears multiple perspectives might be combined, given that it is possible to combine multiple logics of the one perspective with great skill (Dong et al., 2016; Smets et al., 2015), the mono-perspective prevails. In general, this kind of reasoning can bring a deep understanding of a given perspective to the strategic discussion. This is the advantage of the mono-perspective reasoning, although its potential for generating valid strategies is limited by the risk it entails of generating strategic inconsistencies. A strategic inconsistency occurs when a strategic decision is logical and consistent

within one type of logic but inconsistent with others (Rey & Ricart, 2015). An example of a strategic inconsistency might be a low-price policy at a company with a premium business model or recurrent layoffs at an organization whose institutional identity is built on employee commitment and trust.

Hybrid perspective (SI-SA-IA). This type of strategic reasoning combines two perspectives. It can be very useful for scenarios such as combining institutional and value creation logics to provide distinct business models (Ocasio & Radoynovska, 2016; Laasch, In press), combining analytical logics for fostering dynamic capabilities and more robust and sustainable business models (Dong et al., 2016), combining institutional logics to create new market opportunities and transform organizational agency (Dalpiaz, 2016), or finding a balance between institutional and dominant logics (Verbeke, 2010). This kind of reasoning is consistent with the idea that the ‘available logics closely resemble tools that can be creatively employed by actors to achieve individual and organizational goals’ (McPherson et al., 2013). In general, we see three types of hybrid perspective: systemic-analytical, which confront business model ideas with reality; institutional-analytical, which align business aims and goals with institutional environment; and systemic-institutional, which reinforce business models with current and emergent institutions. Compared to the mono-perspective, we believe that hybrid thinking can be a way to enhance strategic choices, although it can be vulnerable to the aforementioned problems of omitting a certain perspective.

Perspectives’ integrator (SIA). This type of strategic reasoning uses a concurrent methodology for addressing the three perspectives. It establishes the internal alignment for governing the combination of these perspectives. This kind of reasoning is consistent with the view that individuals can dynamically balance coexisting logics and maintain the distinction between them while also exploiting the benefits of their interdependence (Smets et al., 2015). By addressing fundamental questions about the combination of the three perspectives, this reasoning can integrate mono-perspective reasoning and complement the shortcoming of the hybrid type. We believe this type of reasoning has greater potential for generating valid strategies than the other two types. By examining the biographies of great strategists in history through the lens of strategic perspectives, we can see how they skillfully managed the three perspectives. We can, for example, consider the lessons that Yoffie and Cusumano (2015) derived from the study of Steve Jobs, Bill Gates and Andy Grove. The way in which these individuals built their strategies is a good example of how different logic perspectives guide decision making, e.g.: dexterity in detailed analysis and a quick handling of information; durable institutional principles that orient and focus the strategies; and the ability to see the big picture and generate game-changing business models (Ricart & Rey, 2017).

6. Conclusion and Future Research

In this article, we have developed the concept of the logic perspective. In introducing this concept, we are addressing the call to develop conceptual frameworks for understanding the gap between strategic theory and the logic of practice (Sandberg & Tsoukas, 2011) and calls for improved dialogue between logic multiplicity and strategic practice (Zilber, 2011; McPherson & Sauder, 2013; Bertels & Lawrence, 2016). Using logic perspectives, we have bridged three logic research streams on logic multiplicity that are relatively disconnected in the strategy literature. From this literature, we have identified three salient logic perspectives in business—the institutional, systemic and analytical perspectives—and we have highlighted their interdependence and contributions to strategic reasoning.

We did find some theoretical contributions and lines for further research. First, regarding the influence of institutional pluralism in strategy formation, we have provided a new conceptual lens to understand the challenges that logic multiplicity and complexity represent to strategists. By introducing the concept of logic perspective, we have enriched the discussion by considering how actors can combine institutional logics with other logic perspectives to offer potential new avenues for organizational and individual responses to these phenomena. Second, with regard to the dialogue between logic multiplicity and business models, we have shown how combining logic perspectives enables considering business models not only as the articulation of value creation and value capture logics (Teece, 2010), but also as the articulation of different logics from other perspectives, such as institutional and analytical logics, something that, as the literature suggests, can be a source of innovation, robustness and enhanced social value (Laasch, In press; Dong et al., 2016). Moreover, given that greater logic pluralism leads to increased heterogeneity in business models (Ocasio & Radoynovska, 2016), we believe that pluralism in logic perspectives offers a way to study business model heterogeneity and isomorphism under a wider scope. Finally, with regard to strategic analysis, we have provided a theoretical framework for better understanding the contributions and limitations of analytical logics and how they can be enhanced with other logic perspectives to provide more robust strategic choices regarding the business model and the institutional environment of the firm.

We invite future research to expand the study on logic pluralism in strategy formation (e.g., Bertels & Lawrence, 2016; Martin et al., 2016; Smets et al., 2015; Mair et al., 2015; Almandoz, 2012, 2014; Geng et al., 2016; McPherson & Sauder, 2013; Dong et al., 2016; Nadkarni & Barr, 2008) by considering logic multiplicity under the wider scope of the potential different logic perspectives available in strategic reasoning.

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The Museums Communication Strategy Aligned to the Mission: A Case Study of CAC Málaga

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Abstract

This paper examines the communication strategy aligned to the mission for XXI century museums and cultural institutions. The authors propose the prosocial model applied to communication, which builds on the opportunities offered by the Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). Our purpose is to propose a management model that brings the idea of communication closer to the idea of service ("prosocial motivation") and aligns it with the fulfillment of the own mission of the institution. According to this model, the organization develops its strategy of communication starting not from the information that you are interested in giving but of the communication oriented to what interests the public. This makes possible to achieve competitive efficiency in the current environment of globalization; and starts from the point of the fact that the museum is, above all, a community of people that relates to each other and to other people from abroad. We defend that the person, not only should be treated accordingly the dignity of the human being, rational and free but also, the knowledge of their motivations is essential for the communication management in order to reach the true objective of the institution, its mission.

The methodology combines the CAC Málaga case study, focused interview and documentary analysis.

The investigation reveals the benefits of applying a 'prosocial' management model in the communication strategy for effective interaction with the public and how this reinforces the effectiveness, attractiveness and unity of the institution.

Keywords: Management model, technology, mission, communication, museums

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1. Introduction

The technological revolution deeply affects the world of business and institutions. This revolution calls for new ways to operate, meaning by "operation" the set of activities that are responsible for providing service to the public. Although much has been done in the last thirty years in regard to service management, now a new management approach is required (Muñoz-Seca & Riverola, 2011). Traditional management or 'by function' has gone to the management "by objectives", which has returned to the individual their freedom and their initiative. This new concept is much more real than the previous one, but achieving goals remains insufficient to manage organizations in modern societies. What is needed, therefore, is a new management system capable of enriching and making sense of the objectives. Objectives have no value in themselves but only as a means to fulfill the mission. After the 'management by objectives' the 'management by missions' is needed. This new management approach is much richer and better able to persuade people to identify with the museum they work for and so ensure superior performance at all levels of the organization (Cardona & Rey, 2008). XXI century institutions raised the need for a new management model that considers the person in their ability to contribute. Current organizations, including the museums, require 'management by missions'. Both, academicians and practitioners consider that the mission statement is more and more a crucial element in the strategic planning of any business organization (Rajasekar, 2013).

The International Council of Museums defines the museum as a permanent institution, non-profit, serving the society and open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits the tangible and intangible heritage of humanity for study, education and recreation (ICOM, 2007). Communication plays a special role here. However, communication often arises in a unilateral way, that means, as a *system for reporting* without possibility of receptor response by the public, which results in its excessive passivity. In this context, we note that cultural institutions are more *informative* than *participatory*. The public management through the Network in cultural institutions is a unidirectional model, which aims to

inform data or services of the institution but does not open it to new forms of communication. However, we observe a tendency to change, which suggests that in the coming years this situation will be much more collaborative and participatory (Viñarás, 2010). Furthermore, there is no doubt that the traditional relationships between museums and their publics have been modified (Bantimaroudis, Zygliopoulos & Symeou, 2010). In fact, Museums' growing integration of Web 2.0 techniques are indicative of their readiness to redefine their relationship with their audience. While visitors were traditionally kept at arm's length, the use of these techniques now allows involvement (Pulh & Mencarelli, 2015). In this sense the challenge for arts managers is to embrace the possibilities of participatory decision-making and, rather than replicating existing models, try to find their own way to implementing it within their organizations and to break down a fourth wall, which often acts as a barrier between the organization and its public, whoever they might be (Jancovich, 2015). Research by Camarero, Garrido and San José (2016) reveals that the success of a museum's online communication strategy depends on the organization's ability to construct a website that sparks the public's interest and attracts visitors.

Advancing a step forward in this article we therefore analyze a management model that allows us to get two concepts closer: communication and service ("prosocial motivation") and aligns communication with the fulfillment of the mission (the meeting of people needs).

According to this model, the institution develops its communication strategy based, not on the information the institution is interested in giving but in the information oriented to what interests the public. It will be seen that this change in approach is a key to using social networks as a bidirectional communication channel. We will demonstrate that when management and communication focus on service, communication between the museum and the public is reinforced.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Mission-based management

Using the classical concept of organization proposed by authors such as Barnard (1971) or Simon (1976), it can be stated that *an organization is* (a) *a system of interactions between persons (employees) who cooperate together* (b) *to achieve a common objective (in an environment), even if* (c) *this takes place for different motives (provided by a control system)* (Pérez-López, 1994). According to this model (see Figure 1), the coordinated actions of an organization taken together is called its **operating system**. The *operating system* encompasses everything relating to the way of acting, including both formalized aspects (governed by regulations, organization charts, timetables, etc.) and non-formalized behavior. In organizational theory this is what is called *programs* or "*standard*

operating procedures” (March & Simon, 1958; Cyert & March, 1963). The results produced through the *operating system* in any given environment is what can be called the organization's **mission** (Drucker, 1974). The mission expresses the ensemble of people's (i.e. consumer or public) necessities that an organization satisfies. The compensations (salaries, prestige, recognition, etc.) provided by the control system (management) according to the achievement of the results (the mission) by the employees constitutes the **motivation system** (Simon, 1976). The motivation system encompasses the *personal goals* that incite individuals to participate through their actions in the achievement of the *mission*. In this way an organization can be viewed as a flow of interactions between different participants in keeping with the following diagram:



Figure 1. La toma de decisiones en la organización. Barcelona: Editorial Ariel. (Spain) (Bastons, 2000)

Taking the previous model as a starting point, it can be seen what "managing" an organization means: it means establishing a flow of interactions between those participating in an organization by being (1) *able to motivate members of the organization* (i.e., by defining its *motivation systems*) so that (2) *they carry out a series of actions* (i.e., by defining its *operating systems*) in such a way that (3) *certain objectives or results are achieved, within a given environment* (i.e., by defining its *mission*).

There are different styles, approaches or models in organizations management. Scott (1981) identified three main organizational patterns depending on whether the organization is understood as 'rational', 'natural' or an 'open' system. While other authors have identified three basic paradigms: 'mechanical', 'psychosocial' and 'anthropological' (Pérez-López, 1994; Rosanas, 2008). In any case, the model of organization and the management system depend largely on the conception of the person and their motivations that the company has formulated (Barnard, 1971; Pérez-López, 1994; Chinchilla, 2001).

Human motivations have been studied for many years in Social Psychology and in Organizational Theory. Their study has been addressed from different perspectives: the hierarchy of human needs (Maslow, 1954), distinguishing between hygienic and non-hygienic factors (Herzberg, 1966) as well as the intrinsic or extrinsic character of the motivation (McGregor, 1966). This last perspective has had a great influence, so that the concepts of "extrinsic motivation" and "intrinsic motivation" are an essential mindset both in theoretical research and practice management (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Çınar, Bektas & Aslan, 2011). Extrinsic motivation is understood as the impulse that drives people to take an action for what you get in return: salary, bonuses, rewards, prizes. The first organizational models were built on an idea of the behavior that focused exclusively on two of the elements of an interface: actions and results. Both elements operate as stimulus and response, to which the agent would respond mechanically (March & Simon, 1958). Therefore, this type of approach is included under the general heading of 'mechanistic model' of the organization (Pérez-López, 1994). Instead, intrinsic motivation would be the impulse that moves an agent to perform an action by the value it has for him the action itself: learning, self-realization, etc. (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In this case, what drives the agent to act is the satisfaction of psychosocial needs. In this case it is drawn from a model of organizational behavior different from the previous one. It is the 'psychosocial model' (Perez-Lopez, 1994).

Along with those studies focusing on the role of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in organizational behavior, there is a line of research that analyzes another type of motivation: prosocial motivation (Batson, 1987; Brief, 1986; Grant, 2008, 2009, 2011). In general, people are not only interested in what benefits themselves; it also satisfies them when what they do benefits others. Contributing to something that is good for others also motivates, it is also a *value*; in this case a *social value*. For example, what makes car sellers consider the sale of a car, as well as producing an economic incentive or for it to be a job that satisfies or gives them professional prestige is that it is something *suitable* for the client. Or what makes sellers reluctant to sell a product (even though they are capable of doing so) is if they know that it is of poor quality and is bad for the client. One can say that pro-social values express the 'weight' that the *real* welfare of others (the environment) has in the decisions of members of the organization. Grant (2008, 2009, 2011) has showed in different studies how *servicing* others also motivates. It generates a special form of motivation which he calls *prosocial motivation*, which arises when we put ourselves in the perspective of others and can "feel" our contribution to the welfare of others. Other researchers (Pérez-López, 1994; Rosanas, 2008; Bastons, 2000; Melé, 2003; Guillen, Ferrero & Hoffman, 2014) have shown in different ways that to serve others also motivates. It generates a special form of motivation, prosocial motivation, which arises when we put ourselves in the place of another and we feel our

contribution to the welfare of others. All of them refer to motivation at work that takes into account the needs of others and gives a sense of contribution to actions.

In organizational contexts prosocial motivation plays an important role in relation to the mission of an institution. In fact, the motivation of employees is one of the main reasons why many organizations define a mission (Bart, Bontis & Tagar, 2001; Ireland & Hitt, 1992; Campbell & Yeung, 1991; Klemm, Sanderson & Luffman, 1991). There are many studies that show that the mission, when it is actually implemented in everyday life and the philosophy of the company, has a strong ability to awaken in people the sense of contribution and a source of prosocial motivation (Cardona & Rey, 2009; Wang, 2011). Thus, depending on the model of behavior and motivation on which they rest, they can differentiate three basic models of management. And for each model can be distinguished three different ways to target communication:

Ways to target communication

management model	basic motivation	priority criterion	communication way	object communication
Mechanic	extrinsic	efficiency	information	oriented to achieve formal institution objectives
Psicosocial	intrinsic	attractiveness	persuasion	achieve emotional accessions to the institution
Anthropological	prosocial	social value	prosocial communication	mission oriented: public service

Figure 2. Modelo pro social de comunicación de museos (El case Thyssen Bornemisza. Maracaibo: Revista Opción Pérez-Pérez, L., Bastons, M. & Berlanga, I., 2015)

2.2. The mission of the museum and the role of communication

To carry out the mission of the museum, communication can arise: according to the criterion of effectiveness (achieving my goals: information); according to attractiveness (emotional communication approach, seeking to persuade an adherence to the institution, but not of service to the public), and according to the prosocial criteria: the "mission-based motivation" communication aimed at satisfying real public needs (the mission). The International Council of Museums (ICOM) in its paper on key concepts of museology (2009) describes the communication process according to the logic of the PRC system (Preservation-Research-Communication) proposed by the Reinhardt Academy, which involves functions of exhibition,

publication and education carried out in the museum. This document, in its latest version, stops to describe the significant changes that the Internet and social networks have caused in the traditional conception of communication, and therefore in carrying out the mission of the museum institution. Yet, surprisingly concludes with the following statement: "It seems, however, that the real task of the museum is closer to a transmission understood as unilateral communication" (p. 30).

Parallel to and with regard to the transmission of culture in today's society we find a particular phenomenon: the growing generational divorce. To reach the younger population becomes an absolute necessity that leads to integral questioning of current forms. This generation is a new type of public and requires appropriate actions to capture it (Muñoz-Seca & Riverola, 2007). We do not try to reach many with quantitative parameters but to approach, listen and respond to specific needs of each person. At this point the correct use of ICTs gets to redirect the communicative activity to this goal.

Recent research on the communicative management of Spanish Museums recognize the efforts of institutions to incorporate the services of the social web (ICOM Digital, 2012), but also show gaps in the results of its use. Thus, Baraybar and Ibañez (2012) warn that the dream of full interactivity with the general public, beyond scientific slogans, is still in its initial stage, and that to some extent, the realities that new technologies can bring to the present are not being fully incorporated except in experimental exceptions. Becerra and Dominguez (2014), in an exploratory study on museums, communication and youth, conclude that there is a need for staff to work in communicative aspects in order to "cover the deficiency of not knowing well their public, and therefore, they do not cleave in order to carry out their actions of communication " (p. 609). Meanwhile, Gomez-Vilchez (2012) talks about a communication program structured to establish a role and a function to each social environment, so that they get "user loyalty; build community and be community; speaking and listening; energize, engage, feedback, evaluate and ultimately, grow and improve" (p. 85). As recent studies show mobile technologies have opened up new venues for cultural appreciation and cultural participation has become multiplatform (Chen, 2014).

These and other studies claim new models of work and denounce the lack of further research on organization and management models (Gómez-Vilches, 2012; Sloep & Berlanga, 2012). Definitely, a museum communication model that has the focus on the person is required. A model designed to cover the real needs of the audience, that is, the mission of the institution.

2.3. The CAC Málaga Mission

For the director of the CAC, the museum has many missions, but the main one is to spread the contemporary art, the current world art and not only the local one. To this end, exhibitions and cultural interrelation programs are held: Cinema, music, dance, literary actions, any type of performance, action or event. The objective is very much focused towards citizens, especially Malaga's neighbours and also shows how culture, and especially art, can change the structure of society. With this main idea they look for artists from a global context to see how they can serve to the local. The opposite route is also made: look for artists whose local discourse has a lot to say in the international scene. This is done not only with temporary exhibitions but also with permanent exhibition. They design a collection that tries to be permeable to the problems and sensitivities that are dealing with contemporary art in the world, well with international artists, good with local artists. Both for temporary exhibitions as for the permanent, works that serve the general discourse of the Museum. He cannot conceive that a museum has a closed collection, as it is a collector of stamps, with a beginning and an end. The museum collection has to be unique, and the works they buy should be acquired according to the principles of the museum. That's why sometimes, from an artist you can have 50 works and from another none, because his speech does not serve for the development of the objectives. The collection is conceived as an organic, living element that can go in one direction based on a conceptual thesis. They are very concerned about the issues border (and in this sense the location of Malaga is not casual: it is in the southern limit of a continent, is between two seas, it is between two continents, it is between two cultures, and it is between two religions). All those circumstances are important for them. Reflection on the concept of the South or on the concept of frontier, appears systematically in the program and artists are invited to reflect on those subjects. The issue of language is another recurring theme, as well as the issue of painting's concern. He considers that painting is not present in Spanish museums - yes in Germany - and he understands that this fact is due to the fact that in Spain painting is not considered modern, but in his opinion, it is. That's why the CAC is the museum that exhibits the most of paintings, just because they consider themselves the most modern, not on the contrary: there is more painting than, for example, in the Reina Sofia that they have more documents, due to another way of understanding the matter, than in his opinion is wrong, because a museum of national character should have a global vision and not exclusive. Unlike, the CAC can have it because it is not a national museum. In his opinion, a museum must have its own idiosyncrasy, and the more unique it is, the more different, the more identifiable and it is better what it does. Summarizing the mission in one sentence, this would be: make citizens free. Undoubtedly, the mission affects the motivation of workers, it is considered something essential. And he

thinks that this is the reason why public museums can never work - or they rarely work - from the parameter of the CAC. Despite he is an official service worker himself, he declares against the public administration public and does not believe that it works in a general way. He thinks that it is fundamental to involve the team in the objective - something that is not done in the administration, and therefore neither in public museums, rather, exclusively public-. The CAC demonstrates how with a team of 20, six times more exhibitions than in other museums, can be done, without leaving the same region, whereas when the team is not involved even if they have more budget they cannot.

The public of the CAC knows the mission better and better, and progressively because it is something that has a lot of difficulty to transmit. What is true is that when the years go by the public, especially the local public gets special sensitivity. And in the opinion of its director, it is an incredible achievement the fact that the public get to detect a kind of sensitivity. If there is not a coherent program, it is very difficult to identify the museum's objective; and on the contrary, if one is very faithful to the program itself, to the objectives, overtime people come to detect it. Citizens get to interpret in what museum are recognized and what not. There are museums in which the citizen feels special when he gets into it, he feels care, singular, and the citizen detects it.

2.4. CAC Málaga Communication

They have a strategic plan of communication and it is a plan that changes to the sound of the problems of a changing society that evolves rapidly. It adapts and changes whenever a need arises. At the same time, they have control of the museum's quality methodology, so that when a singularity arises in any of the work processes -including that of communication- a solution is sought to correct the problem, which already implies a change of the strategic plan. There is no department that has a stable norm; all the rules are established or modified according to the daily experience of the museum. A concrete example is the modification of the weighting criterion, two years ago of social networks for the objectives of the institution, a fact that led to granting 265 analysis and interpretation of data the priority to the Instagram network: when a new social network appeared that gave its Top priority to the image, they were echoed and given primacy over Twitter. They believe that it is very difficult to transmit values or maintain a debate in 140 characters, because the nuances in art are fundamental, as they are in the culture, in society. This is the reason why in 2014 the CAC was the Spanish museum with more influence on Instagram in Spain, above the Prado, of Reina Sofía, of Thyssen. It was an achievement fruit of an enormous dedication of attention and time.

3. Methodology

This research takes as its starting point the definition of a museum that offers ICOM (2007), as it has been defined in the introduction. This presented us with the following research questions: Does society really have involvement and prominence in the museum that is attributed to it? Is technology fully exploited to make the service a reality to society and are they open to the public as they say they are? Are audiences heard to manage the museum and to organize the activities? Does the museum have a strategic planning of communication? and if so, is it based on the mission of the institution?

The most usual experience leads us to affirm that the prevailing model of communication management in Spanish museums is unidirectional, despite having introduced the use of social networks to communicate with the public. One of the main causes is the lack of education in media literacy of managers and employees who have incorporated them more like fashion than as authentic social service. We suspect that a management model based on the mission provides institutions that include among its main purposes the educational and communicative, necessary tools to achieve successfully those purposes. We set as research objectives: a) Study in depth the prosocial management model (Muñoz-Seca y Riverola, 2011) that receives its impulse of the technological revolution and its profound effects on the world of the company and the institutions. b) Contextualize two fundamental concepts to carry out the research: communication and mission. c) Identify a representative museum. d) Do an in-depth interview with the director. E) Assess the results of the research and propose applications both theoretical as practices.

The methodological technique is the case study, which is recommended for underdeveloped areas of knowledge, in which they have to create new research theories and hypotheses inductively that further studies will try to confirm (Stake, 1995). Museum bidirectional communication for the development of museum strategy is still very recent and a little studied practice. So, we set out, first, an approach to the CAC museum, its management and the way new technologies are used as communication tools, and, from there, to offer interpretations applicable to other entities. CAC Málaga selection responds to its preeminence in the areas that are the subject of our study. As for communication management, it is an innovative museum. For them, communication with the public is considered absolutely bi-directional. They created the first web 2.0 of Spanish museums. And actually, they are considering designing another. Their web allows you to have a conversation with the viewer in each service: in the specific information, in the blog, in the pedagogical aspect. As a data, the only document that is always in the entrance and never change is: "What do you think?". The TICs they use in this bi-directional communication are

Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, Ninja, Pinterest, YouTube, with its own video channel, Google+, Friend Feed, Flickr, Picassa, Delicious, Foursquare and LinkedIn.

4. Results

About the management model, the CAC Málaga has a novel and unique system in Spain, it is an Art Center in which private management is linked (limited company), with the public objectives set by the Public Administration. It is a model of service concession (Francés, 2007).

Regarding the mission, the CAC Málaga has a fairly defined mission: to spread among citizens contemporary local and international art. They also do it from a concrete form that consists of inserting current social issues into the museum. For example, to attract young audiences, they put the Museum in "ArtStreet". They say they are not aware of working on a mission statement. But the fact is that they have it very defined. The mission affects completely the staff of the museum as a whole, and their permanence in the museum depends on the identification they have with the mission. Regarding the communication of the mission, although the director told us that the mission is communicated with conferences or social networks, after the study of the museum as a whole we have detected that the mission is communicated more than what has been said, unconsciously, both formally and informally. In reference to whether it has been heard by the public for the elaboration of the mission, it must be said that, although on the part of the director the answer is negative, we think that implicitly yes, the audience has been heard, especially the potential audience, as there is a clear determination to cover a need for cultural training on art contemporary existing in the diverse public.

The communication of the CAC Málaga is completely based on the mission of the museum, it has no other meaning. They have a strategic communication plan flexible, since they are adapting it to all technological innovations that come up. It is a totally bidirectional communication, even the website was the first that gave the possibility to interact in all the aspects. They use a great variety of Tics: Web 2.0, Blog, social networks like Instagram, Twitter, Ninja, Pinterest, YouTube Channel and Google+. With the information received from the public there is a dialogue and active listening is done.

With the data collected we will try to answer the research questions that we set out initially and that respond to how the management of the museums is studied, and if this corresponds to the characteristics of a prosocial management model.

Prosocial management indicators	CAC
Role and involvement of society	YES
The technology is used to the maximum for the service to the society and the opening to the public	YES
Audiences are heard to manage the museum and to organize the activities	NO
The museum has a strategic planning of communication	YES
Planning is based on the mission	YES

Figure 3. Prosocial management indicators in CAC Málaga

Regarding to the question about society implication and involvement with the museum, we think that as far as the mission is concerned, there is no such prominence. The mission is unidirectional, it comes exclusively from the museum, the public is not involved at all and, far from being a protagonist, it is treated as a mere spectator. With regard to communication however, the approach is different. We have discovered that, occasionally, it is the public who approach the museum on the subject of social networks, as they are incorporated into society as something natural, while institutions still do not know how to treat the information that is received. In fact, the CAC Malaga has had and maintains initiatives to attract potential publics, giving them certain importance, as it is the case of the youth, when introducing the "Art Street" in the Museum.

The second research question is about maximum utilization of technology to make service to society a reality and open to the public that these institutions postulate. We have been struck by the ability to adaptation of the CAC Málaga to ICTs; the fact that they have a strategic plan of communication that continually adapts to the latest trends is quite symptomatic.

With regard to the third research question on whether the museum listen to the audiences for the management and for the organization of activities, we have observed that in general the answer has been negative. But on the other hand, we realize that they do not do it explicitly. For example, the director told us that planning starts directly from the museum, without taking into account the tastes of the public at all. And that if they took into account the tastes of the public they would lose their mission, because what the public requests is an aesthetically pleasing art. The proof is that the most numerous exhibition that they have had has been that of Sorolla. But one thing is taste and another is necessity. Not giving the audience what they like does not mean that they do not know their needs. They think that to cover those needs you have to listen to the public, at least know their shortcomings. To show contemporary art is a necessity, since - as Kandinsky said - "each work of art is the daughter of its time" and to know the man of

today we have to know what he reflects through art. So, we can say that the CAC, definitely "listens" to the publics implicitly and plan accordingly.

Regarding the last question raised about whether the museum has a strategic plan of communication and if it is based on the mission of the institution. We think that the CAC Málaga works with a strategy of communication based on the mission.

5. Discussion and Contribution

We make a critical and contextualized review of the results and conclusions. In the first place, it is noted that the general methodology established for the object of study has been a valid instrument since it has allowed us to know how a museum is managed and how would this management be with the parameters of the prosocial model. As we described in the section on the method chosen for this research the transfer of the prosocial model in general to museum management in particular is a new and necessary point to address the object of study in depth and without bias. And being this something that we have not found in the approaches of the investigations carried out regarding museum management, we consider it is the strongest point of the work.

The case study together with the focused interview to the director of the museum is proposed as an effective method that allows us to know in depth what a unique conception of mission is, the role that it occupies in the configuration of the institution and the particular concretions of the management and communication. For these reasons, we believe that this general methodology can be extrapolated to other researches that intend to analyse the management of cultural-museum communication in other contexts.

However, it seems to us that the reflection of the particular management of museums and the communication could be more valuable if you complete the results of a concrete empirical application. Taking into account the novelty and interest of this translation because it was not done previously, and due to the high component humanistic and by the new perspectives that it offers us, this empirical research remains pending for the near future. We believe that the investigation it is neither finished nor final. The evolution of the object of study demands a constant updating and methodological reformulation. We leave by so open the debate on all the issues that emerge from this investigation.

6. Theoretical and Practical Applications

The theoretical applications are mainly adjusted to the development of knowledge in itself and the generation of new conceptual research tools. So, first of all, we hope that this study serves to provide innovative ideas to future researchers who apply to his works the exposed anthropological

management model applied to the communication in museums in other contexts, or at least that they use it as a starting point.

In terms of practical applications remember that the final result we were pursuing in this research was to perform work that could serve as a model and inspiration in the management of museum communication. And also, that this model can be an open proposal to subsequent contributions and new ways of reflection among museum management professionals and in particular on communication.

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Part I

Academic Research Papers

Missions and Sustainability

Session

Strategy and Mission: Start to Open a Management Black Box for Portuguese Companies

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Abstract

This paper aims to determine if companies operating in Portugal use mission statements as a tool to guide and boost their strategy.

Study is based on an online survey and uses a sample of 377 companies to analyse how the use of Mission complies with the considered formal, functional, and coherence requisites that permit the exploitation of its potential for Strategic Management and the motivation and alignment of people within the organizations.

Our findings support that there is a gap between theory and practice when it comes to the mission's role on the organization's strategic management, comprising the planning and the implementation stage, which compromises the potential of its use for alignment and motivation of employees in companies operating in Portugal.

This paper offers a first empirical approach to the mission's relevance in companies operating in Portugal increasing the knowledge about its practical use and paving the way for the development of a broader explanation model on the conditions for the effective use of Mission.

Keywords: Mission statement, Strategy, Purpose

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1. Introduction

The vision and the mission statements of an organization are more than mere declarations of intentions. The Mission usually gives body to the purpose of the organization defining the context, goals, and main aspirations that govern it.

By identifying big domains for planning, the mission statement of an organization is normally used as a guide for the company's strategy, transposing shared values into the organization's daily operations, supporting budgeting decisions, coordinating actions within the organization, and differentiating it from its competitors in the market while governing the relationship with all stakeholders (Drucker, 1986; David & David, 2003; Birkinshaw, Foss & Lindenberg, 2014; Ekpe, Eneh & Inyang, 2015; Abelman, 2014; Allen, Kern, Vella-Brodrick & Waters, 2018). Both Vision and Mission provide a framework for action, promote collaboration, and incorporate goals for the future (Jones & Crochet, 2007; Manley & Hawkins, 2009).

Research from many years (Alegre et al., 2017) has showed that, to be effective, Mission must comply with some prerequisites. Rey and Bastons (2017) support that a Mission comprehends a formal statement, a dynamic practice, and a motivation domain. We depart from these principles to support that they implicate that there are pre-requisites of three different types that a Mission must comply with: i) formal; ii) operational or functional; and iii) coherence requisites.

The following sections present the results of a research that studied the use of Missions as a strategic tool by Companies operating in Portugal, and analyse how the three main characteristics of the Mission (its formality; its operability; and its coherence) are being deployed by these companies, to maximize the potential of the use of Mission as a strategic tool and as a catalyst for organizational performance and employees' motivation, promoting their personal missions' alignment with the company's objectives and improving the organization's performance.

2. Theoretical Framework

There isn't a universal definition for strategy. Some argue that the existing approaches are considered insufficient to characterize the broadness of its reach (De Wit and Meyer, 1998) and tend to confuse the meaning of the term (Norton & Irving, 1999).

The ancestral use of the word strategy coming from the Sun Tzu definition, or even the Greek use of the word, was mostly related with the military field. Strategy was mostly related with the capacity of the general to know the battle field, and their enemies, and to devise the most adequate ways to beat them using its troops. Nowadays, the meaning of strategy for

managers may be compared with this definition, and strategy is related with the capacity of managers to know their market competitors, and to define the best ways the organization will use to beat its competition, using its resources the most efficient way that is possible.

Any strategy, military or business, should encompass “(...) *three critical components (...) – objective, scope and advantage*” (Collis & Rukstad, 2008) and they need to be clear. The military strategy’s end is to conquer or defend territories as provided by the campaign plan, analogously, business strategy aims at maximizing the organization’s value for its stakeholders, by conquering or defending market share as per what is defined in the strategic plan (Santos, 2008).

The ability to plan and implement a given strategy will not be enough for the organization’s prevalence. To increase the strategy’s contribution to the organization, managers must first look to its mission, the “why” to an organization’s existence or purpose of being, its values, what the organization believes in and how it will act in the market and its vision, the way the organization sees itself in the future (Collis & Rukstad, 2008; Ekpe, Eneh & Inyang, 2015). Drucker (1986) says, “*That business purpose and business mission are so rarely given adequate thought is perhaps the most important cause of business frustration and failure*” and research has confirmed that strategy alone does not contribute to the organization’s performance and sustainability. A company also needs to stand for something, it needs a sense of purpose clear enough to guide its members towards a common direction, motivating them and giving them a sense of belonging to the company (Birkinshaw, Foss & Lindenberg, 2014; Baral & Pokharel, 2017).

Aligning the organization’s strategy with its mission can increase its sustainability’s potential. They will be the back bone that will provide purpose to everyone in the organization and allow them to achieve high levels of performance (Birkinshaw, Foss & Lindenberg, 2014). At the same time, studies of high performing teams have demonstrated that a suitable mission statement is a key issue to high motivation and improved performance thus contributing to an overall team success.

When addressing its mission an organization should ask three questions;

1. “*Who are we?*” – This question relates to the organization’s identity and what defines it, what makes it different from other organizations.
2. “*Where are we going (...)?*” – As walking up the stairs an organization should define landings or landmarks that it should go through.
3. “*How are we going to get there?*” Helps put “(...) focus on the behaviours and strategies (...)” needed “(...) to achieve their goals.”

These are the three questions which best help any given organization describe what is done to achieve its vision and objectives (Martin & Mac Intosh, 2017).

However, it is important to stress out that although an organization's mission statement should be company driven all stakeholders must be considered when creating it (Leuthesser & Kohli, 1997; Desmidt et al., 2011; Boyd et al., 2012).

To be effective, a strategy must comply at least with the following three pillars: i) to be formally defined, in the sense that is known and it is dully communicated within the firm (Williams, 2008; Cochran et al., 2008; Bart, 1997); ii) to be functional in order to become operational, that is, it can be translated into instructions that command the operations and align the different function within the organization (Hirota et al., 2010; Suh et al., 2011); and finally, iii) to promote coherence within the organization translating something that it is in line with the behaviour of managers and all the staff of the organization and promoting the motivation of all employees (Carpenter & Gong, 2016; Bastons et al., 2016).

3. Methodology and Sample

The objective of this paper is to determine the extent to which companies operating in Portugal apply their corporate mission as an effective strategic tool, translating it in their daily management. For that we studied if the three basic pillars are considered when using Mission statement: formal, functional and coherence.

The survey was conducted online between November and December 2017, using mostly direct e-mail to a universe of over 2000 potential respondents obtained from different corporate databases.

The survey is mostly composed of "*forced choice questions*" (de Vaus, 2002, in Saunders, et al, 2008) and is divided into two parts. The first part aims to characterize the organization and determine the respondent's position in it. The second part is composed by questions that intend to determine the organization's mission knowledge, its application in the current management and if it is taken into consideration in the strategic planning. For this purpose, several databases were used.

The survey answers have a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "complete disagreement" (1) to "complete agreement" (5).

The respondent sample was composed of over 400 answered surveys, from C-level to "front line" workers from all activity sectors. However only 377 met the criteria for further interpretation.

As to a basic characterization, our sample is obtained from 377 validated answers of which 85% are obtained from C-level managers, whereas 15% are middle managers and personnel with non-managing functions.

All the companies answering this survey operate in Portugal, being 18% from the Industry sector; 0,8% are dedicated to agricultural/mining activities; and about 80% operate in the Services Sector. Companies are

grouped according to the new SME definition (European Union, 2005), as follows:

Dimension	SME Threshold Variables	Respondent's percentage
Micro enterprise	Staff: < 10 people	22 %
	Turnover: ≤ €2 million	
Small enterprise	Staff: < 50 people	16 %
	Turnover: ≤ €10 million	
Medium-sized enterprise	Staff: < 250 people	19 %
	Turnover: ≤ €50 million	
Big enterprise	Staff: > 250 people	43 %
	Turnover: > €50 million	

Table 1. Distribution of respondent companies (Adapted from “The new SME definition” – user guide and model declaration. European Commission, 2005)

4. Results

Detailed results of our survey are presented in tables of the Annex to this paper.

a. Accomplishment of the formal requisites of a Mission

Of the total sample, 82% answered that their organization has a mission. However, 34% of respondents claim that its mission is not public.

When asked if their mission statement is periodically revised 39% answered that their mission statement is static, and 37% admitted not knowing if it is revised or not.

b. Operating the mission: level of the organization

73% respondents assume that the mission is intertwined with the strategy. However, 32% claim that the mission does not show what the company does or its reason of being (Blair-Loy, Wharton and Goodstein, 2011; Birkinshaw, Foss and Lindenberg, 2014) and only 21% agree that the values practiced by the organization are linked with its mission.

c. Operating the mission: level of the workers

When referring to a worker's view of the organization's mission and its recognition 48% do not feel engaged by the company's mission and 52% say that there isn't any connection between mission and motivation or that it is irrelevant.

As to the importance of the mission's contribution to task execution, only 6% have no doubts that the mission plays a pivotal role, however 49% of the respondents consider that the mission isn't important.

d. Coherence of the mission

When asked about the managers coherence between their actions and the values assumed by the organization 43% of the respondents say that manager's actions do not correspond to the values stated by the organization and 50% claim that workers actions and the organization's values are incoherent.

As to the mission's contribution to reinforcing purpose and meaning to people's work 46% respondents consider that it does not.

Additionally, 75% of the respondents assumed that their organizations do not use departmental missions.

5. Discussion and Contribution

Results obtained highlight a potential problem on the use of the Mission by companies operating in Portugal. We notice that for at least one third of the companies that constitute our sample, do not comply with at least one of the criteria to consider that the Mission is in line with a basic formal requirement, whether it is related with the existence of a known Mission statement, or the due communication of the Mission within the company.

It is not strange to recognize that it is almost impossible to follow something that it is not formally known.

A second conclusion that we can derive from the results obtained is that the functional role of the Mission for companies operating in Portugal also presents several pitfalls, whether they are related with its functionality at the level of the entire organization, or even at the level of its staff.

Reasons for this are based on the apparent fact that the Mission is not the most liable to translate what the company does, or even the positioning of the company in the market. Another problem is the fact that apparently, the values implicit in the Mission statement are not the most adequate to the normal behaviour of the company and its staff in the day-to-day operations.

Also, at the level of the relation between the Mission and the company's employees, it is noticed that for about 50% of the answers, they do not recognize its daily jobs in the Mission, or even Mission doesn't translate any type of motivation for their jobs since it doesn't relate to their tasks' execution.

Finally, in terms of coherence, also between 40 and 50% of the answers denote that there's no coherence between what Mission means and the usual behaviour of the company's managers, making that Mission doesn't contribute also to reinforce workers, nor company's overall purpose.

6. Conclusions

The findings which result from this study allow us to say that although being considered relevant for strategic purposes most companies operating in Portugal do not use the mission as a supporter for their strategy planning and implementation. Taking in consideration that most respondents are C-level members of organizations it is relevant to point out that despite considering the mission important to strategy, it is not considered relevant to the organization's activity.....

There is the given the idea that a company's mission is a mere theoretical instrument used for mainly for marketing purposes. This becomes even more evident when, most respondents say that their organization's mission is not periodically revised, and a considerable percentage admits not know knowing if it is revised or not which contradicts existing literature on the matter (David and David, 2003). This is even more worrying when considering that most respondents are c-level workers, people who are responsible for the organization's operations and strategy.

Portuguese managers do not consider the mission to be a catalyst of strategy and facilitator of workers' purpose, motivation and alignment therefore helping company's performance.

7. Limitations and Future Research

a) Uneven distribution between company respondents –ideally all respondent companies should have three answers, a C-level, a middle management and a non-managing. This would make it possible to determine differences in points of view between hierarchies in the organization.

b) Questions regarding mission's application to the organization and workers could have segmented the answers in the different types of organizations, big enterprises and SME's. This would be helpful to determine which type of organizations recognize the importance of the mission in the company's strategy and its influence in everyone's purpose and motivation.

c) Some of the questions should have had the possibility of open answer as a way to justify the chosen option.

This paper results from an exploratory study on the use of Mission as a strategic tool by Portuguese companies. Although very important and contributing to the development of existent knowledge, results obtained highlight the need to develop future research developing further the conclusions here presented, by supporting it in a stronger theoretical model on the role of Mission as an effective strategic tool.

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Annex – Survey Results for Portugal

Sector of Activity					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Primary	3	0,8	0,8	0,80
	Industrial	66	17,5	17,5	18,30
	Social	5	1,3	1,3	19,63
	Transportation	9	2,4	2,4	22,02
	Turism	15	4,0	4,0	25,99
	Education	15	4,0	4,0	29,97
	Commerce	19	5,0	5,0	35,01
	Health	20	5,3	5,3	40,32
	IT and Communications	20	5,3	5,3	45,62
	Financial	76	20,2	20,2	65,78
	Services	124	32,9	32,9	98,67
	N/A	5	1,3	1,3	100,00
	Total	377	100,0	100,0	

Maturity (Years)					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	1 to 5 years	33	8,8	12,8	12,8
	5 to 10 Years	26	6,9	10,1	22,9
	10 to 20 Years	80	21,2	31,0	53,9
	> 20 Years	119	31,6	46,1	100,0
	Total	258	68,4	100,0	
Missing	N/A	119	31,6		
Total	377	100,0			

Region					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	North	58	15,4	15,4	15,4
	Centre	172	45,6	45,6	61,0
	South	139	36,9	36,9	97,9
	Islands	8	2,1	2,1	100,0
	Total	377	100,0	100,0	

Business Volume					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	> 50 million Euros (GE)	160	42,4	45,1	45,1
	> 10 <= 50 millions of Euros (ME)	54	14,3	15,2	60,3
	> 2 <= 10 millions of Euros (PE)	51	13,5	14,4	74,6
	<= 2 millions of Euros (Micro)	90	23,9	25,4	100,0
	Total	355	94,2	100,0	
Missing	N/A	22	5,8		
Total	377	100,0			

Number of Employees					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	>= 250 Employees (GE)	163	43,2	45,9	45,9
	50 a 250 Employees (ME)	70	18,6	19,7	65,6
	10 a 50 Employees (PE)	60	15,9	16,9	82,5
	<= 10 Employees (Micro)	62	16,4	17,5	100,0
	Total	355	94,2	100,0	
Missing	N/A	22	5,8		
Total	377	100,0			

Function of respondent					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Board Member/ CEO	130	34,5	34,5	34,5
	C-Level (director, CIO, CFO, COO, etc.)	121	32,1	32,1	66,6
	Deputy director, mid-level chief	67	17,8	17,8	84,4
	No chief level	59	15,6	15,6	100,0
	Total	377	100,0	100,0	

Q7: Does your company have a Mission Statement?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Yes	310	82,2	87,6	87,6
	No	44	11,7	12,4	100,0
	Total	354	93,9	100,0	
Missing	N/A	21	5,6		
	System	2	0,5		
	Total	23	6,1		
Total	377	100,0			

Q8: Is your Mission Statement Public and known outside the company?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Yes	249	66,0	83,0	83,0
	No	51	13,5	17,0	100,0
	Total	300	79,6	100,0	
Missing	N/A	77	20,4		
Total	377	100,0			

Q9: Does it exist a periodicity to revise the Mission Statement?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Yes	89	23,6	29,7	29,7
	No	149	39,5	49,7	79,3
	Doesn't know	62	16,4	20,7	100,0
	Total	300	79,6	100,0	
Missing	N/A	77	20,4		
Total	377	100,0			

Q10: Do you consider your Mission linked to the company's strategy?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Yes	276	73,2	92,0	92,0
	No	9	2,4	3,0	95,0
	Doesn't know	15	4,0	5,0	100,0
	Total	300	79,6	100,0	
Missing	N/A	77	20,4		
Total	377	100,0			

Q11: In your opinion, does the Mission express adequately the company's operations in the market?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Disagree	3	0,8	1,1	1,1
	Doesn't Agree nor Disagree	19	5,0	6,8	7,9
	Agree	178	47,2	63,8	71,7
	Fully Agree	79	21,0	28,3	100,0
	Total	279	74,0	100,0	
Missing	NSNR	98	26,0		
Total	377	100,0			

Q12: Connection between the Mission and the Values of the Organization?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Disagree	9	2,4	3,2	3,2
	Doesn't Agree nor Disagree	19	5,0	6,8	10,0
	Agree	172	45,6	61,6	71,7
	Fully Agree	79	21,0	28,3	100,0
	Total	279	74,0	100,0	
Missing	NSNR	98	26,0		
Total	377	100,0			

Q13: Identification of Employees with the company's Mission?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	0,8	1,1	1,1
	Disagree	21	5,6	7,5	8,6
	Doesn't Agree nor Disagree	59	15,6	21,1	29,7
	Agree	159	42,2	57,0	86,7
	Fully Agree	37	9,8	13,3	100,0
	Total	279	74,0	100,0	
Missing	NSNR	98	26,0		
Total	377	100,0			

Q14: Connection between Mission and the Employees' Motivation?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	0,8	1,1	1,1
	Disagree	22	5,8	7,9	9,0
	Doesn't Agree nor Disagree	73	19,4	26,2	35,1
	Agree	147	39,0	52,7	87,8
	Fully Agree	34	9,0	12,2	100,0
	Total	279	74,0	100,0	
Missing	NSNR	98	26,0		
Total	377	100,0			

Q15: Coherence between the values expressed by the Mission and those of the company's Managers?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Totally Disagree	3	0,8	1,1	1,1
	Disagree	13	3,4	4,8	5,9
	Doesn't Agree nor Disagree	39	10,3	14,4	20,4
	Agree	163	43,2	60,4	80,7
	Fully Agree	52	13,8	19,3	100,0
	Total	270	71,6	100,0	
Missing	NSNR	107	28,4		
Total	377	100,0			

Q16: Coherence between the values expressed by the Mission and the practice of the employees?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Totally Disagree	2	0,5	0,7	0,7
	Disagree	16	4,2	5,9	6,7
	Doesn't Agree nor Disagree	62	16,4	23,0	29,6
	Agree	169	44,8	62,6	92,2
	Fully Agree	21	5,6	7,8	100,0
	Total	270	71,6	100,0	
Missing	NSNR	107	28,4		
Total	377	100,0			

Q17: Does Mission reinforce the purpose of the work of the company's employees?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Disagree	14	3,7	5,2	5,2
	Doesn't Agree nor Disagree	50	13,3	18,5	23,7
	Agree	160	42,4	59,3	83,0
	Fully Agree	46	12,2	17,0	100,0
	Total	270	71,6	100,0	
Missing	NSNR	107	28,4		
Total	377	100,0			

Q18: Do you agree that the Mission contributes to define the employees' tasks?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Totally Disagree	1	0,3	0,4	0,4
	Disagree	15	4,0	5,6	5,9
	Doesn't Agree nor Disagree	49	13,0	18,1	24,1
	Agree	163	43,2	60,4	84,4
	Fully Agree	42	11,1	15,6	100,0
	Total	270	71,6	100,0	
Missing	NSNR	107	28,4		
Total	377	100,0			

Q19: Does the company poses Missions at Department level?					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Accumulated %
Valid	Yes	95	25,2	35,2	35,2
	No	158	41,9	58,5	93,7
	Doesn't know	17	4,5	6,3	100,0
	Total	270	71,6	100,0	
Missing	99,00	107	28,4		
Total	377	100,0			

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Next Generation in Family Business. The Role of Values at Different Stages of Succession Process. A Literature Review

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Abstract

Because Millennials can be defined through values, this research was focusing on reviewing literature on the next generation and to understand the role of values in decision-making and process stages of succession. Findings suggest that the role of values is generally missed in the research of the next generation. The article outlines possible gap and research questions for future investigation.

Keywords: Values, Millennials, succession, family business, next generation

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1. Introduction

According to PWC, by 2020, the individuals that were born between 1981 and 1999 will account for 50% of the global workforce. These individuals are usually referred to as Millennials and are often compared with those who were born between 1965 and 1980 (Generation X) and those born between 1946 and 1964 (Baby Boomers). Generational differences have been attracting increasing attention amongst practitioners and the popular press. However, the question of whether millennial generation is really different from previous generations: Generation X and Baby Boomers is still open. Several attempts had been made to answer this question and this stream of investigation paraphrases the question into: *whether millennial values are really*

different from that of previous generations (Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Howe & Staruss, 2009; Meriac, Woehr & Banister, 2010; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010; Twenge, 2010)?

The theory defines values as desirable, trans-situational goals that vary in importance as guiding principles in people's lives (cf. Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973). Like general values, work values are beliefs pertaining to desirable end-states (e.g. high pay) or behaviour (e.g. working with people) applied to work settings (Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999, p.54).

Collectively previous findings suggest that: (1) indeed *there are generational differences in value systems among today's employees* (Cross-sectional (one-time) studies show that managers of different ages would likely to have different values. These differences are due to: age differences and generational differences); and that (2) *the value systems of today's workers are different from those 40 and 60 ago* (lag-time studies show that managers of the same age, but living 20 or 40 years apart would likely to have different values) (Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010; Twenge, 2010)

Thus, because there exist specific millennial value systems that are different from previous generations, the research question of this study is the following: "*is there any specificity in value systems of the next generation in family business?*" Going even more at grain, we ask: (1) "*how values influence decision-making before and during succession?*" and (2) "*how values interfere to provide positive or negative outcomes during and after succession?*"

A total of 105 articles on next generation in family firms published in 35 journals was purposefully selected and reviewed. All these articles were divided into 4 categories: (1) decision to enter the family firm, (2) the process of training and transfers of knowledge, social capital, values and leadership; (3) decision to succeed the business; and, (4) the process retirement of the previous generation. A framework values based on Schwarts (1992) and Ravlin and Meglino (1998) is developed.

Findings suggest that the role of values is generally missed in the research of the next generation. It was suggested, that at each stage of succession, specifically when the decision to enter is done and when the transfer of knowledge, leadership, values and social capital occurs values could be a factor that influence the decision and the process directly and indirectly. Because there is a lack of corresponding research, it will be difficult to predict, whether the increasing incorporation of Millennials will affect family business.

2. Literature Review Methodology and Descriptive Findings

To select the relevant literature a search within the following databases was performed: (1) Scopus; (2) Web of Science; and (3) JSTOR. The focus

was based on articles, published or in the process of publishing before January 2018 without a lower boundary. The following algorithm was used: Title includes: “family firm” or “family business”; and, title, abstract and keywords include: “next generation” or “successor” or “sibling” or “son” or “daughter”. A total of 297 items were identified. Conference papers (20), Reviews (13) and books (5) were excluded. In parallel to that, unrelated areas were excluded: physics and astronomy, health professions, earth and planetary sciences, chemistry, medicine, chemical engineering, agricultural sciences, mathematics, materials science, computer science and engineering, which reduced the sample up to 248 articles. After a careful review of these articles, only those that were published in well-established peer-reviewed academic journals (CiteScore 1.0 equal or higher) were selected, as articles in academic journals can be regarded as validated knowledge and likely to have a major impact on the field (Ordanini, Rubera & DeFillippi, 2008; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Bachrach & Podsakoff, 2005). Finally, those articles that were not written in English, were published before 2010, but were never cited were also excluded.

2.1. Descriptive findings

Journal	N articles	Cite Score
Family Business Review	38	3,58
Journal of Family Business Strategy	12	2,56
Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice	7	5,39
International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business	5	1,02
Journal of Small Business Management	5	3,48
Journal of Business Venturing	3	8,8
Small Business Economics	3	3,47
Leadership Quarterly	2	3,63
International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal	2	2,2
International Small Business Journal	2	4,4
Management Research Review	2	1,35

Table 1. Distribution of articles by journals

Country	N articles
United States	37
Canada	18
United Kingdom	12
Spain	11
Germany	8
Italy	7
Belgium	5
Australia	4
Finland	4

Table 2. Distribution of articles by country

Method	Number of articles
Qualitative	44
Quantitative	40
Mixed	3
Conceptual	12
Literature review	6

Table 3. Distribution of articles by method of research

A total of 105 articles published in 35 journals was obtained. Family Business Review published most of the articles, followed by Journal of Family Business Strategy and by Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice (Table 1). The majority of articles comes from Anglo-Saxon countries: United States, Canada and United Kingdom; followed by European research: Spain, Germany and Italy (Table 2).

As regards the methodological approach, most of the identified articles were empirical (84 articles), while only few are conceptual (12 articles) (Table 3). The empirical research is almost equally distributed between qualitative papers (44 articles) and quantitative ones (40 articles).

By analyzing the abstracts, it was possible to define three periods of research (Table 4). During the first period between 1990 and 1998 thirteen articles were published, all in Family Business Review with topics covering all

stages of succession process using both: qualitative and quantitative research methods. The second period lasted between 1999 and 2009, when twenty-nine articles were published. This period was marked by the predominant use of quantitative methods of research, published already in a variety of journals. Finally, during the third period between 2010 and 2017, the number of articles has duplicated again reaching sixty-three. This period is marked by introduction of new topics, multi-disciplinary approaches and novel research methods.

Year	N of articles	Accumulated N of articles	N of articles for each of three periods
2017	6	105	Period III: 63
2016	17	99	
2015	11	82	
2014	5	71	
2013	3	66	
2012	3	63	
2011	11	60	
2010	7	49	
2009	4	42	
2008	1	38	
2007	3	37	
2006	0	34	
2005	5	34	
2004	2	29	
2003	3	27	
2002	4	24	
2001	5	20	
2000	1	15	
1999	1	14	
1998	3	13	

1997	2	10	Period I: 13
1996	1	8	
1995	1	7	
1994	1	6	
1993	2	5	
1992	0	3	
1991	2	3	
1990	1	1	

Table 4. Distribution of articles by year of publishing

3. Analytical Framework

The framework outlines the four major building blocks of the next generation incorporation into the family firm: (1) decision to enter; (2) the process of working with previous generation before the succession occurs: bi-directional transfer of knowledge, social capital and values; (3) decision upon succession; and, (4) post-succession period of retirement previous generation. The building blocks are not similar in terms of time: two of them refer to decision-making (1) and (3); and, two refer to a continuous process (2) and (4). The blocks of decision-making and processes would normally alter sequentially. Each stage is played between the two generations.

The following framework for values will be adopted based on the following definition by Schwartz and Bilsky (1990, p. 878): “Values (a) are concepts or beliefs, (b) pertain to desirable (outcomes), end states or behaviors, (c) transcend specific situations, (d) guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and (e) are ordered by relative importance.” It should be noted that because some of the outcomes of work might be considered values (i.e. power, security, prestige, career progress, social links), a term “outcomes” was added to the definition (in (b)).

This definition infers the following typology of values, consistent with Meglino and Ravlin (1998, p. 353): (1) value that individual places on outcome (e.g., the value one places on pay); and, (2) value that individual places on end-states and behaviors (e.g. the value one places on altruism, self-direction, stimulation or hedonism). The second type of value is further sub-divided by Meglino and Ravlin (1998) into: (2a) *terminal values*: “Self-sufficient end-states of existence that a person strives to achieve (e.g., a comfortable life, wisdom); and (2b) *instrumental values*: “Modes of behavior (e.g., honesty, helpfulness) rather than states of existence that describe behaviours that facilitate the attainment of terminal values.

Further, values are ordered by relative importance and according to Schwartz and Bardi (2001), there is surprising pan-cultural similarity in values hierarchy. This similarity might be derived from the adaptive functions of values in maintaining societies and from our common human nature (Schwartz, 2012). The basic social function of values is to motivate and control the behaviour of group members (Parsons, 1951). According to Schwartz (2012) two mechanisms are critical: (1) values serving as internalized guides for individuals (internalized values); and (2) values to defining particular behaviours as socially appropriate, to justify their demands on others, and to elicit desired behaviours (social values).

According to Schwartz (2012), three demands of human nature and requirements of societal functioning are especially relevant: (1) Most important is to promote and preserve cooperative and supportive relations among primary group members. The critical focus of value transmission is to develop commitment to positive relations, identification with the group, and loyalty to its members. (2) Individuals must be motivated to invest time and effort to perform productive work, to solve problems that arise when working, and to generate new ideas and technical solutions. (3) It is socially functional to legitimize gratification of self-oriented needs and desires as long as this does not undermine group goals. Rejecting all such gratification would frustrate individuals and lead them to withhold their energies from the group and its tasks. According to this classification of social role of values, the values might be further classified into: (1) *noble* (consistent with cooperative function); (2) *useful* (consistent with performing productive work), and (3) *pleasant* (consistent with legitimate gratification function).

Though it has been demonstrated that the content of values is relatively universal (Schwartz, 1991), the goal of this paper is to investigate whether there is any specificity in value systems of the next generation in family business. And whether values influence decision-making or interfere to provide positive or negative outcome?

Thus, for the decision-making blocks the following research sub-question is asked: “*how values influence decision-making?*” For the process blocks the following research sub-question is asked: “*how values interfere to provide positive or negative outcome?*”

The final framework is presented in the Figure 1.

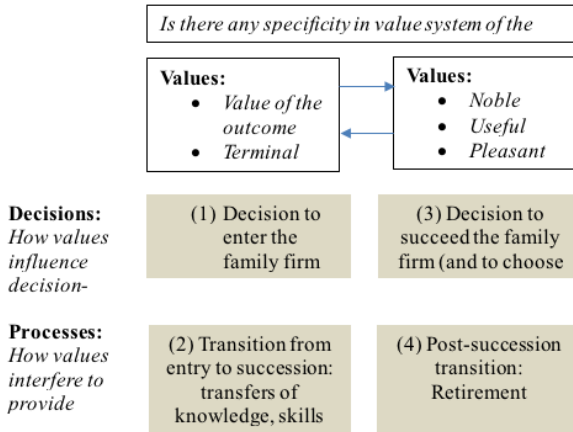


Figure 1. analytical framework

4. Findings

4.1. Decision to enter

According to previous research, values (Judge & Bretz, 1992; Jodl, Michael, Malanchuk, Eccles & Sameroff, 2001; Watt & Richardson, 2007) and perceived values congruence (Judge & Bretz, 1992) play role in the career decisions, even greater that do personality traits (Berings, De Fruyt & Bouwen, 2004). Perceived value fit predicts employee organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions (Cable & Judge, 1996, p. 303; Hoffman & Woehr, 2005; Liu, Liu & Hu, 2010).

Accordingly, for this decision-making block the following research sub-question is asked: "*how values influence decision to enter the family business?*" Despite of the growing interest, literature on career decisions of the next generation is relatively young. To date the influence of values on decision to the family firm has not been studied. There are two types of articles in this category: (1) those that try to find specific personality traits, attitudes, and motives that drive the next generation into family business (Zellweger et al., 2011; Schröder et al., 2011); and, (2) those that explore specific types of commitment for the next generation in family business (Stavrou, 1998; Sharma & Irving, 2005; Bjömberg & Nicholson, 2012; Murphy & Lambrechts, 2015). Literature outlines the following attitudes of the next generation: moderate level of entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Zellweger et al., 2011), as well as moderate levels of openness to new experiences and agreeableness (Schröder et al., 2011). Also, the endorsed attitude of working on your own and preference for stimulating career would make the individual prefer entrepreneurial career option over succession (Zellweger et al., 2011). Further, different types of commitment are related with taking the decision

(Sharma & Irving, 2005). Frurther, research outlines motives to enter the family business: emotional ownership (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012), helping family (Murphy and Lambrechts, 2015), being proud of the business (Holt et al., 2010).

4.2. Transition to become successor

This block of literature covers transition process after the decision to enter has been taken and before the decision on succession, or, when the decision is taken long before the succession takes place, the actual succession had occurred. A total of 37 articles are covering this block of literature. Differently to the previous section, this block of literature is relatively established, as the major and the most cited contributions had been made between 2001 and 2008; however, a new influx of literature between 2015 and 2017 is worth noting as these articles seem to be adopting new perspectives and expanding the boundaries of this block of literature.

Accordingly, for this process block the following research sub-question is asked: “how values interfere to provide satisfaction with the succession process and positive (or negative) organizational outcomes?”

Literature, that forms part of this block outlines the importance of transfers in transgenerational entrepreneurship (Sardeshmukh & Corbett, 2011; Casillas, Moreno & Barbero, 2011); innovativeness (Ingram, Lewis, Barton & Gartner, 2016; Bannó, 2016); and, in growth and performance (Ventler, Boshoff & Maas, 2005; Molly, Lavern & Jorissen, 2012; Schenkel, Yoo & Kim, 2016). Specifically, research outlines the following types of transfers: knowledge transfer (Cabrera-Suárez, De Saa-Pérez & García-Almeida, 2001; Woodfield & Husted, 2017); leadership transfers (Cabrera-Suárez, 2005); legacy transfers (Jaskiewicz, Combs & Rau, 2015) and value transfers (García-Álvarez & López-Sintas, 2001; García-Álvarez, López-Sintas & Saldaña Gonzalo, 2002) and the importance of certain conditions that facilitate or inhibit these transfers: communication (Cabrera-Suárez, De Saa-Pérez & García-Almeida, 2001; Cabrera-Suárez, 2005; Jaskiewicz, Combs & Rau, 2015; Woodfield & Husted, 2017); sibling rivalry (Friedman, 1991; Jayantilal, Jorge & Palacios, 2016; Carr, Kidwell & Camp, 2016), the role of environmental dynamism and hostility on the relation between next generation and entrepreneurial orientation (Casillas, Moreno & Barbero, 2011); the duality of external and internal development of successor (Sardeshmukh & Corbett, 2011); the effect of participation of family members in the board of directors and the participation of successors on propensity to patent (Bannó, 2016); the joint effect of preparation level and willingness of successor, and the relation between successor and owner-manager and the mediating effect of harmonious relations in family on continued profitability and satisfaction (Ventler, Boshoff & Maas, 2005); the role of birth order on firm performance (Schenkel, Yoo & Kim, 2016).

In terms of value transfers, García-Álvarez and López-Sintas (2001) proposed a taxonomy of founders, based on values that they want to transfer to their offspring. Suggesting heterogeneity of family businesses based on the value structure of their founders. In their later work these authors outlined several universal values, namely *business orientation, hard work, family orientation, autonomy, entrepreneurship and growth*, that most of the founders want to transmit to the next generation (García-Álvarez, López-Sintas & Saldaña Gonzalo, 2002). As authors notice, these values reflect the idea, that founders want their offspring to devote their “professional careers to the family firms” (p.194) and “encourage potential successors to learn to set their own business, which may or may not be merged with the family firm” (p. 194). Further findings suggest that there are two sets of instrumental values that all founders want to transmit to the next generation. Thus, founders suggested how the potential successor should behave in general as a person (*seriousness, active life, prosperous life, constancy, ethical orientation, rigor, simplicity, self-discipline, ambition, gratitude*) or within the firm (*determination, feeling of family, innovation, stability, satisfaction, people orientation, positive sense of human relations, negative sense of human relations, long-term orientation*) (p.194).

As it is noticed by Woodfield and Husted (2017), researchers are sympathetic to the senior generation nurturing the next generation while leaving a gap in understanding of how the next generation contributes knowledge to the firm. Indeed, while the incorporation of the next generation into the family firm would logically suggest the bi-directional, not uni-directional, transfers of values, leadership, and knowledge and shaping perceptions of both generations, in reality, the majority of researchers still see it as a uni-directional process going from incumbents to the next generation. It could be speculated that the incorporation of the Millennials could bring about the change in family businesses, specifically in a way they market their products and services, how the leadership is executed, and that family business incumbents should not be overly protective of these innovations and changes (Woodfield & Husted, 2017). As Cabrera-Suárez, De Saa-Pérez, García-Almeida (2001) suggest that for transition to occur, both: incumbent should be willing to appreciate and be willing to explore new management approaches; and, the next generation should appreciate incumbents accumulated knowledge, not rejecting established practices without considering their values for the firm.

4.3. Decision to succeed

For this decision-making block the following research sub-question is asked: “*how values influence successor selection and decision to succeed?*”

This block consists of literature that basically explores two directions: optimality of choice of successor and successor characteristics that make him be seen as a legitimate. The optimality of decision is a topic, that has

been primarily explored with game theoretic approaches (Lee, Lim & Lim, 2003; Michael-Tsabari & Weiss, 2015), tournament-style game (Mathews & Blumentritt, 2015), through the lenses of economic theory (Kimhi, 1997) and agency theory (Lee, Lim & Lim, 2003; Michel & Kammerlander, 2015; Liu, Eubanks & Chater, 2015). The optimality of timing (Kimhi, 1997; Hacker & Dowling, 2012); the role of communication (Michael-Tsabari & Weiss, 2015); and, the role of advisors (Michel & Kammerlander, 2015).

In terms of successor characteristics that make him be seen as a legitimate Dalpiaz, Tracey and Phillips (2014) present a typology of some of the narrative strategies that can be used during succession and suggest how these could be used to legitimate their succession. While the characteristics of successor: soft and hard skills, as well as willingness to take over collectively make up necessary conditions for the succession to occur (Golberg & Wooldridge, 1993; Christman, Chua & Sharma, 1998; Schleppehorst & Moog, 2014), external factors and the interaction and communication among different actors: incumbents, family, siblings, advisors add to the complexity of this decision-making (Michael-Tsabari & Weiss, 2015; Mathews & Blumentritt, 2015; Michel & Kammerlander, 2015).

4.4. Retirement of the previous generation

For this process block the following research sub-question was asked: “how values interfere to provide satisfaction with the outcomes of succession and positive (or negative) organizational outcomes?”

There are two primary directions within this block of literature: previous owner involvement (Cadieux, 2007; Feltham, Feltham & Barnett, 2005; Ahrens, Uhlener, Woywode & Zybura, 2017) and the results of the transfer of the company (Molly, Laveren & Deloof, 2010). In terms of results of the succession on financial structure of the firm, Molly and colleagues (2010) outline potential differences between first-generation and succession between later generations in terms of effect on debt rate (negative for first generation transitions) and growth rate (also negative). Ahrens and colleagues (2017) suggest that performance effect of previous owner involvement is linked to corporate age: it is positively associated with performance in younger firms, while this positive relation vanishes with increasing corporate age. Similarly, this involvement is positive in case of moderate successor human capital, but turns negative, when successor capital increases.

Harvey and Evans (1995) were the first to attract the attention to the possible problem of retirement of previous owner. Cadieux (2007) provides a typology of predecessors, suggesting that the face with an important period of transition in their life where their role as leader is replaced by other roles. Strike, Berrone, Sapp and Congiu (2015) argue that the near-retirement processes in family firms are not similar to non-family firms. And that the

previous owner might be taking significantly more risks than would non-family CEO take, due to the presence of socioemotional wealth.

5. Discussion

The few reliable academic investigations on Millennials (Twenge, 2010, Twenge et al., 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Smola & Sutton, 2002) suggest that Millennial generation can be traced by its values.

The theory defines values as desirable, trans-situational goals that vary in importance as guiding principles in people's lives (cf. Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973). Like general values, work values are beliefs pertaining to desirable end-states (e.g. high pay) or behaviour (e.g. working with people) applied to work settings (Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999, p.54).

Assuming that there exist specific millennial value systems that are different from previous generations, the research question of this study is the following: *“is there any specificity in value systems of the next generation in family business?”* Going even more at grain, we ask: (1) *“how values influence decision-making before and during succession?”* and (2) *“how values interfere to provide positive or negative outcomes during and after succession?”*

The analytical framework separated the succession process into four major building blocks of the next generation incorporation into the family firm: (1) decision to enter; (2) the process of working with previous generation before the succession occurs: bi-directional transfer of knowledge, social capital and values; (3) decision upon succession; and, (4) post-succession period of retirement previous generation. The building blocks are not similar in terms of time: two of them refer to decision-making (1) and (3); and, two refer to a continuous process (2) and (4). The blocks of decision-making and processes would normally alter sequentially. At each stage the role of values has been traced. Table 5 outlines the possible research questions.

Block	Research gaps
1. Decision to enter the family firm	<p>How values influence decision to enter the family firm? What role plays value congruence between next generation values and the culture of the family business? Are there any specific values that make individual enter the family firm? Which values stay behind “emotional ownership”? Does there exist a relation between values and type of commitment, especially, some types of commitment that are specific to family firm? How family business could adapt to capture the best of the Millennial human capital? Which type of values is most important/least important for decision to enter the family business? How values are related to the mode of entry?</p>
2. Transition to become successor	<p>How millennial values may change family business as we know it? Does there exist any taxonomy of successors in terms of values? What is the role of value fit between successor and the incumbent? What values drive the transgenerational entrepreneurship? What is the role of value fit between successor and the incumbent? What is the role of the fit between business values and family values? How ethical values are transmitted?</p>
3. Succession	<p>What are the values of “legitimate successor”? Does there exist any relation between successor values and firm performance? Does values of a legitimate successor and the effective successor are different?</p>
4. Retirement of the previous generation	<p>What is the role of values at this stage? How certain values could help to make the transition smoother?</p>

Table 5. Research gaps

6. Conclusion

The idea behind this research was to trace possible implications for the increasing incorporation of Millennials into the global workforce. Because Millennials can be defined through values, this research was focusing on reviewing literature on the next generation and to understand the role of values in decision-making and process stages of succession.

Borrowing from research on values from other disciplines, values were defined, and it was argued that values play role in job selection, job satisfaction and might indirectly influence the firm outcomes. Though research on the next generation also focuses on those topics, the role of values is conspicuously missing. We provide main findings of this review, but we suggest that a future research is needed to be able to link two streams of research: that of on Millennials and that of on the next generation.

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Mission-based Corporate Sustainability

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Abstract

This article discusses the development of a sustainability strategy within a water management company. The meaning of corporate sustainability is revised, and the relationship between sustainability and the company's mission, corporate social responsibility and the effective roll-out of a strategy are examined. The paper is based on the case study of Aigües de Barcelona, a water management company of Suez Group company, which has centred its mission on sustainable development and applies a three-dimensional model for rolling out the mission: as statement, motivation and practice. Studying this case helps to identify the main problems faced by companies in developing a sustainability strategy and how these problems can be resolved from the perspective of the corporate mission. The difficulties encountered in ensuring that the sustainability strategy is effective in the company's daily business are also covered, and some questions that remain unanswered are identified.

Keywords: Corporate sustainability, corporate mission, water resources ,management, corporate social responsibility, business strategy

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1. Introduction

Companies are incorporating sustainability into the definition of their mission and objectives (Mirvis et al., 2010; Morrish et al., 2011; Baral & Pokharel, 2017). Corporate Sustainability is already a common term in the theoretical research and in the practice of management (Wilson, 2003). However, it is also recognised that the definition of the concept of sustainability is still muddled and that there is a lack of knowledge about how to apply it and develop it effectively in business practices (Fergus & Roney, 2005; Linnenluecke & Griffiths, 2010; Gibson, 2012; Kates et al. 2012).

The strategy of corporate sustainability has been rolled out and implemented in companies by means of the Triple Bottom Line concept, according to which companies must seek balanced development of the economic, social and environmental benefits (Bansal, 2005; Brammer et al., 2009; Mirvis et al., 2010; Baral & Pokharel, 2017). However, multiple objections to this model have been raised: it is “simple business reporting”, which has little effect on achieving a society that is truly more sustainable (Lee & Saen, 2012; Milne & Gray, 2013); it does not cover the intertemporal perspective (Bansal & DesJardine, 2014), the method of balancing the three dimensions included in the Triple Bottom Line is not clear (Bañón et al., 2011); it is meaningless, without content and unconnected to reality (Kates et al., 2012); or it does not add anything new to corporate social responsibility (Norman & MacDonald, 2004).

Moreover, it appears clear that incorporating sustainability into the company's strategy affects how it defines its mission and at least two aspects of how the effects of company business are assessed: 1) concerning “who” considers themselves affected (stakeholders) by such activity and 2) concerning “how” the effects of actions should be assessed (Bastons & Armengou, 2017). From this double perspective, sustainability is presented as a means of developing the corporate mission which both includes the involved parties in the mission “more”, and also provides a criterion for assessing the effects of the action in meeting the needs of the affected parties. This explains why sustainability, mission and responsibility should in some way be integrated and cannot be handled as separate and unconnected policies (Payne & Raiborn, 2001).

Following the methodology used in other research on urban water management (Ferguson et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2013), here we present the case study of the company Aigües de Barcelona (AB). The company has developed an original sustainability management model which sets out and proposes solutions to some of the issues arising for companies in their efforts to effectively develop a sustainability strategy. Their strategy integrates the mission, sustainability and CSR, treating them not as three separate elements but as three aspects integrated into a single model which,

in order to be effective, is implemented in three dimensions: as statement, motivation and practice (Rey & Bastons, 2017). Firstly, the special relationship between sustainability and mission in a water management company is analysed and the idea of corporate sustainability and business responsibility entailed by this relationship is defined. Secondly, the rollout of the sustainability strategy is described, as carried out in three dimensions: statement, motivation and practice. Finally, conclusions are drawn from the example and an analysis conducted of the difficulties encountered in effectively developing the strategy and of several open questions. It should also be indicated that to analyse this case information from the company's internal and external reports was used and that the analysis is based on in-depth interviews with eight managers with special responsibility for the sustainable development strategy.

2. The 'Missionalisation' of Sustainability

Since it was founded in 1867, Aigües de Barcelona has had a special connection to the City of Barcelona and its surroundings, contributing to making the city one of the major metropolitan areas of Europe. AB belongs to the Suez Group, has around 1000 employees and, using a circular economy model, manages the entirety of the urban water cycle, serving approximately three million people in the municipalities of the Barcelona Metropolitan Area. The sustainable development initiative began in 2014 with the idea that the company should develop its own strategic model. As Ignacio Escudero (CEO of AB and one of its proponents) said, "the idea of sustainable development did not just suddenly appear. Concern about society and the environment is implicit in our business. We saw that the idea of sustainable development had to become a major 'structuring factor' in everything we do".

As in many strategic analyses, one of the first actions they took was to analyse the existing level of development of sustainability within the company (internal analysis) and to seek different external models that could be used as a reference (benchmarking). With respect to the former, they recorded projects, initiatives and plans that AB had already developed in the past or that were being implemented and that had constituted an important part of its strategy for several years. It was observed that AB had carried out or was carrying out educational projects, exhibitions, studies, debates, citizen awareness activities for responsible water consumption and various corporate social responsibility actions, all focused on promoting sustainable consumption. In fact, as Elisabet Bergés (member of the sustainable development team) stated, "AB was drafting sustainability reports as far back as 1998". However, as in other companies, the first thing they discovered was that "the company had a plethora of sustainability initiatives but no consistent strategic thrust behind them... Too many unaligned programs and messages" (Mirvis et al, 2010, 318).

To seek external references various benchmarking studies were conducted, analysing the sustainable development and corporate social responsibility actions of companies from different sectors. On the basis of these studies a “cloud of key words” was created, presenting the missions, visions and values of companies in the water sector. The relevant sustainable development documents of international organisations were also analysed in order to identify the factors with the greatest impact on companies' positions. Finally, a study of the context was conducted using a PESTEL analysis, which assesses variables in the national context which may directly or indirectly affect the company's activity. Here again however it was observed that while many sustainable water management policies offered interesting ideas, they were not a model to be followed. This was partly due to the fact that water management is still seen as a “service to be provided”, despite the fact that many studies have demonstrated that this approach is no longer sufficient to tackle the challenges arising in modern cities (Marlow et al., 2013), and that strategic changes and improvements in the field of water management are required (Martínez, 2015).

It was also observed that in many companies the procedure for implementing a sustainability strategy takes the form of a “departmentalisation”. This method of incorporating a new practice into an organisation is observed, for example, in CSR policies. Whether to meet the growing social demands on the company or for image and reputation reasons, many organisations create a “department” or “sub-departments” responsible for promoting certain “programmes”. Some companies also choose this option for implementing the concept of sustainability, assigning it to a Corporate Development, HR, CSR or Communications “department”. The result of this process of “departmentalisation” is the “plethora of sustainability initiatives but no consistent strategic thrust behind them” (Mirvis et al, 2010, p. 318). The “departmentalisation” of sustainability did not match what AB considered sustainability should be in a water management company. “We need to do away with the department vision. Sustainability is a transversal issue” (E. Bergés). In a water management company, sustainability cannot be solely an issue for one department, which launches programmes and issues certifications, because in this kind of company sustainability “is not “a part” of the strategy, but it “is” the strategy (I. Escudero). It was not that a sustainability “management system” was required, but that sustainability needed to be the “management method” for the whole company. Sustainable water management was a matter that affected the essence of the company, because “by its very nature water management is closely connected to sustainability” (Ramón Albareda, sustainable development team manager). “Until 2015 each of the company's different plants had 'its own' strategy. This changed when the approach was turned around and focused on incorporating all strategies into the mission” (Xavier Iraegui, Operations Director). Various pieces of research have demonstrated that the best way of

achieving sustainable water management in modern urban areas is the implementation of integrated water resources management (Cardwell et al., 2006; Ferguson et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2013; Cosgrove & Loucks, 2015). “Integrated management implies unification of all essential actions into the handling and control of water resources to accomplish some goal or objective. Integrated Water Resource Management is a coordinated, goal-directed process” (Cardwell et al., 2006, 9). A mission-based approach to sustainable water management in cities must also be applied within a water management company. Sustainability must be incorporated into its mission to be the “structuring” factor for all of its activity.

As a result of incorporating sustainability into corporate strategy, many companies have redefined their mission and their role in society (Mirvis et al., 2010; Baral & Pokharel, 2017). The mission is commonly understood as the ‘why we exist’, or the *raison d’être*, of an organisation (Bart, 1997; Mirvis et al, 2010). The question of the mission lies at a contributory level as it consists of “the people’s needs that an organisation meets or intends to meet” (Campbell & Yeung, 1991; Bartkus & Glassman, 2008). For example, Unilver redefined its mission as: “To add vitality to life by meeting everyday needs for nutrition, hygiene, and personal care brands that help people feel good, look good, and get more out of life” (Mirvis et al., 2010, p. 318).

Yet the connection between sustainability and mission has not been made only in business practice. There is also a logical connection between sustainability and mission. If we take the most accepted definition of sustainability as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Brundtland Report, World Commission, 1987), it can be seen that 1) the concepts of both mission and sustainability have the goal of “meeting the needs of others” and that 2) sustainability provides “a way” of fulfilling the mission: meeting needs without compromising the ability of others (present and future generations) to meet their own needs. This already allows us to define corporate sustainability as “the way of developing one's own mission without compromising the ability of others (stakeholders) to meet their mission”. It should however be noted that this is a “negative” version of sustainability while a positive version should be given. Amartya Sen (2011) emphasises the underlying negative sense of this definition of sustainability (“not compromising” other generations). He proposes a positive meaning of sustainable development, according to which true sustainable development does not consist of “not compromising” the ability of others, but rather of trying to “improve” their abilities. In this “positive” meaning corporate sustainability can be understood as “fulfilling the company's mission by improving the abilities of the stakeholders to fulfil theirs”.

2.1. The Corporate Sustainability - CSR Connection

The sustainability-mission connection requires that the idea of corporate responsibility (CSR) be revised and the relationship between the three concepts clarified. Certainly there is some confusion about the relationship between sustainability policies and CSR (Montiel, 2008; Bansal & DesJardine, 2014). The literature shows us that mission, responsibility and sustainability should not be treated as separate and unconnected realities (Payne & Raiborn, 2001; Martínez, 2015). In fact, the concept of “corporate sustainability” is considered a concept that “unites” at least four others: sustainable development, corporate social responsibility, stakeholder theory and corporate accountability (Wilson, 2003). As a result, AB’s fundamental objective, and undoubtedly its greatest contribution, is precisely managing to integrate the three elements of sustainability, mission and social responsibility in a single “Integrated Water Resource Management” (Cardwell et al., 2006). In reality, “sustainable development is an “evolution” of social responsibility policies (E. Bergés) and should be seen as an “expansion” of responsibility, which involves concern for all stakeholder groups, rather than just a select few (Porter & Derry, 2012; Bastons & Armengou, 2017). The company takes responsibility for the effects of its actions in meeting the needs of “other” stakeholders (current and future) (Sekerka & Stimel, 2012). In this way, while the mission states the stakeholders' needs that the company aims to meet, sustainability is a “more responsible” way of fulfilling the mission: 1) Thinking of “all stakeholder groups, rather than just a select few” and 2) “trying not to compromise, but rather improve, the ability of stakeholders to fulfil their mission”.

Corporate sustainability is thus a different method of practising CSR (Bansal, 2014) which moreover should be distinguished from “solidarity” (Bastons & Armengou, 2017). Sustainability connected to the mission is a method for exercising responsibility, not as a programme, but as a strategy. If CSR is developed on the basis of the programmes and actions of one department, this could be classified as “weak CSR” and so sustainability is different from CSR. In fact, there may be unsustainable CSR programmes (Bansal & DesJardine, 2014). Yet if sustainability is a method for fulfilling the mission, this is “strong CSR”, and so sustainability and corporate social responsibility can be considered to be the same thing (Norman & MacDonald, 2004). Therefore it makes sense for sustainability to be seen as an “evolution” of the exercise of responsibility and for CSR policies to be incorporated into the corporate sustainability strategy, as AB does.

3. 3D Sustainability Display: Statements, Motivation and Practices

AB linked sustainability to the mission, but wished to avoid it being limited to being a Mission Statement. It was therefore rolled out using a three-dimensional model, according to which, for a mission to be effective, it must be developed in three dimensions: formal, motivational and dynamic (Rey & Bastons, 2017). This means the sustainable development strategy must be rolled out in three dimensions: as statement, motivation and practice. As a result, AB's sustainability strategy has been developed over three phases:

a. Definition of Sustainability Strategy. Sustainability as Statement. This dimension makes reference to the “formal” definition of the strategy. It consists of adapting the company's Vision, Mission and Values to the sustainable development model.

b. Motivation for the Sustainability Strategy. Sustainability as Motivation. This dimension makes reference to the process whereby the members of the organisation “internalise” the strategy. It consists of developing adequate motivation (prosocial motivation) for change through training, communication systems and leadership development.

c. Drawing up and Monitoring the Sustainability Strategy. Sustainability as Practice. This dimension refers to the “implementation” of a strategy in the company's processes and operations, to the incorporation of monitoring methods and tools to certify and notify compliance with the commitments made in the strategy and to the monitoring of the results achieved at all times.

3.1. Sustainability as ‘Statement’

Companies define and declare the mission expressing the stakeholders’ needs that the organisation intends to meet (Bastons et al., 2017). This is the aspect reflected in the majority of mission statements. Most research and developments in the literature on mission focus on the “formal definition” of mission (Senge, 1998; Davies & Glaister, 1997; Noy, 1998; Bartkus and Glassman, 2008; Williams, 2008; David & David., 2016; Desmidt et al., 2011). In this formal dimension the intention is that sustainable development be present in the company's institutional statements: the definition of the Mission, Vision and Values. In AB, this step of defining the strategy was carried out by means of a participatory process (108 professionals in the company). As I. Escudero stated, the objective was to “develop our own strategic model from the beginning. We are not a company that places a product. For several decades now we have not been a “water sales” company. We are an environmental management company”. According to this view, the definition of the sustainable strategy was based on three fundamental

concepts: “triple bottom line”, “stakeholders” (interest groups) and “mission”.

3.2. The Triple Bottom Line

In this ‘statement’ phase the starting point was taken to be the definition of vision: “To be a world leader in water cycle management, making a significant contribution to the sustainable development of our environment”. Based on this vision three central concepts were defined around which the mission would be rolled out: People, Water, City, using the three central concepts of the Triple Bottom Line: social, environmental and economic. It is true that many objections to this approach have been raised; however, the Triple Bottom Line certainly helps to firm up lines of action in developing sustainability, and also in water management (Kumar et al., 2013). The AB mission was therefore defined as follows: Committed to people, we care for water and build up a city. This was the mission that was subsequently connected to the stakeholders of the company, to the values (responsibility, talent, dialogue, innovation and excellence, corresponding to the main demands detected among the stakeholders), and to the company’s ten commitments or lines of action, which were laid down in the Waters 2020 Programme.

3.3. Stakeholder needs

Incorporating stakeholders' needs and expectations is a central point in developing a sustainability strategy (Mirvis, 2010; Baral & Pokharel, 2016). This is where AB applied an idea of “strong” responsibility (Bastons & Armengou, 2017), avoiding a priori reducing the responsibility to a particular previously demarcated group of “stakeholders”, and extended it to all the main parties involved in the company's activity. The main “Relationship Groups” were identified, in multidisciplinary workshops, using the employees' experience and knowledge. In this way a group of fifteen relevant Relationship Groups was identified, and certain priorities detected: employees, clients, suppliers, shareholders, regulators, citizens and the media. Subsequently, the expectations with the greatest impact and influence on the activity were determined in order to identify the values and possible lines of action, in accordance with these expectations. The result was the company's five values: Responsibility, Excellence, Dialogue, Talent and Innovation and the ten commitments or “lines of action” (Table 1).

Lines of action - commitments	Expectations met
1 Personal development Promoting the professional development of all employees	Employess – Adequate resources Employess – Recognition Employess – Personal development Employess – Promotion system
2 Work environment Establishing conditions that encourage a balanced and healthy work environment	Employees – Acceptable workload Employees – Recognition Employees – Health and Safety Employees – Good working atmosphere Employees – Work-life balance Employees – Stable employment
3 Relationship groups Incorporating into the strategy plans and objectives to meet the expectations of the interest groups	Clients - Information (service and incidences) Clients – Sensitivity Clients – Incident Service Regulators – Proximity
4 Social and environmental impact Assessing the social, economic and environmental impact in the company's relevant projects	Regulators – Tariffs (justification, efficiency) Regulators – Positive impact Citizens – Ethics
5 Access to water Raising awareness and acting to guarantee access to water for vulnerable communities in the greater Barcelona area	Clients – Bill real consumption Clients – Flexible problem-solving Clients – Sensitivity Regulators – Social assistance Citizens – Fair price
6 Supply chain Obtaining suppliers' commitment to AB's values by means of selection and dialogue with them	Suppliers – Clear contracting rules
7 Internal Network Encouraging exchanges of experiences and knowledge between employees to ensure better continuity of processes	Employees – Communication
8 Risk management Identifying and managing risks to guarantee sustainability in the water cycle activity	Shareholders – Reputation Shareholders – Minimising and anticipating risks Shareholders – Economic profitability (in the long term) Regulators – Risk management Regulators – Compliance

<p>9 Water resources and demand Encouraging the management of water resources to meet demand and their use</p>	<p>Clients – Continuity and quality Clients – Flexible problem-solving Clients – Guarantee Citizens – Quality</p>
<p>10 Circular economy Innovating in criteria for designing and managing installations and processes to adapt them to the principles of the circular economy</p>	<p>Shareholders – Anticipating risks Shareholders – Reputation Regulators – Positive impact</p>

Table 1. The 10 sustainable development commitments made by AB

3.4. Waters 2020

The whole process of developing a sustainability strategy on the basis of the definition of the mission, values and commitments was defined in a programme of action called Waters 2020. Waters 2020 sets out a series of lines of work and channels for meeting the commitments, such as the “Assessment of the Social and Environmental Impact of All Actions”, or the “Personal Development Project”, which covers the first commitment to people. The objective of the Waters 2020 programme was to define a “roadmap” with objectives, indicators and an initial approximation of the specific actions to achieve these objectives in the timescale from 2015 to 2020. To draw up the initial programme, ten working teams were created, comprising a total of 106 people with different profiles and from different departments. Each team had a sponsor, a person from the AB management commitment with the function of leading and providing a general overview of the company, and a coordinator, with the function of encouraging a dynamic working team. As a result of this work, 293 opportunities for action were defined, which had to be redefined, added to and rolled out over the five years the plan was to last.

3.5. Sustainability as motivation.

To ensure that the sustainability strategy is not reduced to a simple statement, and becomes effective in the company's day-to-day workings, it must be internalised by each member of the organisation as a “personal” mission (Rey & Bastons, 2017). This leads to development of the motivational dimension of the mission. Motivation linked to mission is what makes matters that may be part of a mission, such as ‘customer satisfaction’, ‘contribution to society’ or ‘employee development’, become something truly sought after by members of an organisation, instead of simply being formal statements. The ‘why’ of the work and efforts of members of an organisation, that is, their motivation to meet the needs of others, is what ultimately defines whether an organisation has a mission and what it actually is. Precisely because it is aimed at satisfying the needs of ‘others’, this motivation has been treated and referred to in the literature as prosocial

motivation (Batson & Shaw, 1991; Grant, 2007, 2008), or as pro-stakeholder motivation (Bastons et al., 2016). Prosocial motivation is considered an important source of motivation that drives employees to expend effort to benefit others' needs (Cardona & Rey, 2006, 2008; Wang, 2011; Braun et al., 2012; Rey & Bastons, 2017). The roll-out of the motivational dimension of the mission aims to ensure that within their duties all employees in the company internalise the idea of sustainable development as an integral part of their personal mission, connecting the company's mission with the individual mission, from the top of the organisation right to the bottom. The development of prosocial motivation therefore has a decisive effect on the effective implementation of the mission (Paulraj et al., 2017; Rey & Bastons, 2017).

Aligning the strategy with people entails aligning it with the expectations and interests of the different Relationship Groups to make the strategy “friendly”. This was carried out by means of processes of communication and dialogue with each interest group. A climate survey was conducted among the company's 1000 employees (who were to make the mission reality) with 72% participation. A “Client Strategy Department” had already been created in 2013 to open dialogue channels with citizens. The most representative entities were subsequently identified, including residents' associations, NGOs and other social organisations, to raise the profile of the company and identify citizens' concerns. Working procedures were also adapted and officers appointed in every department of the company to guarantee consistent and effective communication and ensure that citizens' expectations were incorporated into decision-making. A “Proximity Plan” was launched in collaboration with the public authorities, to strengthen connections with contacts from the city councils, acting in coordination with the Communications, Client Strategy and Sustainable Development Departments. Finally, the processes for selecting and contracting suppliers were adapted. A code of conduct applicable to all suppliers was drawn up in order to ensure compatibility with the values and ways of action of the company.

3.6. Shared Mission

The key to aligning people and strategy was in the connection between the company's mission and the personal mission of each person. It was necessary to establish “the contribution” made by each and every employee, i.e. their personal mission, to the *raison d'être*, the AB corporate mission. This meant engendering identification and stimulating the “sense of contribution” each individual had when it came to achieving the company's mission, and developing a “shared mission”. “Shared mission” expresses the process of precisely defining the mission (Water-People-City) in the different areas and departments, and focuses on developing the “sense of contribution” to the mission, expressing what each specific area and each

person contributes to the mission. Each person had to visualise their specific contribution and how their achievement was measured. In total 14 “shared mission” workshops were held, in which each department manager, together with their team, answered the question: what is our department's contribution to the AB mission? After reviewing the shared mission statements with the managers of each department, 12 shared missions were drawn up concisely for each of the strategic concepts (Water-People-City).

3.7. Leadership and Communication

In order to implement the sustainability strategy based on the corporate mission and the shared mission, a far-reaching cultural change with a new style of leadership was required, in which communication plays a decisive role in aligning the strategy and the Relationship Groups. After “defining” the strategy, it was necessary to “influence” people and transform the company in accordance with said strategy. To achieve this, the company had to define the role of the leader in developing strategy in their area of influence, the competencies they required and how to acquire and develop them. The Human Resources Department drafted and piloted a leadership development plan, involving 95 people from different hierarchical levels. It was understood that leadership had to be exercised through the line management and through informal networks to complete the roll-out and to monitor the strategic lines of action.

A solid reputation is also essential for making the strategy “friendly”. The objective was to ensure that employees know, understand and live the strategy in order to achieve the desired result, i.e. the mission, and present it externally so that the company could be known as it really is. This included work to integrate some of the communicative actions and create a common thread of messages, actions and communication channels with the information receivers. Through this, the aim was also to minimise some problems that were detected in the employee climate survey: the distance between the messages and the information requirements of the recipients; the noise generated by the multiple formal and informal information inputs; the feeling of separation between the management team and the rest of the organisation; the disconnect between the messages and the company's sense of mission; and the lack of integration between internal and external communication. As a result, a “Strategic Communication Plan” was defined, with three objectives: boosting the “motivation for the mission”, raising awareness of AB's most relevant achievements in a consistent manner, and facilitating dialogue with the main stakeholders. The Communications Department and the change management team were commissioned to draw up and monitor this plan.

3.8. Sustainability as practice

The dynamic dimension reflects the implementation of the mission: how it is carried out in practice. It is the mission of the company expressed in the company's operational processes and procedures (Rey & Bastons, 2017). This dimension can be seen in many mission statements, which consider the mission as a set of 'practices' (Campbell & Yeung, 1991; Ireland & Hitt 1992; Crotts, 2005; Cardona & Rey, 2006). Expressing the mission in concrete actions and results, that is, products and services, is also part of the mission itself. Within the dynamic dimension, the idea of sustainable development is intended to be used as a "central concept" to organise and assess the performance of the mission, that is, a reference point to assess the results of the whole company in terms of implementation of the strategy.

3.9. Control Panel

To measure the level of implementation of AB's sustainability strategy a "scorecard" was established including the indicators associated with fulfilment of the mission, in particular the indicators measuring the 10 commitments to the Relationship Groups. The first step was to conduct an analysis of the existing indicators. During this analysis, those responsible for developing the sustainability strategy detected the connection problems that tend to occur between planning (Statements) and practices (Mirvis, 2010). The most significant problems detected in AB were as follows: lack of definition of the objectives, little relevance given to the process of rolling out the objectives, disconnect between the strategy and the specific operational plans, and tendency to focus on excessively operational objectives. It was considered that a scorecard was the essential tool for correcting these malfunctions and connecting the sustainability strategy with daily practice. The systems were gradually adapted so that each person understood that what they were doing was affecting a point of the mission as defined. Within the scorecard the annual objectives were set for the indicators considered "strategic", and other "tactical and operational" objectives were added so that they could all be achieved with the available resources. Finally, the plans and the actions required to implement these plans were defined; these were the annual operating plans included in "Waters 2020". These plans, together with the communication plan, were to be the reference for all management systems, and would be accompanied by the implementation of SGE-21 ethical and socially responsible management certification. This tool means that any employee knows at any time what projects they are involved in and the specific objectives on which they should work.

To drive the implementation of sustainability criteria in all areas of the company, it was decided that in addition to the existing management systems a certification process complying with SGE-21 standard should be added. This standard provides criteria which can be used to set up and assess an

ethical and socially responsible management. It entails voluntarily acquiring a commitment to sustainability which applies ethical, social and environmental values in the decision-making processes. SGE-21 was considered useful for organisations which wish to move from a pro-client approach to a pro-stakeholders approach, from the drafting of social responsibility plans “separate” to the integration of sustainable development into the organisation's overall strategy, which was one of AB's fundamental aspirations. The standard is based on the Deming (Pla-Do-Check-Act) cycle of ongoing improvement, so that it is compatible and can be integrated with other quality management, environmental and occupational risk prevention systems, and is easily used alongside other standards such as the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) and the United Nations Global Compact, among others.

3.10. Sustainable Development Reports. GRI

One of the basic values of sustainable development models is transparency and measurable and demonstrable accountability. Drawing up sustainability reports helps organisations to set objectives, measure performance and manage change in order to ensure their operations are more sustainable. Along these lines, in 2014 AB began to draw up the “Sustainable Development Report” according to GRI criteria. Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) is an organisation created in 1997 at the initiative of the Coalition for Environmentally Responsible Economies (CERES) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). The GRI has developed a guide for drawing up a sustainability report which encourages the use of accessible and comparable information in this type of publication and therefore improves the quality of the information so that relationship groups can make the appropriate decisions (Grushina, 2017; Wagner & Seele, 2017).

The 2015 report was drawn up following the latest version of this methodology, the version G4, which focuses the information on the “critical” aspects determining the achievement of the company's objectives and reflect its impact on society. As E. Bergés explains, the most interesting point of this G4 version is the “analysis of materiality”, which consists of detecting and collecting those aspects of the company's activity which the Relationship Groups consider most important. The idea is that “before publishing anything, ask what your relationship groups want to know”. It was the analysis of the expectations of and commitments to the Relationship Groups which came up with the 10 “material” aspects and the commitments rolled out in the Waters 2020 plan.

4. Conclusions, Challenges and Questions for Future Research

The Aigües de Barcelona sustainable development model is an example of development of corporate sustainability which is not a programme, but a

corporate strategy; it should not be reduced to statements, but motivate all employees and be demonstrated in the company's operations. For the former, sustainability is linked to the company's mission and in connection with the second the company carries out a three-dimensional roll-out of said mission.

As strategy, sustainability leads to the mission being redefined, expanding the company's responsibility. This means fulfilling the mission (meeting needs) “differently” (with “strong” responsibility). And so it was discovered that corporate sustainability is the method for fulfilling one's own mission without prejudicing or improving the stakeholders' ability to fulfil their own mission (World Commission, 1987). Understood in this way, sustainability, mission and CSR are unified and it makes sense for CSR policies to be integrated within the sustainability strategy.

In turn, to be truly effective and part of life in the company, sustainability must be rolled out in three dimensions: as statement, motivation and practice. As statement, sustainability means redefining the mission, vision and values, identifying the stakeholders and their expectations, and setting explicit commitments to them. As motivation, the sustainability strategy requires that mechanisms be established to internalise the mission, that the leadership systems be reviewed and that new communication forms be reinforced. Lastly, as practice, sustainability strategy requires that the follow-up and monitoring mechanisms be reviewed and that appropriate performance indicators be established, underpinning the certifications and reports to the company.

In general terms, AB's sustainability strategy was rolled out and followed up positively; however, some problems were also identified. Firstly, asymmetry was observed in the formalisation, motivation and operational implementation processes. In formalisation of the strategy the steps to be taken are clearer, there are sufficient references and tools to carry it out, and it can be done with certain speed. Conversely, the path is not so clear for internalisation and implementation of the strategy; there are fewer references and they require more time. This means that people continue to see the new sustainability-focused mission with certain detachment. The mission workshops were received positively, but their motivating effect was diluted over time. It is difficult to connecting the idea of sustainability with the mission of each individual, starting with management. For example, many employees recognise that the Waters 2020 plan has not managed to form part of the work of each of them.

Some believed that a weak point was the form in which the scorecards for each department of the company were prepared, since the connection between daily practice of the department and the mission was not always understood. Some managers were not convinced by bringing together the strategic and “department” indicators in a single scorecard, as they felt that

this caused confusion. Moreover, it was seen that the set of indicators used by the company needed to be simpler and more intuitive. In short, a simpler and more realistic account of sustainable water management was required.

Additionally, it was observed that agents do not become committed to the project as a result of the most detailed scorecard, but by them internalising and participating in a common goal. The best project is not the one designed with greatest precision, but the one employees manage to internalise and put into practice. This represents a challenge for leadership, in which the degree of personal internalisation and conviction of the manager plays an important role. A systematic way of tackling this challenge is still a work in progress, in both theory and practice.

The institution also makes sustainable development its mission and there is some doubt as to whether this is not modifying the company's "business model" and making the strategy lose credibility. While the idea of sustainability may be a source for distinguishing business models (Laasch, 2018), the question is whether "sustainability" has a "substantive" role in a strategy or is an "adjective" about the strategy; if sustainability can "be" the mission of a company or if it is a quality, a "method" of fulfilling the mission. What happens, or may happen, if a company (for example, a water management company) says that its mission is sustainability? From the outset, it appears that it transforms a quality of its business model into "the business model". However, can sustainability be the business model of a water cycle management company? If this is the case, doubts arise as to the authenticity of its mission, because it may appear to be a merely "tactical" approach to sustainability (Bastons & Armengou, 2017).

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Part I

Academic Research Papers

Missions and Leadership

Session

Transcendental Leadership: A Philosophical Approach to Leader's Effectiveness

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Abstract

This paper presents the development of transcendental leadership theory and results of initial testing of the Transcendental Leadership 5D Model.

The focus of this paper is to analyze the constructs of leadership identity and organizational context in relation to Transcendental Leadership.

We argue that, in the past, most researchers have paid little attention to the essence of leadership, which is embedded in our human nature of living. As cited by Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber (2009 p. 422): "Leadership is no longer simply described as an individual characteristic or difference, but rather is depicted in various models as dyadic, shared, relational, strategic, global and a complex social dynamic".

Consequently, we are proposing that leadership should not continue to be studied as a process or style of leadership but approached as a social philosophy of human relationship in Anthropologic Organizations.

The study is being implemented in a sample of Mexican industries in the private sector, located in the state of Nuevo Leon, Mexico. We validated the dimensions of the constructs of the 5D model with qualified experts in the field of leadership, using their feedback to adjust the measurement instruments and survey perspective. The final transcendental leadership scale (based on 7 points of Likert) showed robust preliminary explicit theoretical grounding. Additionally, content validity was made through a pilot test, attaining acceptable reliability of Cronbach Alfa.

The preliminary results of the research have revealed that leader identity and organizational context have a positive impact on transcendental leadership emergence, thus creating a positive work environment to developing future leaders in all levels.

We argue that creating a positive work environment in organizations, recognizing an employee's potential, and prizing good behaviors and performance, are essential to develop future leaders in all levels. An explanation of contributions of the present research on transcendental leadership are in the discussion & contribution section.

Keywords: Transcendental leadership, leadership context, leader identity & effectiveness.

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1. Introduction

Since ancient times, leadership topic has been a key issue for humanity to survive and evolve, but it was until last century, that it became essential to study this phenomenon in a scientific way, as a result of the industrial revolution in the beginning of 1900's. After the initial experiments in the Hawthorne factory of Western Electric, conducted by Elton Mayo to study the work conditions in relation to work performance and productivity of employees, it became apparent that leader's attitude towards workers, affect employees' motivation to increase productivity. Since then, many ways and approaches in leadership have been emerging to face the challenges of human communities and organizations. As cited by Charan and Colvin (1999), that according to the prevalence of bad leadership in organizations, it is necessary to deeply understand the variables that create possibilities for effective leadership and leadership development.

We argue that, in the past, most researchers have paid little attention to the essence of leadership which is embedded in our human nature of living and developing with dignity, prosperity, and quality of life. Transcendental leadership fulfils this perception.

Transcendental leadership has previously incorporated features of other leadership approaches, such as transactional and transformational leadership. In short, the notion of transcendental leadership has been defined by Cardona (2000) as a contribution-based exchange relationship. In this relationship, the leader promotes unity by providing fair extrinsic rewards, appealing to intrinsic motivations of the followers, and developing their

transcendent motivation. Later on, Sanders, Hopkins and Geroy (2003) proposed that the transcendental theory of leadership comprises three dimensions of spirituality (consciousness, moral character, and faith) that incorporate the managerial facets of transactional theory and the charismatic aspects of transformational theory to enhance leadership effectiveness. However, research has failed to clearly state the relationship among these theories with transcendental leadership.

Liu's (2008) research on Transcendental Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour recalled that existing leadership and motivation theories based on the assumptions of a stable environment, certainty, and cognitive rationality are unable to solve the existential vacuum. So, Liu found that it is necessary to recognize the significance of spirituality in the workplace as a new approach to motivate employees effectively and help organizations to compete and cooperate successfully in the global economy.

Additionally, Dent, Higgins and Wharff (2005) stated that leaders showing spirituality at work can inspire and motivate employees to develop purpose and meaningful behaviour to transcend their personal interest and increase leadership effectiveness. Moreover, Mitroff and Denton (1999) mention that spirituality is the ultimate competitive advantage of organizations and Hammer (2010) defined spirituality as an emergent process of progressive psychological integration to higher levels of transcendence and consciousness, considering the person's frame of reference. In fact, Sanders et al. (2003) proposed that leaders must integrate spirituality into all aspects of their life, so they can place spirituality where it belongs to: consciousness in the mind, moral character in the heart, and faith in the soul. Therefore, these lines of research suggest that effective leadership should be founded in the spiritual dimension of leadership.

Last, Probert and Turnbull-James (2011) proposed that renewing the organization's leadership concept, which comprises all the assumptions an organization has embedded in its culture about leadership, is the most important role of leadership development initiatives. Hannah, Sumanth, Lester, and Cavarretta (2014) stated that certain unique skills, knowledge, orientations, identities, attributes, and other specific factors promote or enable a leader to act authentically in a transformational role, and so forth. They also believe that it is critical to identify those factors to inform effective leader development.

In summary, our study reviewed the theoretical framework of transcendental leadership and leadership effectiveness in organizations, proposing a transcendental leadership 5D model based on the essence of leadership, analysing preliminary results, and point out some implications and conclusions of relevant findings.

2. Transcendental Leadership 5D Model

Based on our extensive research of leadership theories and literature, we found that the original concept of transcendental leadership was proposed by Cardona (2000). While Cardona's approach of transcendental leadership is based on follower's intrinsic motivations development, in which their needs are aligned with the needs of the leader, Cardona's idea of transcendental leadership implies viewing the transcendental leader as a "servant leader", so this notion only allows to infer the possible implications of this facet for leadership effectiveness.

Later, Sanders et al. (2003), proposed a conceptual model of transcendental leadership which integrates and builds on existing leadership theories. Specifically, their model displays transactional, transformational, and transcendental theories of leadership as being linked together along a common continuum of locus of control, effectiveness, and spirituality.

Next, Geroy, Bray and Venneberg (2005) suggest that coaching, counselling and mentoring should be embraced in leadership behaviour in an integrated strategy for managing performance and proposed the CCM Model where leaders can be more effective when they use appropriate transactional, transformational, or transcendental leadership styles which are supported by corresponded coaching, counselling, and mentoring practices. Coaching for skills development, counselling for performance improvement, and mentoring for individual and organizational evolution.

Although the mentioned researchers, proposes that transcendental leadership incorporates features of transactional and transformational leadership, it is not clearly established what is the relationship between these theories. Our viewpoint is on the enhancement of individual and organization development, prosperity, and sustainability. However, their perspective is unclear on how to relate the different constructs of the three theories and how dependent or mediator variables are related to independent variables, regardless of focusing only on leader effectiveness. In contrast, we are building our transcendental leadership theory on five constructs that generate a positive effect on transcendental leadership, thus creating a process of individual and organizational development, prosperity, and sustainability.

In this paper, even though, we have been doing our research in the five dimensions of the Transcendental Leadership 5D Model, we are presenting the theoretical framework and results found in only two of the variables, as our data still not complete due to the phase of ongoing process in the research.

2.1. Leader Identity

Muir (2014) mentions that identity research sheds light on several issues which have tremendous impact on our understanding of the leadership

process. As Lord & Hall (2005) stated, an individual's self-conception as a leader is an essential part of an outstanding leadership development. They also set three statements for the key nature of this identity creation: a) it gives a structure to integrate the new knowledge of leadership and skills development; b) it becomes a source for a leader to access new developmental opportunities; and c) also becomes a source of personal strength to motivate others.

Per literature, there are two types of self-identity: independent and interdependent. Banaji and Prentice (1994) mention that independent type of self-identity is based on an individual sense of uniqueness, self-sufficiency, or independence from others, and the interdependent self-identity is grounded on the extent an individual defined oneself in relation to others or by becoming part or a member of a social group. Additionally, Luhrmann and Eberl (2007) explored the dynamics of identity construction and suggested four relevant aspects related to leader identity: motivations, conformity and authenticity, power, and relationships.

By contrast, Wilber (1979) defined a very simple process to establish an identity. When someone tries to answer the question "Who am I?" a very simple event happens; one sets a mind limit that crosses all the field of experience, thus what is inside that limit is perceived as myself and what remains outside is excluded from oneself. By this way, the identity totally depends on the place we establish the limit. Besides, when an individual identifies him or herself, they choose mainly one facet of their totality which is more representative of his or her authentic reality. That receives different names: mind, personality, psyche, or ego. This view is connected to Mitroff and Denton (1999b) conception, in the sense that spirituality is the basic feeling of being integrated by one's complete self, others, and the entire universe. Spirituality is defined by Hammer (2010), as an emergent process of progressive psychological integration to higher levels of transcendence and consciousness.

In other perspective, the idea of multiple identities details from the concept of authenticity that is embedded in leader identity dimension, as it is post by Harter (2002), in the sense that, being authentic shows coherence between behaviour and emotional expression, with conscious awareness of psychological states, emotions, or cognitions. In addition, Luhrmann and Eberl (2007), explored the identity construction and suggested four related parameters to leader identity: motivations, authenticity disposition, power, and relations.

Meanwhile, Soane, Butler and Stanton (2015) mention that personality affect significantly the behaviour perception, so it is relevant for leadership research in three aspects: it is source of individual differences that could explain perceptions; provides an opportunity to extend theory that enables

assessment of perceptions of leadership and objective performance; and it helps understanding of relationships between collaborators and leaders.

Based in all these ideas, we may conclude that own capacity of being aware of self is a personal process to learn about and develop his/her self-concept, and be conscious of own talents, strengths, weaknesses, values, beliefs, wishes, and life purpose.

Moreover, according to Avolio and Gardner (2005), identity evolves from a fundamental consciousness of own knowledge, experience, and competence. Additionally, Lord and Hall (2005) mention, that leadership skills integration with leader identity is essential to leadership development, and Swann, Chang-Schneider and Larsen McClarty (2007) emphasize the importance of examining how the leader self-concept is formed, changed, and influence behaviours.

Finally, we reviewed some relevant studies of leader identity. One of them investigated the role of leader identity and the motivation to lead, and it showed that emphasis on behaviour modelling which can be used to develop identity and motivation factors which produce leadership effectiveness (Waldman, Galvin & Walumbwa, 2012). Findings suggest that behavior modeling is a technique to develop transformational leadership behavior. Another one observed how the power dimension is involved in identity construction and identity deconstruction. Nicholson and Carroll (2013) found evidence to demonstrate how power is displayed among members of a group as well as between members of the group and authority figures. Hence, power use has the potential to influence options, interactions, situations, and meaningful personal discoveries.

Although there are many different definitions of leader identity, we selected the one by Day (2000), defined as the way oneself thinks about him/herself as a leader. Therefore, considering the relationship between leader identity and the motivation to lead and leadership effectiveness, we propose that leader identity influences transcendental leadership growth, thus:

Hypothesis 1: Leader's identity positively impacts performance of transcendental leadership in organizations.

2.2. Organizational Context

During the last few decades, organizations have recognized the importance of positive organizational context to promote leadership development. A positive climate provides leaders a safe environment to face challenges without fear about honest pitfalls. Therefore, organizations which promote learning cultures will reinforce the value and meaning of failures as a source for positive acumen of a leader's success (Avolio & Hannah, 2009). Following the same line of thought, Bass (1999) refers that leaders who endorse organizational renovation will encourage the emergence of warm

organizational cultures that are oriented towards creativity, problem solving, experimentation and risk taking.

Beugré, Acar and Braun (2006) mention that transformational leadership will emerge as a dominant form of leadership when existing perception of the external atmosphere is volatile and ambiguous. They argue that transformational leadership is not a consequence of leaders attributes, but a response of leaders and organizations when facing an external environment behaviour. External factors such as globalization, strong business competition, and technological change create objective uncertainties and relevant facts which create the need of adaptation in an organization.

On the other hand, Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans and May (2004) suggest that relevance of meaningful work has become more and more important for organizations, aiming to keep a healthy climate and quality life at work, and better performance of employees. Also, Giacalone and Jurkiewicz (2003) argue that spirituality contributes to organizational performance and generates individual benefits: physical and mental health of employees, personal growth, resilience, self-worth feelings, developing of potential, and stress reduction. Liu (2008) mentions that spirituality has increase its importance in the administration of organizations and many definitions and measurements have being proposed to apply in the context of management (eg. Conger, 1994; Benefiel, 2003; Freshman, 1999; Mitroff & Denton, 1999; Sheep, 2004), and concluded that, spirituality is a mediator variable in the work place, where spirituality has a positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior, which is positively related to organizational effectiveness.

In addition, Amagoh (2009) argues that formal mentoring is a fundamental component of leadership development programs and produces great benefits to organizations, such as: improvement of individual and organizational effectiveness, career advancement, and organizational development. However, the main focus of mentory has been improving management and little attention has being placed on mentoring for leadership development (Muir, 2014).

Meanwhile, Groves (2007) purports that organizations should implement seven lines of action to to develop effective leaders:

- Build an organization's mentor network
- Assure active participation of directive and managerial levels
- Engage all managers in leadership development strategy
- Ensure an objetive and fair succession planning bssed on high potentials and performance
- Create de oportunities for high potentials to interact with senior executives and board members
- Create a supportive organizational culture

- Make sure effectiveness of of leadership development programs and practices

In other perspective, Boverie, Grassberger and Law (2013), propose to develop workplaces that are humane, positive, and nurturing. They draw on an Organizational Intimacy Model to integrate guidelines from positive psychology, thus creating and proposing nurturing work environments, encouraging people to love their job, and designing meaningful work. So, leaders can engage employees that become passionate about hteir work and develop opportunities for them to learn and grow.

After reviewing many studies on organizational context related to transcendental leadership, we found two that fit in our approach of leadership. The first one was an empirical research by Woolley, Caza and Levy (2011) which examined how leaders and follower's attributes influence results in follower development and authentic leadership. They investigated how the psychological capital was related to authentic leadership and suggested that positive work environment is a mechanism mediating this relation. They confirmed that positive work environment is a mediator between authentic leadership and psychological capital ($= .83$ & $< .05$). The second study by Hendel & Kagan (2014) analyzed the association between perceived organizational values and organizational commitment in relation to ethnocultural background. They consider that organizational values are the bond between individuals and their organization and found a significant positive correlation between organizational values and organizational commitment ($r = .25$ & $< .01$). The association between perceived importance of values and organizational commitment, related to demographic profile, modified the effect of organizational values on organizational commitment. For example, in a hospital in Israel, when the individual is male, Muslim, orthodox religion, and has a lesser academic education, the effect of organizational values on organizational commitment is higher.

To summarize, Amagoh (2009) conceptualized organizational context as a supporting environment, which actively values and promotes a culture of leadership development. Consequently, we appreciated that there is a strong tendency in organizations to generate conditions and positive environments for leadership development, as well as to cultivate leader competencies to establish a work atmosphere, where people can improve their performance and quality of work life. Hence:

Hypothesis 2: Positive and supportive organizational context will impact transcendental leadership development in organizations.

3. The Model Matters

We found, there is a great opportunity to advance in transcendental leadership research, due to scarcity of empirical studies, and the possibilities

to contribute on theory building for leadership effectiveness in organizations, as it is proposed by Sanders et al. (2003): transcendental leadership goes beyond a simple transaction of incentives for work performance, because, the main purpose is to inspire individuals' development of internal locus of control and a more spiritual orientation. Furthermore, Pérez López (1993) offer a key concept to transcendental leadership theory, as he identifies that leaders displaying transcendent motives can build trust in relationships with employees, in this manner, trust and reliability are developed when leaders and followers consistently look for reciprocal benefits in their work relationships.

Based on these ideas, we consider that in leadership improvement and effectiveness the choice of model concerning the kind of leadership is critical for leadership process development. This is because leadership development needs to be contextualized. There are conditions, knowledge, values, abilities, and individual and organizational traits, which promote effective leadership in specific organizational and cultural contexts in which followers and leaders engage. In addition, we suggest that, depending on the maturity of an organization, certain kinds of leadership approach may be more suitable than others. We propose a theoretical foundation of leadership based on the existentialist philosophy of Heidegger (1962). Our idea of leadership is based on a context where leaders and followers are in a partnership of sharing mutual benefits.

Taking into consideration that the model is based on the phenomenological perspective of the being, we ponder it is a newer way of approaching leadership in organizations. This is because it is not conceptualized as a style, but rather as a philosophy of life and social relations in organizations. This theorization rests on two main ideas of leadership: (a) the leadership philosophy requires focusing on leader identity, followership, and leader/follower relationship; and (b) the leadership strategy needs to build on leadership educational process and organizational context. In our proposed model, we hypothesize that the mentioned constructs are positively related to transcendental leadership (Figure 1).

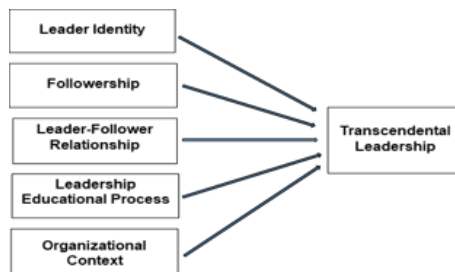


Figure 1. Transcendental Leadership 5D Model

4. Design and Methodology

As we mentioned, although the focus of this research is to study the constructs of leadership identity, followership, leader/follower relationship, leadership educational process, and organizational context in relation to transcendental leadership, the preliminary data attain during first phases of the research, shows only validity of results in two dimensions of the model: leader identity and organizational context.

4.1. Scale

In the first phase of the study, we validated the dimensions of the constructs of the Transcendental Leadership 5D Model with qualified experts in the field of leadership. Using their feedback, we adjusted the measurement instruments and survey perspective. We also developed two questionnaires for transcendental leadership in the workplace using 7 points of Likert Scale, assuming that we could use later in a comparative sample between top executives/directors and managers, even though in the present study we are including only individuals in managerial levels.

4.2. Pilot group

A pilot test was run to verify preliminary construct validity and reliability of dependent and independent variables (Cronbach Alphas) in a sample of Mexican industries in the private sector, located in the state of Nuevo Leon, Mexico (including managers of diverse industrial and business sectors). OLS estimations were used to calculate independent and dependent variables relation in the pilot group (42 participants).

4.2.1. Constructs reliability

The pilot test showed a satisfactory reliability of the constructs (Table 1). Leader Identity (X_{li}) scored an = .89; Organizational Context (X_{oc}) got an = .91; Followership (X_f) rated an = .74; Leader/Follower Relation (X_{lfr}) scored an = .64; Leadership Educational Process (X_{lep}) rated an = .70; and Transcendental Leadership (Y_{tl}) got an = .93.

According to Garson (2013), it is acceptable for the preliminary purpose of a study that Cronbach Alpha coefficient be .60 or above, and .70 for final confirmatory calculations.

Variable	α
Y_{lt} (dependent)	.93
X_{li} (independent)	.89
X_f (independent)	.74
X_{lfr} (independent)	.64
X_{lep} (independent)	.70
X_{oc} (independent)	.91

Table 1. Reliability of constructs for Transcendental Leadership 5D Model

5. Preliminary Results

First preliminary results using SPSS to calculate OLS estimation of the model showed no conclusive results for the constructs.

Initial data analysis reflects a strong positive relation between Leader Identity (X_{li}) and Organizational Context (X_{oc}) with Transcendental Leadership (Y_{tl}) development (Table 2).

Variable	β	ρ
X_{li} (independent)	.521	.002
X_{oc} (independent)	.613	.000

Table 2. OLS estimation for the Transcendental Leadership Model

In summary, preliminary results have established a positive validation for the constructs of the Transcendental Leadership perspective as a philosophy of leadership development to create individual and organizational prosperity, quality of life, and sustainability in the long term, even though, we only confirmed the positive relation of Leader Identity and Organizational Context with Transcendental Leadership in the pilot test.

As this research on Transcendental Leadership is still in progress, we are expecting to undertake a more robust data analysis in the following phase of the investigation. This will allow us to get new insights on Transcendental Leadership knowledge and relevant areas for future work.

6. Discussion and Contribution

Our 5D Model has integrated five dimensions that have not previously been studied as we propose. We aim to explain that creating a positive work environment in organizations, recognizing an employee's potential, and prizing good behaviours and performance are essential to develop future leaders in all levels.

We assumed from preliminary results of our study, that there is a great opportunity to advance in transcendental leadership research, due to the scarcity of empirical studies. Also, with this research, it will be possible to contribute to theory building for leadership effectiveness in organizations. Additionally, Vardiman, Houghton and Jinkerson (2006) suggest that organizational leaders will be better prepared to generate the environment for future leaders to grow when they really understand the contextual factors necessary to develop effective leaders.

In brief, we consider that it is relevant to study the topic in the Mexican context, because it contributes a different way to approach leadership and develop more positive work environments in organizations, where people can engage in high performance processes. More supportive and democratic environments create the right kind of ambiance for nurturing leader-follower interactions instead of authoritarian type relationships.

Therefore, as transcendental leadership is fostered in organizations, it is expected that individual and organizational prosperity may increase, as well as improve the quality life at work and organization sustainability in the long term.

Another major strength of this research is its methodological rigor. Special attention has been placed to different perspectives of leadership and leadership development, so the conceptualization and operational definition of transcendental leadership has explicit theoretical grounding. Also, the items for the scale were developed based on existing literature attributed to dimensions of leadership and validated with experts in the field of leadership.

7. Concluding Remarks

This study presents the development of transcendental leadership theory and results of initial testing of the Transcendental Leadership 5D Model, validation of the scale with experts and literature review, and a confirmation of positive relation of Leader Identity and Organizational Context with Transcendental Leadership at this point of the research. The limitations of the size of the sample allowed only partial results of the research, but we are expecting to undertake a more robust data analysis in the following phase of the investigation, which will let us to get new insights on Transcendental Leadership knowledge and relevant areas for future work.

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Analysing How Prosocial Motivation Could Improve Work Environment in Hospitality Industry

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Abstract

This study examines the linkage between prosocial motivation, work engagement and job satisfaction in the hospitality industry. Specifically, it is focused on understanding what is the impact of prosocial motivation on work engagement and job satisfaction of employees inside the hospitality industry. General motivation, work engagement and job satisfaction have all been declared essential for the long-run profitability of hotels over the last years. However, little attention has been attributed particularly to prosocial motivation, which could prove to be a strong triggering factor leading to high levels of work engagement as well as job satisfaction. The assumption lies in the belief that if people find and understand the reason why their everyday work is needed and feel useful to others while performing their tasks, they will become engaged and satisfied with their jobs. In other words, on the one hand, the greater and sincerer is the willingness to help and satisfy others, the greater will be the effort and energy with which employees will perform their tasks and they will be willing to spend time and effort working for others' well. On the other hand, people have a social dimension and are naturally outward-oriented. Whether a high prosocial motivation is possessed, employees will give the right meaning to their activities, their job will be self-fulfilling, and they will be happy while being at the hotel. As a consequence, they will work much better and contribute much more to the hotel profitability. To test the hypothesis constructed in this research, questionnaires were designed and handled to different kind of employees from different hotels in Catalonia. The final sample used in this study was constituted of 141 employees. An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and a Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) were conducted. The results confirmed that prosocial motivation does improve work engagement among hotel employees (H1) and that work engagement in turn increases job satisfaction (H2). There is no empirical support for prosocial motivation directly impacting on job satisfaction (H3) so it was concluded that work engagement fully mediates in the relationship between prosocial motivation and job satisfaction and. Managerial implications and limitations are also discussed setting the background for future research.

Keywords: Prosocial motivation, work engagement, employee satisfaction, hospitality

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1. Introduction

According to Rifai (2017), Secretary-General of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), the hospitality industry has a broad influence on a diverse range of sectors, has been substantially increasing over the last years and is expected to continue doing so in the future. We live in a more and more global world and people are travelling for several reasons: work, leisure, family and friends, etc. The tourist sector represents 10% of the overall economy GDP, contributes to the global job creation creating one over ten jobs, fosters economic growth, development, environment protection and cultural preservation (UNWTO, 2017). According to the FEHR (Federación Española de Hostelería, 2017), the particular hospitality industry inside the services sector continuously grows and nowadays represents approximately 7% of the total GDP (FEHR, 2017). Yzuel (2017), president of the FEHR, claims that the evolution of hospitality in Spain is very favourable and that future expectations are great (Yzuel, 2017). In 2017 hospitality prices increased with an average year-on-year growth of 1,5%.

Without doubt hospitality is a good sector to get involved in. However, hospitality is also a very demanding sector. Stress levels and difficult customer reactions make employees get involved in difficult situations (Zablah et al., 2012). This results in high turnover of staff and high costs. Giving meaning to the job and enhancing work engagement and satisfaction become essentials to be a long-term successful hotel.

Companies are made of people that work to provide a service or intangible to other people. Customer-contact employees have an enormous effect on the perceived service quality. Managing correctly employees is going to undoubtedly determine how the work is done, perceived and, as a consequence, the performance of the company. This idea is demonstrated in 2004 by Tsaur and Linn's research results (Tsaur & Lin, 2004). Tsaur and Lin specially talk about the importance of making workers understand their roles inside the company, in other words, giving meaning to their work. The better

employee service behaviour is perceived, the better the service quality is perceived by hotel customers.

Human beings are rational and need to understand everything they do and that have a natural tendency towards the good (Perez Lopez, 1996). This makes it clear how important prosocial motivation is for people who compose an organization. According to Rey and Bastons (2017) prosocial motivation is considered as: “an important source of motivation that drives employees to expend effort to benefit others' needs and may play a significant role in companies when it is addressed to the fulfilment of the company's mission” (Rey & Bastons, 2017, p. 3). As Carter and Baghurst (2014) claim, the greater the prosocial motivation, the more the workers are going to feel responsible for helping and serving others (customers, employees, etc.), the greater will be the willingness to do so in the best possible way and the more they are going to feel compelled also to achieve the company's goals (Carter & Baghurst, 2014; Shamir, 1990).

In the hospitality industry, human resources are particularly key resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Wong, Siu & Tsang, 1999) and having helpful behaviours inside it happens to be very crucial. On the one hand, customer interactions and what customers obtain from them become the production process and the product of the service industry. On the other hand, it is a very competitive world and the way companies have to differentiate themselves is through these intangibles and the quality of the service offered. The direct interactions between the employee and the customer forge relationships, influence the perceived quality and determine the future customer loyalty (Paek et al., 2015).

Work engagement has been a topic of research for many authors because it is a critical element to understand for modern organizations and it determines employee's outcomes (Paek et al., 2015). It is created through both the individual and the organization collective environment (Hobfoll, 1989). Employees who are engaged are more willing to go to the extra-mile, to help customers (Karatepe & Aga, 2013; Cheng & Chen, 2017, p. 2669) and consequently, work engagement is going to be a strong determinant of service quality and a very positive and necessary element inside a company.

Attributing meaning to everyday tasks and activities also leads to job satisfaction. “In contexts in which the primary task is the serving of customer needs, customer-oriented employees fit the service setting better than employees who have lower Customer-Oriented (CO) because they are predisposed to enjoy the work of serving customers. Consequently, service employees who have higher degrees of CO will be more satisfied with their jobs than will employees who have less CO” (Donavan, Brown & Mowen, 2004, p. 130). Job satisfaction has been widely studied because of its effects in the working environment and outcomes. That job satisfaction has a positive effect on customer perceptions of service and financial results or a

negative effect on employee turnover are some of the conclusions that have been reached over the years. “The basic premise of the service-profit chain is that satisfied employees are likely to create satisfied customers and satisfied customers are likely to create happy shareholders” (Chi & Guroy, 2009, p. 247).

The main objective of this study is to examine the linkage that relates prosocial motivation, work engagement and job satisfaction. Specifically, which the impact of prosocial motivation on work engagement and job satisfaction and there is are three main research questions that are going to become the centre of this research work:

- 1.How does prosocial motivation impact on hotel employee’s work engagement?
- 2.How does work engagement affect job satisfaction inside hotels?
- 3.How does prosocial motivation foster job satisfaction?

2. Literature Review and Hypothesis

Motivation is what makes people do what they do. What moves people and leads to behaviour and action. Contrarily, amotivation is a concept referring to people who do not have any incentive towards action (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Pinder (1998) define this concept in the following words: “Work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual’s being, to initiate work-related behaviour and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration” (Pinder 1998, p. 11).

There are different levels and orientations inside of the motivational concept (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Different people hold different beliefs and values that are going to shape individuals’ motivation (Fehr & Gintis, 2007). As a result, there are three different kinds of motivation that enable the worker to perform his tasks: extrinsic, intrinsic and prosocial (Bastons, Mas & Rey, 2017). Ryan and Deci (2000) provide some definitions regarding the two first components. Extrinsic motivation is the one that leads people to act with some intentionality, in order to receive, obtain or avoid certain consequences. Intrinsic motivation instead, is generated by the recognition of self-fulfilment, joy, learning or a similar benefit in an action.

Some researchers have studied the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations that exist in the hospitality industry (Chiang & Jang, 2008; Xiong & King, 2015; Çetinkaya, 2011; Chang & Teng, 2017). Early research on motivation tended to declare extrinsic motivation as the exclusive influencer on employees’ behaviour (Mickel & Barron, 2008). Contrarily to most of their predecessors, Chiang, Shawn and Jang (2008) and Diraska, Cho and Liu (2015) defend that it is not only extrinsic motivation that matters but also the intrinsic component has a relevant influence on motivation at work.

In 1995, Duffie (1995) develops an expectancy theory, originally formulated by Vroom (1964), which announces a linkage between HRM practices and economic performance. According to him, workers' motivation becomes key in conjunction with HRM practices to improve business' economic performance (Macduffie, 1995). Motivation in employees is an essential element contributing to the success of service companies and making them more competitive (Bakker et al., 2008). Later, Chiang and Jang (2008) develop a new and modified expectancy theory of motivation, which better applies to the hotel business. In it, both extrinsic and intrinsic motives are taken into account (Putra, Cho & Liu, 2017).

Even though prosocial motivation in hospitality has been considered by some to be essential for hotel long-term success (Tsaur et al., 2014) and to have positive effects on the perceived quality service and therefore help hotels in being profitable (Kelley & Hoffman, 1997), little attention has been given to it until the present to it in this field.

According Rey and Bastons (2017) prosocial motivation is considered "an important source of motivation that drives employees to expend effort to benefit others' needs and may play a significant role in companies when it is addressed to the fulfilment of the company's mission" (Rey & Bastons, 2017, p. 3) and leads to a kind of behaviour that looks for the welfare of the individual or organization (Lee et al., 2006; Cheng & Chen, 2017). In such a competitive hotel business environment, it is extremely important to retain employees who really care about the guest, who have the right orientation towards the customer. Doing so enables companies to increase customers' perceptions of quality service (Wong, Siu & Tsang, 1999; Cheng & Chen, 2017), satisfaction and loyalty with further consequences on profits and economic results (Lee, Ok & Hwang, 2016).

Batson and Shaw (1991) have been one of the earliest in shifting to a pluralistic model and directing his attention towards the social dimension of workers. Similarly, Perez Lopez (1996) goes back to classical theories of intelligence and will. He recognises that humans always act as a response to the attraction they feel towards the good and in line with Batson and Shaw (1991) he asserts that prosocial motivation enables people to do things thinking of others.

Even the three elements (intrinsic, extrinsic and prosocial) are considered to be important (Bastons, Mas & Rey, 2016), according to Perez Lopez (1996), the prosocial element could be considered the most "human" and the quality of an individual's motivation and work is determined by his transcendent motivation (García Parra, 2004; Grant, 2008).

In 1997, Bettencourt & Brown wrote an article about the importance of prosocial behaviours inside the service sector where they differentiate between two different types of prosocial behaviour: role-prescribed service behaviour and extra-role service behaviour (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997).

Role prescribed prosocial behaviours are those behaviours that are expected from employees by their supervisors or managers. Extra-role prosocial behaviours are described as: “positive social acts which are not formally specified role requirements; they are not specifically assigned to individuals as activities to be performed as part of the job” (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986, pp.712) and are supposed to have a greater positive effect in customer satisfaction (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997).

Customer Orientation (CO) is a topic highly related to prosocial motivation (Kelley, 1992; Donovan, Brown & Mowen, 2004; Schneider et al., 2009; Zablah et al., 2012; Lee & Michael, 2015). This CO concept has been defined as: “the employee’s tendency or predisposition to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context” (Brown, Mowen, Donovan & Licata, 2002, p. 111).

Supervisors and managers’ attitude can significantly influence subordinates’ attitude. If managers possess a servant attitude, they will become role models (Berry, Parasuraman & Zeithaml, 1994) and employees will become customer-oriented (Carter & Baghurst, 2014). Arkin (2009) defined servant leaders as “leaders not motivated by self-interest and the pursuit of power” (Arkin, 2009, p. 27). These leaders are authentic and ethical and they place a value on people (Carter & Baghurst, 2014).

Due to the discovered little attention attributed until today to prosocial motivation but its apparent relevance, the following study is going to focus on this element.

Kowske et al. (2009) defined work engagement as: “the extent to which employees are motivated to contribute to organizational success, and are willing to apply discretionary effort to accomplishing tasks important to the achievement of organizational goals” (Kowske, Lundby & Rasch, 2009, p. 50). Gruman and Saks (2011) talk about the existent discrepancy over the years when trying to define work engagement. They conclude that the idea on which all authors agree is that engagement is the opposite of burnout, which implies low levels of energy and little identification with one’s work (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Pienaar & Willemse, 2008; Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008; Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Over the years authors have written several articles creating a linkage between motivation and work engagement. They have usually been focused in extrinsic factors and they claim that the main determinants of employees’ engagement at work are elements such as job characteristics, rewards, recognition, supervisor support and organizational justice (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006; Saks, 2006). In 2004 intrinsic factors leading to work engagement were also recognized (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2004; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Bakker et al., 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). In 2014 prosocial motivation is introduced by Carter and Baghurst (2014) as antecedent of

work engagement. After performing a study in a restaurant, they found out that the greater the outward orientation and the care for others, the greater the workers' loyalty, commitment and work engagement. Employees felt responsible for serving customers and doing so in the best possible way. They also felt responsible for achieving organizational goals. Improved motivation to satisfy and help the customer leads to an increased effort in trying to perform good and in work engagement (Zablah et al., 2012; Macey et al., 2009).

To facilitate employee engagement with the organization, companies need to make an effort to connect employees' heads and hearts to the company goals and vision. Once they succeed in doing so, employees will start living these goals and vision through daily tasks and activities, in other words, they will be engaged (Blanchard & Hodges, 2003; Bakker, 2011).

The Corporate Executive Board (2004) surveyed more than 50,000 employees from 59 global organizations. The surveys were directed towards the ascertainment of workers' engagement level and its impact on performance and the economy. After collecting the results, they found out that employees who are most committed perform 20% better and are 87% less likely to leave the company (Corporate Executive Board, 2004). Engaged workers have proved to be more productive than less engaged ones because they focus all their efforts on goal attainment, they have less propensity to leave and their outcomes are better (Guest, 1997; Zablah et al., 2012; Lee & Michael, 2015).

Work engagement seems to be essential inside any kind of company but even more inside hotels. Additionally, and contrarily to what the greatest number of authors have demonstrated over the years, it appears to be related not only to general motivation but especially to transcendent motivation. Consequently, we formulated our first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Prosocial motivation has a positive influence on work engagement.

Bakker & Demerouti (2008) call work engagement "Positive Organizational Behaviour" (POB) and define it as previously Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p. 295) did: "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption". According to them, engaged workers are those who are happy to perform their tasks and who see their job not as an obligation but as something enjoyable, where they can have fun and a source of inspiration. They are happy to be employed where they are and have a positive attitude towards their jobs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). The idea that Bakker and Demerouti have about work engagement can undoubtedly be related to Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976) and his job satisfaction concept, which is described as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1304).

Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002) idea of work engagement also shows the strong connection between these two concepts. They affirm that work engagement exists if employees feel involved and enthusiastic about their work which would subsequently create satisfaction (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002). Engaged workers are positively connected to their jobs, they use more of their talents and they feel they are going to effectively obtain the desired results, all together generates a satisfying feeling on employers and makes them being more productive (Burke et al., 2009; Bakker, 2011; Li, Sanders & Frenkel, 2012; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016; Paek et al., 2015).

There is plenty of research linking work engagement to economic or financial performance and profitability (Lawson, 2008; Schneider et al., 2009; Bakker, 2011; Gruman & Saks, 2011) and some research linking employee satisfaction to financial performance (Chi & Gursoy, 2009; Rust & Zaborik, 1993).

Managers who are concerned about the firm's profitability need to work on their employees' satisfaction because when workers are satisfied, they are happy and willing to do their job as good as possible. When this happens, customers experience the outcomes and customer retention is increased (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Salanova, Agut & Peiró, 2005; Lee et al., 2006; Chi & Gursoy, 2009; Yang, 2010; Zablah et al., 2012).

As it has been discerned a relationship between work engagement and job satisfaction and both are key aspects in running a hotel business, the second hypothesis has been developed.

Hypothesis 2: Work engagement has a positive influence on job satisfaction.

How much workers are paid, the working environment, the relationship with the supervisor, their career development and opportunities, etc. are clear influencers of job satisfaction (Iverson & Deery, 1997). These elements would be classified as extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. Besides, authors such as Lee et al. (2016) and Kelley and Hoffman (1997) have declared that job satisfaction is directly influenced by the degree of prosocial motivation.

If employees' actions are driven by prosocial motivation, they provide meaning to everything they do and as a consequence they are comfortable with their work (Donavan, Brown & Mowen, 2004). Lee et al. (2016) add an explanation for this phenomenon: employees with high prosocial motivation really want to help customers and satisfy their needs. Because of this reason they are going to be happy to satisfy customers.

Following we find the formulation of our third hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Prosocial motivation has a positive influence on job satisfaction.

The resulting research model from my research and hypothesis becomes:

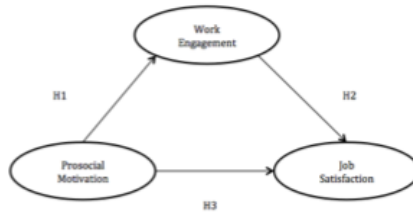


Figure 1. Proposed research model

3. Methodology

3.1. Sample and data collection

In order to carry the research and obtain the necessary data, a questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire was generated through the Google Form platform. It was constituted of 25 questions: five screening questions including demographic and employment-related information (gender, age, education, marital status and years of experience) that helped us to understand better the results, four related to pro-social motivation, eight related to work engagement and eight related to job satisfaction.

The questionnaires were handled to different hotels in Catalonia, most of them located in Barcelona city. Hotels of different sizes and with different star ratings were contacted and different customer-contact positions were targeted. Some hotel managers were asked to distribute the questionnaires among their staff and some hotel employees were directly contacted in their working hours and submitted a paper-based questionnaire. To ensure confidentiality, neither the name of the person nor the one of the hotel were required at any point. A total of 141 valid answers were collected (N=141). Table 1 shows the summary.

Variable	Results	Response details (percentage)
Gender	Male	51,1 %
	Female	48,9 %
Age	Under 20	2,8 %
	20-30	51,8 %
	31-40	30,5 %
	41-50	12,8 %

	51-60	2,1 %
	Over 60	0,0 %
Education	High School	21,3 %
	Graduate Degree	60,3 %
	Master's Degree	18,4 %
Marital Status	Single	68,8 %
	Married	31,2 %
Industry Experience	0-5	47,5 %
	6-10	18,4 %
	11-15	16,3 %
	16-20	6,4 %
	Over 20	11,3 %

Table 1. Profile of participants (N=141)

3.2. Measurement

The scale used for prosocial motivation is an adaptation from the one used by Bastons et al. (2017) in the research where they measure the three different kinds of motivation at work and they try to integrate them giving birth to a new agent-stakeholder model of interaction. This research ignores extrinsic and intrinsic components, channelling the scale to the sole pro-stakeholder motivation, which is governed by prosocial factors. Bastons et al. (2017) determine the different beneficiaries that employees might be able to help: customers, work colleagues, shareholders and the society. The answers were ranged inside an interval going from 1 (“never”) to 5 (“always”) (Bastons, Mas & Rey, 2017).

To create a valid measure for the work engagement component, a short form of the reduced Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9) has been used. The initial scale was constituted of 17 items that Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006) reduced to 9 after performing a short questionnaire to simplify the measurement tapping the three dimensions of work engagement: vigour, dedication and absorption. For this research purpose 8 items were found to be adequate. As a result, the scale used in this particular research consists of 8 items rated on a 7-point rating scale. It ranges from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“always”); (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006).

Scale	Based on	Questions	Code
Prosocial Motivation	Bastons et al. (2017)	Feel you contribute towards the customer satisfaction.	PM1
		Feel you contribute towards the company's profit generation.	PM2
		Feel you contribute towards employee development and welfare.	PM3
		Feel you contribute to your surrounding (the environment, society, etc.)	PM4
Work Engagement	Schaufeli et al. (2006)	At work, I feel like I am bursting with energy.	WE1
		When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	WE2
		I am enthusiastic about my job.	WE3
		My job inspires me.	WE4
		I am proud of the work that I do.	WE5
		I feel happy when I am working intensely.	WE6
		I am immersed in my work.	WE7
		I get carried away when I am working.	WE8
Job Satisfaction	Hartline et al. (1996)	I am satisfied with my overall job.	JS1
		I am satisfied with my fellow workers.	JS2
		I am satisfied with my supervisor.	JS3
		I am satisfied with the hotel policies.	JS4
		I am satisfied with the support provided by this hotel.	JS5
		I am satisfied with my salary/wage.	JS6
		I am satisfied with my opportunities for advancement with this hotel.	JS7
		I am satisfied with the kind of customer coming to this hotel.	JS8

Table 2. Scales

The scale used for job satisfaction was initially developed by Brown and Peterson (1993) and later supported by Hartline and Ferrell (1992) while they were trying to develop a model for the correct management of service employees. To measure job satisfaction 8 items were used. The responses

were collected using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“extremely dissatisfied”) to 5 (“extremely satisfied”).

In Table 2 we can find a summary of the three scales that are going to be used.

4. Results

In order to analyse our quantitative data, the SPSS Software was chosen. The first step for the result collection consisted of the performance of an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to assess the measurement quality of the three scales of this study: prosocial motivation, work engagement and job satisfaction. Exploratory factor analysis was undertaken using Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation. Hair et al. (2010) recommend in their book, correcting theirs and others’ authors criteria (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988), to cut-off items above a value of 0.7 on their EFA loading. Therefore, and in order to get accurate and reliable results, only items resulting in an EFA loading equal to or superior to 0,7 were taken into account (EFA>0,7) in this study. After the pertinent calculations, PM1, WE1, WE2, JS1, JS2, JS6 and JS8 showed low reliability and as a result they were not taken into account. Results with only relevant dimensions suggested by the EFA are shown in Table 3.

Table 4 shows the results for the different Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) that were conducted to examine the unidimensional of the constructs. On the one hand, Cronbach’s alpha values were useful in confirming internal consistency and reliability of the test. Cronbach’s alpha is greater than 0,7 for prosocial motivation, which means that is acceptable and greater than 0,8 for work engagement and job satisfaction, which means that these two scales show a very good internal consistency. To double-check our factors’ convergent validity, the Composite Reliability (CR) values were also calculated for the three elements. CR can be found in Table 4 and they are all greater than 0,8. Good convergent reliability is confirmed.

In Table 4 we can also find the results that help to confirm discriminant validity, which was analysed using linear correlations or standardized covariances between latent factors and comparing inter-factor correlations to the square roots of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values. Hair et al. (2006) establish particular criteria regarding measurement of discriminant validity. According to them, AVE should be higher than 0.5 and all our item scales happen to comply with this requirement. The square roots of the different AVE values are the numbers that are displayed in *Table 10* in bold and as mentioned, after being calculated they were compared with the correlation matrix values. The square roots of each AVE were greater than the off-diagonal elements, all the values happened to be greater than the respective cross-correlations and therefore, discriminant validity was approved.

Moreover, all values lie between 0,85 and 0,1, which according to Kline (1998) is an important fact in order to confirm the discriminant validity.

	Code	Mean	s.d.	EFA loading
Prosocial Motivation	PM2	3,3	0,754	0,751
	PM3	3,03	0,894	0,854
	PM4	2,67	1,045	0,761
Work Engagement	WE3	3,04	0,948	0,843
	WE4	2,81	0,956	0,758
	WE5	3,17	0,941	0,766
	WE6	3,18	0,969	0,763
	WE7	3,08	0,871	0,791
	WE8	2,67	0,931	0,715
Job Satisfaction	JS3	4,07	0,851	0,749
	JS4	3,47	1,004	0,741
	JS5	3,65	0,956	0,782
	JS7	3,6	1,095	0,846

Table 3. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results (N=141)

	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	PM	WE	JS
Prosocial Motivation (PM)	0,743	0,832	0,624	0,790		
Work Engagement (WE)	0,878	0,899	0,599	0,515	0,774	
Job Satisfaction (JS)	0,837	0,802	0,574	0,459	0,628	0,758

Note: Diagonal elements in bold are the square roots of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Table 4. Measurement model results and correlation matrix

Finally, the model was estimated using the robust maximum likelihood method from the covariance matrix and global fit indices were obtained. The main structural model indices indicated a favourable fit: $X^2=916,87$; $df=78$; $X^2 /df= 11,75475641$; $CFI=0,955$; $SRMR=0,053$; $RMSEA=0,066$.

EQS Structural Equation Modelling Program was used to create a diagram of the model. See Figure 2.

As it can be seen both in the diagram and Table 5, the standardized coefficients and t-values resulting from the analysis lead us to accept Hypothesis 1 and 2 and to reject Hypothesis 3. T-values show the significance level of each relationship and should be greater than 1,96 in order to be significant. This condition is true for H1 and H2 but it is not for H3, which has a t-value at a significance level of 1,690. The summarized implications for the hypothesis can also be found in Table 5.

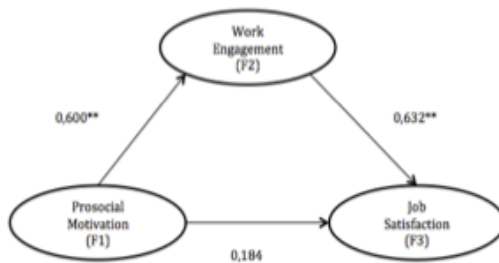


Figure 2. Standardized research model coefficients
(Note: **t-value>1,96, meaning that hypothesis is accepted)

	Standardized coefficient	t-value	Hypothesis result
H1: PM --> WE	0,600	5,047	Accepted
H2: WE --> JS	0,632	5,271	Accepted
H3: PM --> JS	0,184	1,690	Rejected

Table 5. Results of the model and hypothesis implications

5. Discussion and Conclusions

Over the last years, several authors have focused attention on motivation and that is why it is possible to find some studies that explore the relationship between motivation and work engagement or business results (Bakker et al., 2008; Grant, 2008; Chiang & Jang, 2008; Çetinkaya, 2011; Putra, Cho & Liu, 2017). Even the specific prosocial motivation has not appealed to many authors, empirical evidence shows the importance of this

element (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Fehr & Gintis, 2007; Grant, 2008; Bastons, Mas & Rey, 2017; Cheng & Chen, 2017; Shamir, 1990). The current study has focused on developing, from an economic perspective, reasoning regarding the different implications that prosocial motivation can have in the working environment and business results. Results have shown that prosocial motivation does have a direct and positive influence on work engagement but that it does not have a direct impact on job satisfaction. Instead, work engagement happens to mediate the relationship between prosocial motivation and job satisfaction.

First and in line with Bettencourt and Brown (1997) we took prosocial motivation as the most important motivational factor and we studied its impact on work engagement to reconfirm Carter and Baghurst's (2014) idea that prosocial motivation has a strong influence on the way in which employee's work, the effort they devote to their daily tasks and obligations and the customer's perceived quality of service. The empirical results show that *Hypothesis 1* is valid.

Secondly, we tested how work engagement levels impact job satisfaction. Work engagement could prove to be an important factor feeding job satisfaction (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008) and job satisfaction seems to be highly beneficial for hotel profitability (Chi & Gursoy, 2009). The result of the test confirms *Hypothesis 2*.

Finally, a third hypothesis directly linking prosocial motivation to job satisfaction was evaluated. Knowing what you do and why you do it enables you to be self-assuring, confident and as a result happier. Additionally, Brown and Mowen (2004) wrote an academic article in which they defended that the greater the prosocial motivation, the greater the job satisfaction would also be. By contrast, our research demonstrated that the only relationship existent between prosocial motivation and job satisfaction requires the mediating element of work engagement. *Hypothesis 3* is rejected by our empirical results.

6. Theoretical and Practical Implications

An innovative theoretical model relating elements that have a great relevance for the human resource management inside the hospitality industry has been proposed in this study. For the very first time a model that shows the existing relationship between prosocial motivation, work engagement and job satisfaction as well as the characteristics of these relationships has been developed.

Few authors have researched about prosocial motivation inside the hospitality industry. This study performs a deep research about what have previous authors published about this element inside and outside the hospitality world, relates the different ideas and draws new conclusions. The present work classifies prosocial motivation as the most important

motivational factor because it claims that this kind of motivation has a stronger impact and makes a greater contribution to the hotel's working environment. The study tests the specific impact that this element exerts among work engagement and job satisfaction, determinants of profitability. To sum up, the research reveals prosocial motivation as something to take into account if hoteliers want to be successful.

Hotel managers are already aware of the need to invest in human resource practices (Lee et al., 2006; Salanova, Agut & Peiró, 2005). They are also aware about the need of a correct management of aspects if good quality service is sought (Kusluvan et al., 2010; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2015). All these measures help in rising extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Nowadays, in such a competitive hospitality market, it becomes more important than ever to continuously add unique value to the hotel service (Paek et al., 2015). An additional managerial concern can be derived from this new market requirement and from our results: employee's prosocial motivation.

First of all, programs to raise managers' awareness regarding the importance of this element should be carried both in universities as well as inside companies. Managers are the ones inside companies that have the power to create and disseminate the right culture and values that will later condition behaviours. Once managers are convinced about the importance and truly believe on the company mission statement, corporate culture and values they are able to: 1) act as good leaders 2) hire the right people and 3) invest time and money in helping these people to evolve correctly. Hiring people that fit the organizational culture and already possess certain values is key in creating the right workforce. Employees need to be motivated by the same things that lead the company's activity; they need to be authentic (Rey & Bastons, 2017) so that they can extend beyond their role prescribed behaviours.

Additionally, and because all of these are elements that need a constant dedication, human resource departments should include prosocial motivation, mission statement understanding and internalisation and related issues in their training and development programs. According to Kelley (1992), organizational values are transmitted to employees and strengthened through the socialization process. Some of the methods that Kelley (1992) mentions as good tools for this purpose are: orientation programs, formal training programs, on-the-job training, mentorship, manuals and performance evaluation processes.

7. Limitations and Future Research

Although this study shows strong and reliable empirical results there are some limitations that need to be mentioned.

On the one hand, 51,8% of our sample is constituted of people aging between 20 and 30 years old. Age and experience can affect to prosocial motivation, engagement and satisfaction of employees. The sample has been considered to be representative enough because of the number of respondents, the diversity of hotel companies, and star rankings. However, further research would probably be useful to determine whether this young-aged sample is misleading or whether this industry in Barcelona is actually constituted of a very young workforce. If the latter happens to be false, a new sample should be collected to perform the same study.

It could also be helpful to collect and group the answers of the designed questionnaire according to the age of the respondents in order to carry the study for the different groups and see which the implications of age in prosocial motivation and the related items that are constitute the theoretical model.

On the other hand, the geographic extension of this study has been limited to Catalonia and mainly concentrated in Barcelona city. It would be advisable for future researchers to perform the same study considering the different autonomous communities of Spain as well as other countries reaching global valid conclusions.

Furthermore, antecedents of prosocial motivation have not been tackled in this study. If managers want to effectively implement practices that foster their employees' prosocial motivation, further research regarding the specific elements leading to an appropriate prosocial motivation should be performed. Mission statement for example, is a good tool that managers can use to communicate the ultimate company's purpose and to help employees to originate or increase their prosocial motivation. Not only new antecedents could be added to the proposed model but elements such as quality service, performance or financial results could also be introduced. Having empirical support for the positive relationship between all these items could be valuable for the industry.

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Part II

Practical Papers

Missions and Leadership

Session

Leadership, Culture and Mission in Educational Establishments

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Abstract

This paper focuses on understanding the state of culture in three Spanish schools regarding mission, consistency, adaptability, and commitment. We adopt a paradigm of qualitative research, using quantitative techniques for obtaining and analyzing data. Specifically, to understand the culture of the three schools, we applied the Denison Organizational Culture Survey (DOCS) in its translated version, adapted and validated to Spanish by a group of professors from the University of Valencia led by Tomás Bonavia (2009, 2010), once obtained the consent of this professor. The questionnaire is administered to 114 teachers from three private (and subsidized) Spanish schools.

A general summary of the total sample is presented in these pages, and we try to extract tendencies regarding the state of the corporate culture in all the schools under study. Results of the study show that it exists a balanced and strong culture in these organizations although some internal factors should be improved.

The limited number of participating schools will not allow us to draw generalizable conclusions, but it will enable comparisons with other schools and show in each case the state of the school culture. Furthermore, the results obtained from this research can help the three schools in their process of change and also provide quantitative data that helps to understand and improve the culture of the organizational environment. In a second moment, the reflection on the data can help to lead and enhance the collective efforts toward the accomplishment of the school mission.

Keywords: Denison organizational culture survey, organizational culture, organizational mission, educational leadership, leadership

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1. Introduction

This paper presents an ongoing research project which aims to take the pulse of the culture of some schools with the purpose of helping them to improve. Specifically, the present study focuses on knowing the state of culture in three Spanish schools regarding mission, consistency, adaptability, and commitment. It seems that these four aspects are fundamental to achieve higher efficiency of organizations, as shown by Denison's research (Denison, 1984, 1990, 1996; Denison et al., 1990 to 2006), and also by Gordon and DiTomaso (1992), Kotter and Heskett (1992), and Sorenson (2002).

To develop our research, we adopt a paradigm of qualitative research, using quantitative techniques for obtaining and analyzing data. Specifically, to understand the culture of the schools, we applied the Denison Organizational Culture Survey (DOCS) in its translated version, adapted and validated to Spanish by a group of professors from the University of Valencia led by Tomás Bonavía (2009, 2010), once obtained the consent of this professor. The DOCS is chosen due to its relevance in measuring organizational culture, and also because it has been translated into Spanish by Bonavía and colleagues (2009, 2010).

The DOCS measure the opinions and perceptions of the teaching staff about different behaviors, beliefs, and practices of the organization. It is based on four cultural traits: involvement, consistency, adaptability, and mission.

The cultural traits that characterize efficient organizational cultures can be defined as follows:

- a) **involvement** or commitment to work, a feature that measures whether the people in the organization are aligned and committed to it
- b) **consistency** or internal integration, a feature that indicates whether the values, processes, and systems of doing things are explicit in the organization
- c) **adaptability** to the needs of the context, a feature that assesses whether the organization is responding to the demands of the sector

d) **mission**, a feature that measures whether the organization knows where it is going and if the long-term objectives are defined

Each of these traits is measured with three indexes, and each of those indexes is measured with five items, making a total of 60 items.

Traits	Indexes	Items
Four traits	Three indexes each trait	Five items each index
4 traits	12 indexes	60 items

Table 1. Structure of the DOCS

Also, Denison points out four dimensions (flexibility-stability-internal focus and external focus), which are the result of combining the different traits (see figure 5) and that have also been taken into account.

2. Sample

The questionnaire was administered to 114 teachers from three private and subsidized Spanish schools (“escuelas privadas concertadas”) once the principals have given permission. The answers are anonymous, and the evaluations are global by the school to avoid the identification of the people. Likewise, schools are identified with numbers to respect their anonymity.

The schools include different levels: from pre-school to high school and have between 500 and 1000 students, so they are considered medium-sized. Families in these schools are middle class and upper-middle class. The three schools have defined and developed an organizational mission and try to be mission-centered.

The average teaching experience of teachers in the sample is high: 16’6 years in teaching, also with a high average of permanence in the school under study: 13 years. Therefore, these are teachers who can evaluate the educational center based on their experience. They represent all levels: Pre-School, Primary, Secondary and Baccalaureate teachers. And they are mostly teachers who are also tutors in charge of a course.

3. Analysis and Results

The DOCS was presented and explained to the respondents by the researchers, and the participants completed the sixty items in paper. Responses to all items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale that was ranged from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”). Eight items were phrased negatively, and answers were reversed in the analysis. Surveys with missing data on any of the sixty core items were excluded from this analysis.

Once the data has been analyzed, a report was prepared for each school. This report serves as a reflection document and can help the principals of each educational establishment. The results allow the elaboration of action plans to improve the organizational culture.

In these pages, we are going to present a general and necessarily brief summary of the total sample, and we will try to extract tendencies regarding the state of the corporate culture in the three schools under study.

The analysis followed four phases:

In the first phase, we analyzed the 60 items and obtained the averages of each response. We consider being very good averages those equal to or greater than 4; and not good averages, results equal to or less than 2.

In the second phase, we analyzed the four traits with their 15 indexes (Figures 1 to 4).

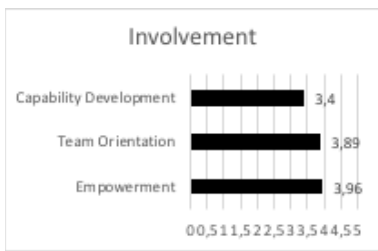


Figure 1. Involvement

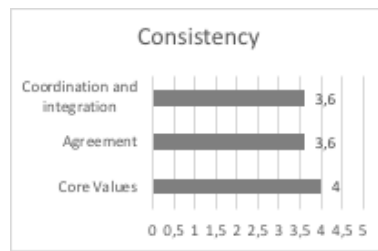


Figure 2. Consistency

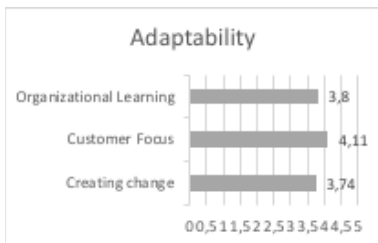


Figure 3. Adaptability



Figure 4. Mission

The third phase analyzes the relationship between traits and dimensions (Figure 5).

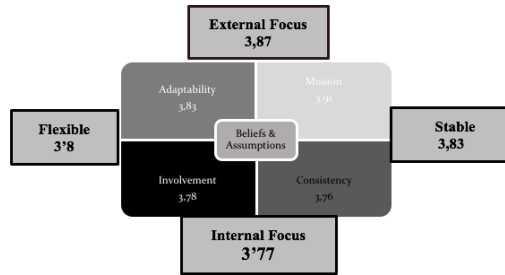


Figure 5. Relationships between traits and dimensions

And finally, the fourth phase studies the items that were better evaluated (4,3 or more) and those with the worsts evaluations (0 to 3,6).

The school cultures we evaluate have good results as a whole (average responses between 3'1 and 4'9), so it seems that there are good ambience and climate in these organizations. Also, they show a good balance between all the traits, with averages that range between 3.76 and 3.91, reaching the maximum value in traits referred to the mission. These results corroborate what Denison, Janovics, Young, and Cho (2006, p. 19) said some years before:

“The model parameters show a set of strong interrelationships among the four traits. These results suggest that these traits are closely interrelated and organizations scoring highly on one of these traits are also quite likely to score high on the others. The four traits are sufficiently independent to be considered as independent factors but do appear from these analyses to be quite closely related”.

There is also a balance between the dimensions (averages between 3.77 and 3.87), so that, with respect to the focus of the organization, it can be said that external and internal members of the organization are both critical, with a little orientation toward “clients”: the families that bring their children to the school. In the binomial flexibility-stability, the three schools manifest a greater orientation to the maintenance of the status quo, and a more detailed analysis of the responses also reveals more stability than innovation (see Table 2).

Regarding the mission, which is the main topic of this seminar, this trait is evaluated with a 3'9 over 5, and with a 4'36 in item 48, that is explicitly referred to this construct. These results indicate that although it is advisable to improve the commitment to the mission in the three schools, the situation tends to be a good one.

If we take into account the items with higher and lower scores, the results in Table 2 indicate that the existence of a mission, vision, core values, and strategy in the organization is recognized by the teachers, and the three

organizations are well adapted to their contexts. On the other hand, teachers seem to reclaim more teams, more collaboration between the groups (when they exist), more development of capacities, more distribution of power, more autonomy, and more orientation to change. It seems that there is some self-complacency and some change is needed, although the three schools have healthy and balanced cultures with very similar features.

Items with the best scores	Punct.	Item	Items with the worst scores	Punctuation	Item
40	4,77	We encourage direct contact with costumers by our people	12	3,2	The capability of people is constantly improving
46	4,5	There are a long-term purpose and direction	31	3,3	The way things are done is very flexible and easy to change
44	4,48	Learning is an important objective in our day to day work	28	3,5	It is easy to coordinate projects across different parts of the organization
48	4,36	There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work	9	3,53	Teams are our primary building blocks
18	4,35	There is a clear and consistent set of values that govern the way we do business	11	3,56	Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own

49	4,35	There is a clear strategy for the future			
57	4,32	Leaders have a long-term viewpoint			
20	4'31	There is an ethical code that guides our behavior and tells us right from wrong			

Table 2. Items with the best and the worst evaluations

4. Conclusions

The analysis that we have developed in this paper is intended to help the principals and the management committees in the three schools (and afterward in the next schools where we are going to use the survey).

Once the general data had been analyzed, the researchers prepared a report for each school offering specific data and some suggestions. Each report serves as a reflection document for the school and permits the elaboration of action plans to improve each precise situation.

The results obtained in this research provide quantitative and qualitative data that help to understand and improve the culture of an organization. The subsequent report can help principals and school boards in their process of change.

Regarding the mission, the DOCS offers data related to the alignment and commitment to the purpose of an organization, and it can be an excellent tool to measure something intangible that is very difficult to evaluate. The survey also assesses the distribution of power, collaboration, teamwork, or the learning capacity of each school; all these factors are also related to the improvement of the mission and are worth knowing them.

Due to the characteristics of this qualitative research and due to the limited number of schools that participate in the survey, it is not possible –and it was never the intention- to draw generalizable conclusions from this study. Nevertheless, we can make comparisons among the schools that participated in the research and also compare with other schools that are going to join shortly. In each case, we can show the general state of the school culture and the relevance of the mission within the organization; and we can help to improve the organizations.

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Part II

Practical Papers

Missions in Social Enterprise Session

The Mission and the Strategic Framework

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Abstract

The mission has been key to the success of the strategy of many companies. It is often the first step of strategic plans, but many companies do not know how to relate it to the strategy. Experiences of having implemented Strategic Maps shows the relationship between Mission and Business and why the mission can not be missing in any framework that is used to define and execute the strategy. The Strategic Map has been implemented in thousands of companies around the world. These concepts have made two major contributions to the discipline of business management: a) establishing objectives of intangible, internal and client perspectives facilitates achieving financial objectives, having cause and effect relationships between them and b) to implement the strategy is fundamental, to be able to measure and control the objectives of the four perspectives indicated. The map should help companies convert intangible assets into tangible assets. The incorporation of the Mission in the Business Strategy and in the Strategic Map framework allows to enhance it explicitly, by helping: 1) to look for measurements to assess if the mission is being accomplished, 2) show the causal relationship between the mission, and the generation of genuine benefits, 3) reflect the mission as the link between the financial results and the customer value proposition and 4) to promote with the mission the transcendent motivation of the people achieving a more complete personal development. Based on the anthropological vision of the organizations, the Mission offers a more complete perspective of the Map, reflecting companies with a human face. A company that helps to cover material, tangible as intangible personal and social needs.

Keywords: Mission, strategy, strategic map, control panel, measurements, corporate social responsibilities

How to cite this paper

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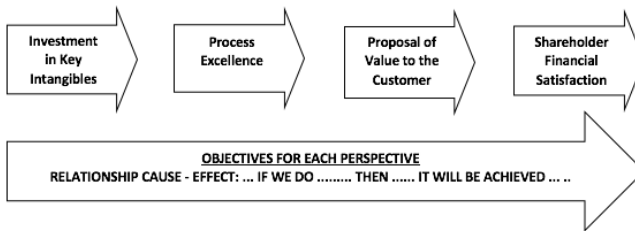
1. Introduction

The mission has been key to the success of the strategy of many companies. Starbucks, Wal * Mart, Mc Donald, Microsoft.... have promoted their mission among their employees in different ways Its use is massive in companies... usually as the first step of strategic plan Although, for a lot of companies it's only a formalism They don't know how to relate it to the strategy. Many of the strategic frameworks do not include the mission as a key concept. But the mission should not be missing in any strategic framework

The Strategic Map framework makes it easier to show the relationship between mission and business. It's an evolution of the Balanced Scorecard... and has been implemented in thousands of companies around the world.

These concepts have made two major contributions to the discipline of business management:

- a) establish objectives for different business perspectives: intangible, internal, clients and financial; it facilitates executing the strategy and achieving the objectives of the shareholders, as there are cause and effect relationships between these perspectives.



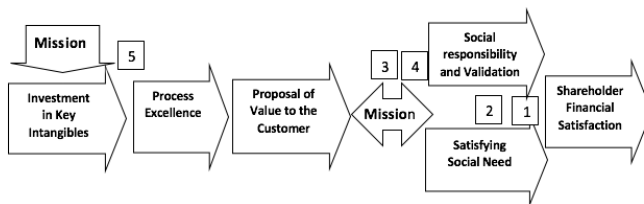
- b) To implement the strategy, it is essential to be able to measure and control the objectives of each of the four perspectives indicated. From the premise that what is not measured "is not controlled" or as someone say, "it is not managed". In the strategic map the objectives must be fixed and measured in order to control them in a Control Panel.

A good map should find these causal relationships of objectives and transmit them to help companies convert intangible assets into tangible ones. The causal relationship avoids a purely financial vision, by setting objectives in the causes that originate the financial results and establishing relationships between them.

Incorporate the external mission in the map as the central axis of the strategy, helps to relate it to the different business objectives and enhances the strategy explained to:

1. establish a causal relationship between the external mission and the generation of profits,
2. consider fulfilling the mission as an important part of corporate social responsibility (this is a personal vision added to the framework).
3. specify the mission in the value proposition to customers,
4. define measurements that allow to evaluate if the mission is being fulfilled.
5. promote the transcendent motivation of the people achieving a more complete human development in the producers.

The Mission in the center of the strategy allows the company to show a human face in front of the personnel and producers, the customers and the near society.



2. The Causal Mission of Benefits

The mission is the supreme and permanent objective that points out the contribution of the company to the community in order to generate wealth. The why and for what the company exists, by defining the concrete purpose that allows an organization to last over time with its products and services.

"Companies achieve benefits when they meet a social need", pointed out by Peter Drucker and other authors, we can conclude that, if the mission is oriented to cover a human need of the society in which it operates, we must include it in the strategic map as a nexus between the proposal of customer value and financial results.

The Mission must then define, albeit in a generic way, the human need that it comes to cover, what it is for. Both are primary needs, which affect vital issues, such as food or clothing as well as secondary needs, whose satisfaction increases the well-being or quality of life of the individual.

This logic of causality has the rationality that customers buy products when we cover a need they have or believe they have. This process is the basis of income generation and therefore the possibility of generating profits by companies.

Take the example of Walt Disney understandable to all, whose mission has been "Make people happy", being the pursuit of it is the main cause for obtaining benefits. It is about seeing people as customers and then the concept of human company goes beyond its employees and producers

That the mission is key for the generation of benefits bases the orientation to the customer and align the company to the mission as a deep business cause. Therefore, it must be in every Map and Strategic Plan and be part of the communication and deployment of objectives.

Highlighting this relationship is very important for:

- To value the concept of Mission in the business model, which often goes unnoticed in strategic processes
- To confirm the importance of companies and entrepreneurs as generators of benefits from generating value for customers and for society.

Forgetting the Mission especially in crisis times can have disastrous results for companies in their relationship with customers and reputation. The strength of: What are we for? and, why do they buy me? it's very big. Leaving customers is highly dangerous, because in the short term financial results post we can be destroying the foundations of the long-term business.

3. Mission and Social Responsibility

The principle, perhaps the first and most important of the business vocation is "to satisfy the needs of the world with goods". This is a fundamental contribution of companies to society, and the Mission must reflect it.

The relationship between Mission and CSR has been widely and very well treated by Prof. Antonio Argandoña, in the work "The Mission of the Company and Social Responsibility", from which we rescue the concept that "The Mission is directed to the central activities of the organization: Corporate social responsibility (CSR) also does it, but it extends to other secondary ones, such as philanthropy and social action".

Many companies and academics fall into the error of mainly considering CSR as the secondary actions indicated. Developing social activities in companies is something very good and to encourage at all levels of the organization, as it solves serious problems, sensitizes and transmits values to the whole society and internal to the organization. Worrying about the negative side effects of business decisions, so as not to affect the rights of others on the part of companies, is also one of the objectives of CSR, fundamental for social coexistence.

However, the mistake of considering CSR as only secondary activities to the business excessively limits the real social impact of companies, which must be focused on the production of goods and services that meet needs, given that:

- It has much more social impact policies and business decisions of price, channels, positioning, hiring etc. ... that companies take, than the secondary CSR. Including the perspective of the impact on the community of business decisions is an interesting challenge.

- Resources dedicated to secondary activities are not going to be as significant or sufficient. Since it is not the basic mission of the company and not the natural environment to do so, it is difficult for a board to dedicate many funds to philanthropy and social action activities, without affecting the rights of other stakeholders.

- The companies are a natural modern environment so that people can learn to defend themselves in life with decent work that allows perpetuating the generation of wealth and human fulfillment through their task. The charity tends to cover or alleviate some needs but hardly generate substantive solutions, sustainable in the long term. It is not the best way to spread a work culture.

- Social actions can become a mere strategy of marketing and public relations. It is often observed that many companies invest more in advertising about social programs than in the realization of these projects, with the clear objective of improving its reputation.

The social good should not be focused solely on social actions, the usual responsibility of staff areas that tend to blur, nor on the negative secondary effects of decisions. In many companies this task is seen only as a center of expenses, isolated from the business or as praiseworthy initiatives to which it is intended to integrate with some difficulty and even in some cases with resistance.

To make a correct assessment of the company's social contribution we have to take into account that the greatest contribution that the company must make to society is through fulfilling its specific mission in offering products and services that meet human needs.

We have to see, in each customer, persons to whom we satisfy a need

This is an approach that surpasses the CSR of the base that a company supported by a solid mission, covers a social need of the community

Think of the case of Walt Disney, his main asset to society is to fulfill his mission. To the extent that the company manages to generate a social good and transmit values through its core business, for which it has naturally been formed, it will be making its greatest contribution to society.

This is an approach that surpasses the CSR of the base that a company supported by a solid mission, that covers a social need of the community and that promotes values, does not oppose the attainment of economic benefit, but rather empowers it, generating the company as a human organization has many advantages, such as:

- The social good will be more easily attainable to be related to the heart of the business and, therefore, be the concern of senior management and the entire company to be aligned with it. This proposal centers the main objective of the company in socially positive terms, making those involved in the organization feel useful when producing social goods and services.

- Focus the company on what it knows how to contribute social value, avoiding distractions. This shows the fruits of business work on a day-to-day basis, which is the motivation that a doctor can have in his office, an artist in his show, a bricklayer building a house or an academic teaching. There is nothing more satisfying than seeing the fruits of daily work as a contribution to society.

- It is a socially efficient division of labor. It allows wealth to be generated by those who know how to carry out an activity and who can improve it day by day, making their contribution of greater value and generating an advance for humanity.

- The solution to poverty can come exclusively from producing more quantity of goods and services for more people. This can be achieved with companies that produce more and better products for humanity. The fight against poverty is not the responsibility of the individual company, but of the system supported by for-profit companies. Philanthropy should cover needs that could not be covered by real companies through the economy.

- This social contribution is exportable to different markets. This is produced by the export of goods and exchange between countries or by direct investments in other markets. The difficulty will be in adapting the mission and values to the culture and the requirements of a global world.

When companies and market economies function correctly and focus on serving the common good, both make a great contribution to the material development and even to the spiritual well-being of society.

To the extent that the company complies with the Mission, it will achieve a better social assessment not only of its customers but also of society. These factors may be the cause of obtaining more sustainable financial results.

Understanding this relationship between mission and CSR is an important part of revaluing the Mission. To a large extent, this vision of the Mission as CSR has not been and is not shared by many. Largely because they see that the objective pursued is that of profitability for shareholders and that is how it is presented on the map; therefore, the production and sale of services is not seen as a social motivation. This proposal emphasizes the motivation as a CSR factor and not the impact of the actions, which can be dangerous mainly, for two reasons:

- Many business success studies, such as those of Collins and Porras, have shown that the companies that last are those that have a purpose beyond the benefit.

- When we analyze the motivations in other human activities, we see that the impact of a good professional, artist, sportsman, ... in the generation of well-being, goes beyond the profit motive that may have as motivation in carrying it out,

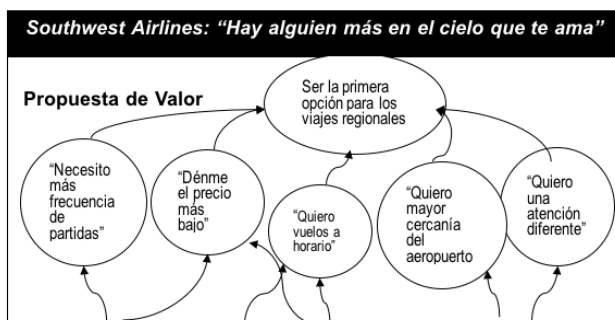
The concepts developed in this point do not focus on a perspective of global economy but with a vision of the company and its empowerment as an individual and generic organization. By giving the mission more social significance is hierarchized in front of the community and stakeholders, facilitating promoting greater and better motivation, participation and development of values in producers as we will see later

The fundamental contribution of companies to society is "to satisfy the needs of the world with goods". It's maybe basic, but is important for Countries, where the companies don't have a good image.

4. Specify the Mission in Value Proposal to the Customer

The generic missions can be very broad but representative as the "Make people happy" of Walt Disney. According to what they say, it has led to the proposal of an ex-president of this company to enter the adult pornography film market. Which leads us to state that generic missions require specifications and a way to specify them within a strategic map is explicitly explaining the value propositions to the client, what does the client want? Can we satisfy it?

In the Maps, the value proposals are made explicit with the customer's phrases, resulting in a very clear and precise way of visualizing the client's perspective. I rely on the example in Walt Disney, if the top management of the company agrees that the client wants the company: Receive fun for the whole family, would be making the Happy Make, in the fun of a certain target audience, which is more specific and clarifier of the directive objectives.



In the case of Southwest Airlines, presented by Kaplan and Norton, making a map helped to finalize the value proposition to the client of an ethereal mission as shown below.

These definitions of customer value proposition will align the objectives of the map processes and the organizational culture behind them.

5. Measure the Mission

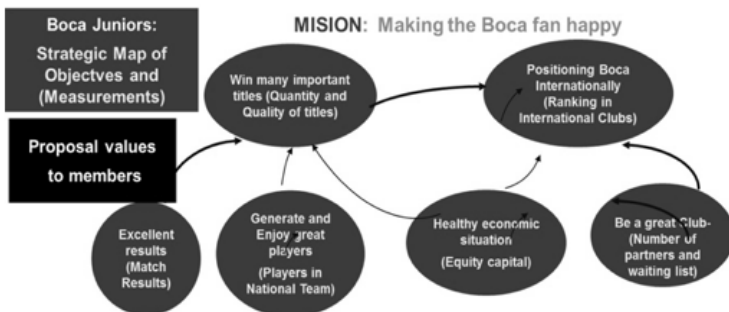
Although measuring the Mission can be very difficult since it is often intangible and aspirational. Not like the Vision that is more concrete. The experience of implementations of the Map and the DpM shows that this is possible and highly positive.

In case studies, you can look for measurements that approximate the Mission and that bring us closer to reality if it is being achieved. In the case of Walt Disney if we specify that the mission is fun to be happy (cause effect relationship), we can measure the fun with:

1. Surveys of customer satisfaction in terms of fun
2. Use of games and services (the Magic Band implemented by WD can serve to monitor the behavior of customers)
3. Number of participations in activities

As well as these there are other measurements of Mission like the Wal Mart "Give ordinary people the opportunity to buy the same things as the rich", for this the average company: Savings of customers, their evolution in quantity and in the Customer Profile

By including the missions on the Map, they have to measure them. For example, in the Map that shows the management of the current president of Argentina, Mauricio Macri at the head of the Boca Juniors club, the Mission was defined in terms of making the Boca fan happy, specifying the measurements in quantity and quality of the titles and in other indicators as shown in the attached table.



Because of the importance of the Mission mentioned in the previous points, specifying its measurement is of great help in seeking to achieve it. The experience of implementing Maps is that when the objective is well defined the measurement comes naturally and it becomes much easier to define the indicator of success measurement.

6. Mission and Development of Intangibles Values

Based on the anthropological vision of the organizations, the Mission gives a more complete perspective to the Map, reflecting a more humane enterprise. A company that helps to cover personal and social needs, both material and tangible or intangible, must be a great motivator for people, bearing in mind that:

- Transmitting values makes the company gain credibility and long-term social value. Most people seek their personal good and that of the community according to their scale of values. They are hardly willing to buy or spread companies that produce ills. In the long term, its intangible values are converted in tangible values.

- Putting the main objective of the company out of it and with a broader vision than the economic one, avoids the risk of an extreme personalism, which can limit the entrepreneurial objective to the satisfaction not only economic, but psychological and ambitious power of owners and managers, who can pauperize the organizational objectives to their own self-satisfaction, spinning the company around them and affecting, in the long term, the development of the company.

Objectively present a mission, based on valuable assets, so that all members of the organization or most of them want, is a guarantee of success for companies. "The union in wanting the same goal, is the hinge on which turns all the activity of people in the company. You can passionately want the same goal, the same good, even if the people who want it to do not have any friendship with each other, for the value, for the real merit of the loved good, regardless of whether there are others who want it and work with me to get it. "

The impact of the mission on the intangible assets and the motivations of the people, is being very deeply dealt with in the book and written articles of DpM. Subscribed in the anthropological vision of organizations explained very deeply by Juan Antonio Pérez López.

In the experience of analyzing successful companies and teaching them in class, there are many global companies that the mission has been very important in the strategy. Instead of "the tyranny of the disjunctive" between ideals and benefits "the culture of aggregation" of which Collins and Porras speak, they propose that looking for both objectives is possible for visionary companies. Visionary companies see profitability as a necessary

condition for existence and a means to achieve more important ends, but not an end in itself.

Likewise, the reality of the values of different managers and the financial market means that in many of these companies' different motivations prevail in a permanent tension between them.

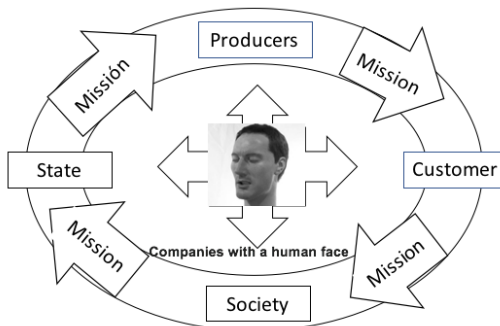
7. Conclusions

This article aims to add points of view that pay for these writings and the importance of including the Mission as a central axis within the Strategy and in a Strategic Map. As seen in a Strategic Map the importance of the Mission within the definition of the business model and strategy It has many edges related to the different perspectives in which strategic objectives can be defined.

All are related to making companies more human and also more profitable. The concept of a company with a human face goes beyond the perspective of employees or producers presenting a human face to customers and society in general. Companies that operate in this way will make a great contribution to the country and society, which will promote the vision of importance of the Directorate for Missions.

Worrying in a generic way to solve social problems with the state, companies and entrepreneurs can be shown with Human Face, society as a whole, but this is no longer the responsibility of the individual company but intermediate institutions.

Some of these concepts can enrich the projects that are carried out by DpM.



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Mission statements have become common practice in companies and institutions. Missions are present at corporate level (corporate mission), brand identity (brand mission), intra-organizational groups (departmental/team mission) and individuals (personal/role mission). This growing presence of missions in organizations is the foundation of an evolutionary logic of management, moving beyond the management by objectives to a new form of “management by missions”. Management by mission’s studies how companies organize and manage the missions at different levels of the company (from corporate to individual) and how they integrate missions with other management practices (strategy, culture, objectives, leadership, communication, training...).

Specifically, the 3th Research Workshop addresses to key topics leading towards this new paradigm of management. In this edition, we are sponsoring the following topics:

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- Missions across cultures
- Missions and motivation
- Missions and leadership
- Missions and sustainability
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- Personal mission
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