



Workplace happiness as a trinomial of organizational climate, academic satisfaction, and organizational engagement

Journal:	<i>Corporate Governance</i>
Manuscript ID	CG-12-2020-0532.R3
Manuscript Type:	Original Article
Keywords:	Happiness, Industry 4.0, Organizational Climate, Academic Satisfaction, Organizational behaviour

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Summary

Purpose: The present research proposes to study the correlations between organizational climate, academic satisfaction, and organizational commitment as factors that influence happiness at work by applying a structural equation model to Spanish National Police cadets.

Design/methodology/approach: A descriptive, quantitative, correlational, exploratory, and cross-sectional empirical study was carried out. A measurement instrument was applied to a target population of 397 student-inspectors enrolled for the 2018–2020 academic year on the executive scale at the National Police School (EPN) in Spain. A sample of 190 surveys was obtained, of which 33 were open competition, 52 were competitive examinations, and 105 were selective seniority.

Findings: Structural equation modeling shows that academic satisfaction, organizational climate, and practical organizational commitment are recommended variables for assessing happiness within organizations. On the other hand, there is a bit of a positive relationship between happiness and practical organizational commitment. The same is not true for the parameters of academic satisfaction and organizational climate.

Originality/value: This study fills a gap in the literature on the analysis of governance models in public administration. This is particularly relevant in professions that require a high degree of engagement with citizens, such as police officers. This article is one of the first works to analyze corporate governance in police cadet schools in Spain under the happiness management approach. It contributes by offering a better understanding of the psychosocial variables that affect the existence of good governance.

Keywords: Happiness, organizational climate, academic satisfaction, organizational commitment

Paper type: Research paper

Introduction

The word "happiness" has been an elusive and challenging term for researchers to conceptualize. Given this fact, several researchers have tried to present the term as a synonym for the expressions "subjective well-being," "psychological well-being," "quality of life," or "satisfaction" (Khalil, 2019; Romero-Rodríguez and Castillo-Abdul, 2019). Based on this approach, many studies that understand subjective well-being as the science of happiness have emerged (Helliwell and Aknin, 2018; Diener *et al.*, 2005). This discipline was born with multiple interdisciplinary challenges, including highlighting that positive entities are solid catalysts of collective happiness for human beings—which is no small matter, especially when it is discovered through a literature review that the foundations of a satisfying and fulfilling life are not found exclusively in wealth (Haybron, 2007). This finding suggests that happiness is not directly linked to economic or consumption incentives among a wide range of issues but perhaps to the pursuit of the common good, hence the need to establish policies and institutions whose governance pivots on general interest and social responsibility (Tirole, 2017; Tafolli and Grabner-Kräuter, 2020).

The study of happiness within organizations is an expanding field in business management, public management, and *happiness management*. Some of the works have

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3 been devoted to empirically demonstrate the vital weight that management variables have
4 on the happiness of their human capital and stakeholders, provided that they enjoy the
5 governance that contributes to creating a positive work environment (Chen *et al.*, 2019;
6 Nogueira-Kamel *et al.*, 2017).
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9 In this respect, there is still much to be explored and, above all, to be explained in order
10 to determine whether public administrations are trying the holistic approach of happiness
11 for their human capital through vocation, satisfaction, and commitment to the
12 organization. These attributes are present in the work of healthcare workers, teachers, and
13 police officers. These occupations require a governance style that aims at proactively
14 enhancing emotional health, well-being, motivation, and positive emotions (Jackman *et*
15 *al.*, 2020; Thornton, 2020). This approach to happiness helps these public employees, on
16 the one hand, to calmly and effectively carry out actions aimed at preserving public safety
17 in today's society and, on the other hand, to reduce the high levels of stress and tension
18 involved in the daily exercise of their profession, which is characterized by risk and the
19 fear of losing their lives (Liakopoulou *et al.*, 2020).
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23 In this sense, the present research proposes a structural equation model to determine
24 whether the dimensions of organizational climate, affective organizational commitment,
25 and academic satisfaction are relevant for future police inspectors' happiness. This subject
26 has been scarcely analyzed to date.
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29 **Theoretical framework**

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31 As announced in the previous section, the purpose of this paper is twofold. On the one
32 hand, it will explore how organizational commitment, organizational climate, and
33 academic satisfaction affect happiness in the police environment; on the other hand, it
34 will put on the academic table that this association is a business incentive in today's digital
35 society. Therefore, it is necessary to carry out a literature review of the dimensions of this
36 work. It will provide us with guidelines for the design of our empirical research and the
37 choice of measurement scales and establish the theoretical framework of our research
38 hypotheses. Based on these arguments, we will briefly describe the literature from the last
39 decades on organizational climate, academic satisfaction parameters, and organizational
40 commitment. We are keeping in mind that *happiness has attracted the attention of*
41 *economists and psychologists in recent years because of its direct effects on productivity*
42 *and the factors under study (Núñez-Barriopedro et al., 2021). This phenomenon affects*
43 *not only internal customers but also households, companies, and governments.*
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47 **Organizational climate**

48
49 Since the mid-1930s, researchers, especially economists, sociologists, and psychologists,
50 have been carefully exploring scientific aspects revolving around organizational climate
51 (Köllen *et al.*, 2020; Lamberti *et al.*, 2020). This multifaceted and cyclical concept is
52 determined not only by the individual or collective perceptions that human capital has
53 about the organization's climate but also from the social interactions between people
54 during the daily performance of their professional activity (Coda *et al.*, 2015).
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57 This circumstance has given rise to a long and fruitful academic debate about whether the
58 organizational climate is the organization's property or that of the individuals who
59 compose it. This controversy has undoubtedly contributed to the disparity of definitions
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3 of this particular construct, where some researchers conceptualize it through the prism of
4 individuals (Kessler, 2019) or the organization (Neal *et al.*, 2000).
5

6 Regarding the latter approach, Glick (1985, p. 613) argues that organizational climate is
7 "the organizational context for the actions of individuals." Also, a recent study by
8 Schneider *et al.* (2013, p. 362) describes the aforementioned psycho-organizational
9 variable from the employees' point of view as "the shared perceptions and associated
10 meaning of the policies, practices, and procedures that employees experience and the
11 behaviors they observe that are rewarded, supported, and expected."
12

13 Therefore, it can be stated that the holistic understanding of the organizational climate
14 dimension is an ongoing and active task of scientific research (Kuenzi *et al.*, 2020). In
15 this context, job satisfaction and social identity are recognized as highly relevant catalysts
16 for cultivating a positive and participative climate within organizations (Chaudhary,
17 2019).
18

19 Studies conducted over the last few decades on this specific area of business organization
20 and corporate governance are characterized by significant associations between
21 organizational climate, interpersonal cooperation and productivity, and business success
22 (Domínguez-Aguirre *et al.*, 2010; Van De Voorde *et al.*, 2010). Such linkages have
23 provided strong empirical support to consolidate the idea that managers' organizational
24 priorities should be to have firsthand knowledge of the internal environment in their
25 organizations (Mehralian *et al.*, 2020). In this way, employee engagement is fostered in
26 all aspects of the corporate governance process (Ryu, 2020).
27

28 Also, in recent years, some researchers have been quite attracted to describing and
29 analyzing the organizational climate in public administrations based on the thought that
30 a hostile atmosphere in these institutions is synonymous with poor work performance,
31 stress, burnout, or conflict (Willis *et al.*, 2019). Following this line of research, recent
32 articles argue that a good climate in public organizations significantly boosts creativity,
33 positive emotions, or altruism (Mutonyi *et al.*, 2020; Thakre and Shroff, 2016). However,
34 while this type of research has proliferated, very little research has focused on the role of
35 happiness in the climate of public sector entities; such research should focus deeply on
36 whether the happiness of public officials translates into an intangible resource that
37 contributes significantly to the construction of structures adaptable to people's
38 motivations and positive affects (Díaz-Pincheira and Carrasco-Garcés, 2019).
39

40 Therefore, the first hypothesis of our research will be:
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42 *H₁: Organizational climate is related to happiness in the public sector.*
43

44 **Academic satisfaction**

45 Students' academic satisfaction depends on their experiences in the daily performance of
46 their role as learners and is also influenced by the quality of education offered by higher
47 education institutions in the knowledge society (Tacca Huamán *et al.*, 2020). In this sense,
48 academic satisfaction can be understood as a very valid construct to measure and evaluate
49 the well-being of students.
50

51 Under this heuristic prism, a vast scientific literature emerges that demonstrates that
52 educational institutions in the digital society will have to promote a model of teaching
53 strategy aimed at holistically increasing the academic satisfaction of their future graduates
54 from the perspective of social responsibility and happiness management (Gallardo-
55 Vázquez *et al.*, 2020). In this way, University 4.0 ecosystems can allow technological
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3 innovation and happiness to flourish (Giesenbauer and Müller-Christ, 2020), both critical
4 elements of success in the business world and job satisfaction.
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6 Regarding the latter concept, Allen (1996) argues that it should be considered a synonym
7 for academic satisfaction. Both concepts are closely linked to the term psychological well-
8 being. Given the above, it should be noted that the theoretical review carried out for this
9 research shows that a large part of the monographs and articles related to this discipline
10 of management and business management in recent decades have mainly examined the
11 dimension of job satisfaction rather than the socio-affective competence called academic
12 or student satisfaction (Farahnak *et al.*, 2020; Kakhki *et al.*, 2020). In terms of the latter,
13 there is a significant body of recent research proving that happier employees are more
14 productive (DiMaria *et al.*, 2020).
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17 Despite a large body of literature on job satisfaction, little research has empirically
18 examined whether academic satisfaction is a predictor of happiness. In this sense, articles
19 such as one by Lu and Hu (2005) postulate that both parameters are positively
20 associated—in this case, through the mediating dimension of leisure time. Similar
21 findings can be found in Silva and Figueiredo-Braga (2018) and with a slightly different
22 nuance in Chui *et al.* (2016), where the happiness-academic satisfaction construct
23 negatively correlates with life satisfaction.
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26 In this order of ideas, it is worth mentioning that the scientific literature that examines the
27 effects of academic satisfaction on the happiness of public employees is even scarcer.
28 There are two reasons for this. First, happiness management specialists have not been
29 attracted to study the academic environment, particularly in the group that is the subject
30 of this research, police cadets (Ravina-Ripoll *et al.*, 2019). Second, researchers who have
31 examined the human capital of police officers in recent decades have mainly focused on
32 exploring their job satisfaction from a psycho-organizational perspective (Demirkol,
33 2020; Paoline and Gau, 2020). This scientific approach is because the academic-
34 satisfaction dimension has not been considered appropriate for the multidimensional
35 study of the professional performance of police officers because this parameter focuses
36 exclusively on the university environment, which is at the antipodes of the world of work
37 (Sovet *et al.*, 2014). This dilemma highlights the gap in the research on academic
38 satisfaction, which limits our ability to assess the importance of this dimension on
39 happiness and the role it plays in constructing good corporate governance. It is from this
40 perspective that the second study hypothesis is developed.
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44 *H₂: Academic satisfaction is related to happiness in the public sector.*

45 **Organizational commitment**

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47 There is currently an intense academic debate on the multidimensional term
48 "organizational commitment" (Hayati and Caniago, 2012), which has led to many
49 definitions and epistemologies about it. Among them is the classic definition by Allen
50 and Meyer (1990). They argue that this construct emerges from the association between
51 workers and the organization from the trinomial of affectivity, socialization, and work
52 loyalty. In line with this conceptualization, Meyer *et al.* (2002) define organizational
53 commitment as an emotional force that motivates workers to continue as proactive and
54 loyal members of the organization for its values, goals, and culture. It should be noted
55 that both definitions have served as a basis for many of the conceptualizations that have
56 subsequently appeared in the academic world on this particular parameter (Devece *et al.*,
57 2016). Based on this view, it can be argued that organizational commitment is a
58 psychological state that contributes to retaining and socializing employees in
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3 organizations and helps achieve the optimal levels of job satisfaction and professional
4 performance (Hatch and Schultz, 2000; Sungu *et al.*, 2020).
5

6 This positive attitude has led many researchers to ask who generates this commitment—
7 the people or the culture implemented by the organizations (Kotzé and Nel, 2020)? To
8 answer this question, numerous studies have focused on detecting the psycho-
9 organizational factors that cause individuals to stay or leave an organization, whether
10 public or private (Abid *et al.*, 2019). Without claiming to be exhaustive in detailing the
11 variables that exert a type of influence on the organizational commitment dimension, we
12 will mention, in broad terms, those parameters that have a direct relationship with this
13 particular construct from the point of view of both workers and corporations. Examples
14 include social change, motivation, organizational climate, and transparency (Klimchak *et*
15 *al.*, 2020; Ghouri *et al.*, 2019).
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19 Despite the enormous progress in scientific production since the end of the 20th century
20 on the indicator that is the subject of this section, there is currently not a large body of
21 work investigating organizational commitment within public administration, especially
22 in the field of policing (Baek, 2020; Nalla *et al.*, 2020). The members of this human
23 capital are characterized by the ability to perform their work efficiently in an atmosphere
24 dominated by violence, psychological pressure, and insecurity. Other factors of a negative
25 behavioral nature—such as emotional stress, job turnover, or burnout—do not favor the
26 pre-attitudes of their job satisfaction (Choi *et al.*, 2020).
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29 In parallel to this empirical evidence, other research argues that organizational and social
30 support positively affects police organizational commitment (Cohen and Shamai, 2010).
31 It is also clear that police organizational commitment decreases with increasing age and
32 years of service (Crow *et al.*, 2012). Also, social science literature lacks quantitative
33 studies on how the intangible resource of happiness relates to organizational commitment
34 in policing.
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37 This phenomenon is somewhat striking when we consider the existence of a relevant
38 scientific production that shows that happy employees constitute human capital that is
39 highly committed to their organizations (Thompson and Bruk-Lee, 2020). In line with
40 this research, Salas-Vallina and Alegre (2018) argue that the organizational commitment
41 dimension constitutes an element of the subscale of the happiness at work variable. This
42 decision is arguable. A high level of work engagement of human capital should not be
43 motivated because people express in the questionnaires prepared by top management that
44 they have high levels of satisfaction in the daily development of their job (Fisher, 2010).
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48 Finally, and by way of summary, one cannot fail to note that the absence of the intangible
49 resource of happiness or subjective well-being within companies or public
50 administrations significantly decreases their workforce's commitment to their
51 corporations in the digital society (Wahyanto *et al.*, 2019). From this perspective, there
52 could be a rich academic debate on the promising roles that organizational happiness and
53 happiness management could play in the human resource management of new police
54 officers, whose professional activity will be important in safeguarding the freedom and
55 improving the collective well-being of citizens (Chumaceiro Hernández *et al.*, 2020).
56 However, this is not possible without a public sector governance model that works
57 effectively in the general interest of society. Based on these theoretical and ethical
58 approaches, the following working hypothesis is formulated:
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4 *H₃: Organizational commitment is related to happiness in the public sector.*
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7 **Materials and method**

8 **Sample**

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11 This empirical research is exploratory, descriptive, quantitative, correlational, and cross-
12 sectional in scope. This study takes as its target population the 397 student-inspectors
13 (cadets) on the executive scale of the National Police School (EPN) of Spain in the 2019–
14 2020 academic year. It should be noted that Spanish legislation considers the members of
15 this group to be public employees before they begin their police inspector studies at this
16 particular training institution. This consideration is justified because their entry into this
17 institution requires them to have previously passed the entrance exams for the National
18 Police Corps (CNP). After this brief clarification, it should be noted that the questionnaire
19 was passed between 24 April and 31 May 2020, and a final sample of 190 surveys was
20 obtained. Out of the 190, 33 were open competition, 52 were competitive examinations,
21 and 105 were selective seniority—representing a confidence level of 95% and a
22 maximum level of error of 4.96% (Table I).
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26 **Table I. Population and sample size and sampling error by mode of access**

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28 From the data in Table I, it can be stated that the response rate was 47.9% (Table II). As
29 for the profiles of the respondents, most of them were students who entered the EPN
30 during the time frame covered by this study through the selective seniority process
31 (26.4%), followed in smaller numbers by students in competitive examinations (13.1%)
32 and open competitions (8.3%).
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35 **Table II. Responses and non-responses by mode of access**

36
37 In order to be able to perform an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with minimum
38 guarantees, a Chi-square analysis was applied to check whether the access mode was
39 subject to non-response bias problems. It resulted in a $p < 0.05$ at a 95% confidence level.
40 Behind these figures lies a strong dependence between the mode of access and the non-
41 response to the survey. The most significant discrepancy occurs in the free shift, where
42 non-response is higher than expected.
43
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45 Therefore, all statistical conclusions reached in this paper will be biased toward a possible
46 cause of non-response in this particular stratum of the sub-population. Assuming that the
47 cause of non-response is independent of the study target, the number of responses
48 obtained is sufficient for the econometric analyses to be undertaken throughout this paper.
49
50

51 **Instrument**

52
53 In order to collect observable data on this population, the survey has been used as a social
54 research instrument. It is motivated because it is a beneficial and influential element in
55 obtaining rich, multivariate, and meaningful information to understand the specific reality
56 to be examined statistically and understand the surveyed individuals' conduct or behavior
57 (Corbetta, 2007).
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3 The literature review carried out in the previous section has allowed the theoretical
4 delimitation of the variables that are the object of this research and establish the scales of
5 our questionnaire. For practical organizational commitment, the Allen and Meyer (1990)
6 scale was used, which is made up of eight questions on a Likert scale, with a range of
7 values from 0 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree). This scale was chosen for
8 its strong statistical robustness (France *et al.*, 2019).
9

10
11 We begin with Vergara-Morales *et al.*'s (2018) empirical work on the academic
12 satisfaction parameter. It shows the above construct's relevance regarding academic
13 experiences and subjective or psychological well-being. This questionnaire consists of
14 eight items, answered on a Likert scale from 0 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely
15 agree). This instrument was chosen because it is characterized by a strong link between
16 academic satisfaction indicators and eudemonic happiness (Delle Fave *et al.*, 2011).
17
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19 The organizational climate was analyzed using Huff and Kelley's (2003) scale, which
20 consists of four options: "There is a very high level of trust throughout the institution";
21 "In this organization, subordinates have a high level of trust in their superiors"; "If
22 someone in this institution makes a promise, others will almost always trust that the
23 person will do everything possible to keep the promise"; "The superiors in this institution
24 trust their subordinates to make good decisions." Responses are rated on a Likert-type
25 scale between 0 (completely disagree) and 7 (completely agree).
26
27

28 The happiness dimension was measured directly using a single item, as done in other
29 studies (Ravina-Ripoll *et al.*, 2019). The information was collected through the question,
30 "To what extent do you consider yourself a happy person?" This variable is a Likert-type
31 variable of ten categories. Higher values correspond to a higher degree of individual
32 happiness. This question was taken from the September 2018 barometer of the Spanish
33 Sociological Research Centre (CIS), derived from the classic Lyubomirsky and Lepper
34 (1999) questionnaire.
35
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37 **Data analysis**

38
39 Once the questionnaire data had been cleaned, confirmatory factor analysis was
40 completed to examine the organizational climate indicator's validity and reliability. Next,
41 an inferential bivariate analysis was completed on the different dimensions of this
42 scientific article's corpus. To this end, Pearson's phi coefficient and Spearman's rho
43 coefficient were used. These statistical instruments are two of the most widely used
44 inferential tests in the academic world (Creswell and Guetterman, 2019). This stems from
45 the fact that both psychometric tests are valid for examining the degree of consistency
46 and robustness in which dimensions are numerically correlated. In this way, their non-
47 linearity can be detected (De Winter and Gosling, 2016).
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50
51 In order to test whether the construct's organizational commitment, organizational climate,
52 and academic satisfaction affect happiness, a structural equation model was carried out
53 with SPSS 25 statistical software, an instrument that is quite suited to the nature of this
54 study and its sample size (Aldrich, 2018). In this way, the validity and reliability of the
55 empirical construction of our theoretical model could be determined (Figure 1).
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Figure 1. Conceptual model of the relationship of the observed variables**Results**

In order to test our three working hypotheses, the scales organizational commitment, organizational climate, and academic satisfaction were designed as a single overall variable score per scale. We took the overall scores for the organizational commitment and academic satisfaction variables from the confirmatory factor analyses of their respective validation articles (Alle and Meyer, 1990; Vergara-Morales *et al.*, 2018). Meanwhile, to obtain the overall score for the organizational climate indicator, we decided to perform an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and another confirmatory factor analysis—a decision that was justified by the small number of items that made up the questionnaire. Given the above, the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) was used, which showed that the scale we had used correctly predicted the organizational climate dimension (see Table III).

Table III. Goodness of fit

Based on this information, and bearing in mind that weighted scores are more reliable than direct scores (Zumbo *et al.*, 2007), the "sum" variables of the following scales were generated: overall effective organizational commitment score (EOC), overall organizational climate score (OCS), and overall academic satisfaction score (AS). This was not the case with happiness vector (FE), which was identified as a direct variable.

Equation of weighted scores for COE, CLO, and SA variables

$$COE = 1 * COE1 + \frac{56}{55} * COE2 + \frac{52}{55} * COE3 + \frac{45}{55} * COE4 + \frac{63}{55} * COE5 + \frac{81}{55} * COE6 + \frac{79}{55} * COE7 + \frac{82}{55} * COE8$$

$$CLO = 1 * CLO1 + 1.03 * CLO2 + 1.04 * CLO3 + 1.05 * CLO4$$

$$SA = 1 * SA1 + 1 * SA2 + \frac{0.74}{0.70} * SA3 + \frac{0.8}{0.7} * SA4 + \frac{0.76}{0.70} * SA5 + \frac{0.77}{0.70} * SA6 + \frac{0.63}{0.70} * SA7 + \frac{0.45}{0.70} * SA8$$

Equation shows three items of data. First, the "effective organizational commitment" scale ranges from 0 to 65.3 points. A higher score means a higher degree of practical organizational commitment. Second, the variable "academic satisfaction" ranges from 0 and 55.5 points, with a higher score indicating higher academic satisfaction. Third, the variable "organizational climate" ranges from 0 and 28.8, with a high score on this scale indicating an excellent working climate (Table IV).

Table IV. Summary statistics for COE, CLO, and SA scales

The data in Table IV show a medium-high level of practical organizational commitment among the subjects in the study, with a mean score of 48.16 (SD = 11.55) out of 65.3 points. In this sense, it is worth noting that although the practical organizational commitment scale has a wide range of values (5.45–65.29), the high scores on this scale are the most frequent as the asymmetry is negative (Bias = -7.11).

On the one hand, the organizational climate dimension shows that the score on this scale in the sample reflects a moderate level of organizational climate, with a mean score of 16.21 (SD = 5.39) out of 28.3 points. On the other hand, it shows that this variable's mean

is representative but not to a high degree (30%, C.Var. < 50%). It may refer to a disparity from the perspective of different organizational climates.

The academic satisfaction scale's descriptive analysis shows a moderate average score (mean = 33.52/55.5, SD = 11.99). This phenomenon is confirmed at the numerical level by the coefficient of variation, which indicates mean representativeness. The magnitude of this effect is not found in the happiness parameter, as it presents a relatively high and representative mean score (mean = 7.92, SD = 1.36, C.Var. < 20%). It is also noted that the distribution is asymmetrical to the left (skewness = -10.97), which is a response to a concentration of individuals in high score values.

On this basis, and for purely experimental purposes, the bivariate or canonical correlations of the COE, CLO, SA, and FE factors are addressed. For this purpose, Spearman's and Pearson's correlation coefficients were used at a significance level of less than 0.05. Spearman's test shows positive bivariate correlations between the constructs of the proposed theoretical model (Figure 1). However, at the inferential level, it shows a medium-low significance (Table V).

Table V. Spearman's correlation matrix

Let us take a closer look at the data in Table V. We can see that the highest bivariate correlation between the parameters is between COE and CLO (0.5799) and the lowest between SA and FE (0.2285). Given these findings, it is advisable to carry out the Pearson non-parametric test to verify no linearity, as shown graphically in the following scatter diagram (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Dispersion matrix

From this statistical test, Table VI shows a direct and significant relationship between all the pairs of variables analyzed (collinearity). However, it demonstrated that the highest bivariate correlation is between CLO–SA (0.5307), and the lowest is associated with the SA–FE relationship (0.2034). For the Spearman and Pearson tests, it shows the lowest association originates in the SA–FE construct.

Table VI. Pearson's correlation matrix

According to the graph above, we detected a direct and significant relationship between all pairs of the variables under study (collinearity). In light of these numerical data, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed according to Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria. The results show that our conceptual model has a high goodness of fit: $\chi^2/df = 0.613$ (p-value = 0.820); RMSEA = 0.000 (95 % CI = (0.000; 0.049), p-value = 0.953); TLI = 1.025; CFI = 1.000; GFI = 0.992).

Next, a structural equation model was developed to verify the fulfilment of the hypotheses put forward throughout these pages. The data obtained show two things. First, the only direct predictor of the happiness variable is effective organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.225$, 95% CI = (0.058, 0.392), p-value = 0.008). Second, organisational climate ($\beta = 0.125$, 95% CI = (-0.67, 0.316), p-value = 0.202) and academic satisfaction ($\beta = 0.053$, 95% CI = (-0.118, 0.225), p-value = 0.542) are not directly associated with happiness. This can be seen empirically in their structural equation system (Happiness = 0.225 *Effective Organisational Commitment + 0 *Standards + 0.125 * Organisational Climate

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3 + 0.053 Academic Satisfaction), as well as descriptively in the following illustration
4 (Figure 3).
5

6 **Figure 3. Graphical representation of the structural equation model**

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8 Therefore, it can be stated that hypotheses H1 and H2 are rejected, and hypothesis H3 is
9 accepted. In sum, the above shows that this training center for public employees does not
10 educate its students in an environment that a priori cultivates its student-inspectors'
11 happiness. This is an aspect that should not go unnoticed by those in charge. Hence the
12 need to implement a participatory governance model in the National Police School (EPN)
13 that understands the trinomial of students, teachers, and management as a vehicle for
14 cooperation and collaboration to stimulate the commitment, motivation, and teamwork of
15 future inspectors (Viader and Espina, 2014; Midtun, 2010).
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18

19 **Conclusion**

20
21 Happiness is one of the essential keys with which public entities can cultivate a positive
22 climate within their organizations through the ethical principles of commitment,
23 satisfaction, and governance (Goede and Neuwirth, 2014). This study used a quantitative
24 approach methodology to develop a pilot test through the survey. A primary information-
25 gathering technique allowed the study to examine the degree of happiness of new police
26 inspectors. Using this prism, this research carried out a structural equation model to
27 explore the impact of the constructs academic satisfaction, organizational climate, and
28 practical organizational commitment on the happiness of these specific public employees.
29 There is an absence of literature on this topic, and this study fills the gap by empirically
30 demonstrating that good governance is needed in police training schools. It is highly
31 relevant to citizens' quality of life and, thus, to the common good of society.
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34
35 The results are not consistent with our expectations based on happiness management
36 theory. However, this does not prevent us from highlighting some of this study's findings.
37 The first is that the multidimensionality and subjectivity of the concept of happiness make
38 it challenging to measure empirically (Fabian, 2019). It becomes even more complicated
39 when we want to make such an assessment with a limited number of observable variables,
40 as is the case in this study.
41

42
43 The second consideration is motivated by the hope of providing more excellent academic
44 knowledge on the intangible resource of happiness in the public sector. To this end, a
45 conceptual model was proposed that would include indicators little explored in the field
46 of public administrations to date. In light of what has been argued, this model should be
47 validated in other public employees, and this type of study should be transferred to other
48 territories to give greater robustness to our statistical study and, therefore, the
49 conclusions. Moreover, on the other hand, changing the observable variables chosen for
50 other dimensions may provide greater inferential significance.
51

52
53 The structural equation model has identified that the parameters academic satisfaction,
54 organizational climate, and affective commitment are recommended for assessing the
55 happiness of future police inspectors. It also shows a weak positive relationship between
56 happiness and practical organizational commitment. Perhaps this is due to the absence of
57 a participatory, ethical, and networked governance system in the organization being
58 studied. One that motivates the job satisfaction of its student-inspectors and enhances the
59 psychosocial factors of emotional intelligence and resilience to help them reduce the high
60 doses of job stress that future inspectors will have to face (Visser, 2020; Trong Tuan,

2013). Therefore, it is crucial to have academic institutions of public employees supported by an organizational culture where the happiness and commitment of their human capital become indicators of good governance for their top management and policymakers (Weymes, 2005).

By way of conclusion, a constructive suggestion of this article is to encourage politicians to promote dynamic, ethical, happy, and transparent governance models within their remit by seeking a balance in inter-decision-making between the state, civil society, and the market. In this way, corporate governance styles can be designed that socialize risk, profit, and sustainability (Alam Chourdhury and Harahap, 2007). From this perspective, an architecture of governance models can be built to address the complex challenges society will face in the post-Covid-19 era; the challenges for firms will have a more significant human approach.

Practical implications

The results achieved in this article highlight the need to further explore the psychological factors that influence workers' happiness as well as the relation between other concepts such as competitiveness, productivity, and economic development. From this perspective, three practical implications derived from this research are set out. The first is citizens' essential global concern to improve their quality of life and happiness. Salaried employees are not exempt from this reality, hence the academic interest in continuing progress in studies focused on the quantitative analysis of the intangible resource of happiness within organizations, especially in public administration. A sector that demands a multifactorial and horizontal leadership style aspires to achieve citizens' collective well-being through social cohesion, equity, and the collective happiness of its human capital (Johannesson *et al.*, 2012).

In this sense, the second practical implication refers to reflecting on happiness's relevance in corporate governance and its role as an energy source not only to cushion stress, pressure, fear of failure, adversity, or negative feelings but also to boost productive performance, positive emotions, commitment, or affective relationships (Andersson-Arntén *et al.*, 2016).

Finally, this research suggests that senior organization managers should promote the philosophy of happiness management to help implement innovative human resources instruments—for example, the chief happiness officer or the certification happiness management (Foncubierta-Rodríguez and Sánchez-Montero, 2019). Together with multiple other factors, these two elements cultivate the virtuous circle of happiness within companies, which improves organizations' corporate image based on management policies that aim to provide a positive work atmosphere. In our view, this mirror should be held up to new models of corporate governance, especially in the post-Covid-19 era. Society requires public and private institutions to generate prosperity, a high quality of life, and collective well-being through efficiency, effectiveness, social responsibility, and citizen participation (Benuyenah and Pandya, 2020).

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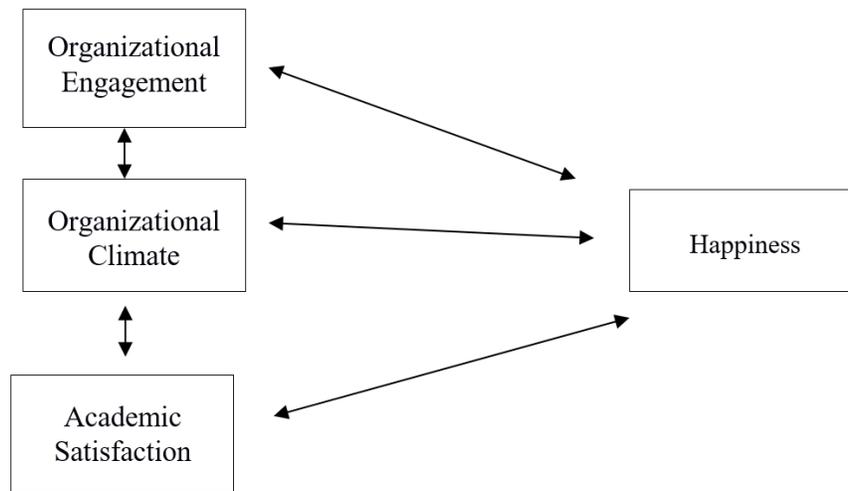
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Figure 1. Conceptual model of the relationship of the observed variables



Source: Own elaboration

Figure 1.

770x526mm (38 x 38 DPI)

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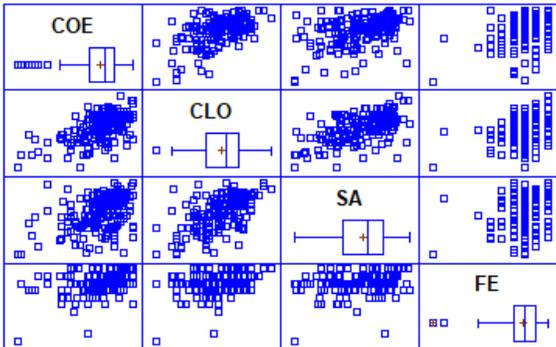
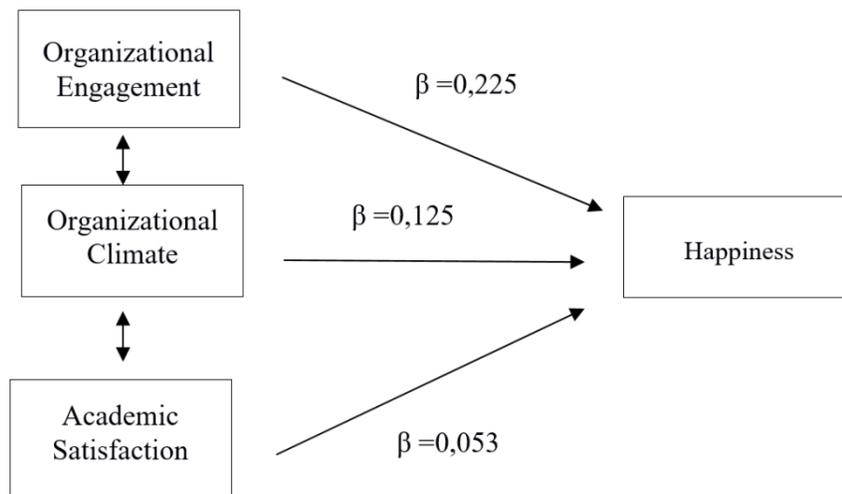


Figure 2.

285x178mm (57 x 57 DPI)

Figure 2. Graphical representation of the structural equation model



Source: Own elaboration

Figure 3

810x558mm (38 x 38 DPI)

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Table I. Population and sample size and sampling error by mode of access

	Free shift	Competitive examination	Selective seniority	Total
Population		90	174	397
Sample		52	105	190
Sampling error		8.9%	6.05%	4.96%

Source: Own elaboration

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Table II. Responses and non-responses by mode of access

	Free shift	Competitive examination	Selective seniority	Total
Response	33 (8.3%)	52 (13.1%)	105 (26.4%)	190 (47.9%)
No reply	100 (25.2%)	38 (9.6%)	69 (17.4%)	207 (52.1%)
Total	133 (33.5%)	90 (22.7%)	174 (43.8%)	397 (100%)

Source: Own elaboration.

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Table III. Goodness of fit

Fix index compared to the recommended value	Measurement of the indicator organizational climate
CFI>0.9	1
TLI>0.9	1
GFI>0.9	0.997
RMSEA<0.05	0.000
SRMR< 0.08	0.009
$\chi^2/df < 2$	0.536

P<, 05

Source: Own elaboration.



Table IV. Summary statistics for COE, CLO, and SA scales

Psychological Variables										
Constructs	n	Average	Est. dev.	C. Var	Min.	Max.	Bias	Kurtosis	Int. Conf. (95%)	
COE	185	48.16	11.55	24%	5.45	65.29	-7.11	5.58	46.49	49.84
CLO	185	16.21	5.39	33%	0.00	28.83	-2.98	0.14	15.43	17.00
SA	185	33.52	11.99	36%	2.70	54.86	-3.45	-0.93	31.78	35.26
Happiness	190	7.92	1.36	17.13%	0		-10.97	24.8	7.73	8.12

Source: Own elaboration.

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Table V. Spearman's correlation matrix

	1			
1.COE	-	0.5799*	0.4173*	0.3303*
2.CLO		-	0.5769*	0.2923*
3. SA			-	0.2285*
4. FE				-

*P < .05

Source: Own elaboration.

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Table VI. Pearson's correlation matrix

	1			
1. COE	-	0,5052*	0,3937*	0,2822*
2. CLO		-	0,5307*	0,2268*
3. SA			-	0,2034*
4. FE				-

*P<, 05

Source: Own elaboration.

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