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Research Articles

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Philanthropy Under Uncertainty: Muslim Religious Giving During the COVID-19 Pandemic

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New Voices

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601 S. College Rd.
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Statement of Purpose

The *Journal of Public and Nonprofit Affairs (JPNA)* focuses on providing a connection between the practice and research of public affairs. This is accomplished with scholarly research, practical applications of the research, and no fees for publishing or journal access. *JPNA* publishes research from diverse theoretical, methodological, and disciplinary backgrounds that address topics related to the affairs and management of public and nonprofit organizations.

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Editor's Introduction

Christopher R. Prentice – University of North Carolina Wilmington

Richard M. Clerkin – University of North Carolina Wilmington

This issue of *Journal of Public and Nonprofit Affairs* offers three research articles and two new voices articles that explore a range of relevant and timely topics. Those articles are introduced below, beginning with a systematic review of positive affect and joy in nonprofit sector leadership by McIntyre et al. (2024).

Organizational success is often dependent on effective leadership, particularly in the nonprofit sector, where positive leader affect and joy significantly influences followers. McIntyre et al. (2024) present the first systematic literature review of positive affect and joy in nonprofit sector leadership, examining how joy is presented as a discrete emotion, synthesizing its impact on employee outcomes, and assessing the quality and patterns of existing literature on joy and leadership. They conclude by identifying future opportunities for research in this field.

A central claim of public service motivation (PSM) is that it shapes individuals' willingness to join and continue working in the public sector, but there is limited research examining turnover behavior. Bednarczuk (2024) addresses this gap by utilizing data from the Youth-Parent Socialization Study to explore the connection between pre-employment PSM values and long-term turnover behavior in the public sector. His findings suggest that individuals with higher PSM-related values in childhood are more likely to stay employed in the public sector. He concludes by discussing the implications of the findings for public managers and highlighting opportunities for future research.

The scientific study of philanthropy plays a fundamental role in understanding who makes charitable contributions, why they give, and when they choose to contribute. To investigate demographic, religious, and psychological factors influencing charitable giving during times of uncertainty, Umarji et al. (2024) use structural equation modeling to analyze Muslim American philanthropy during Ramadan in 2020. They found that uncertainty intolerance was associated with financial anxiety, which in turn led to lower donations. Income, age, education, and age were positive predictors of charitable giving, with increased religious practice also associated with higher donations. Their findings reveal opportunities for interventions aimed at improving charitable decision-making during uncertain times.

Research published in non-English languages is often underrepresented, leading to the exclusion of findings from diverse contexts. Biao and Charbonneau (2024) conduct a systematic literature review to assess methods, theories, and practical recommendations present in French-language research on social equity. Results indicate that French-language social equity literature prioritizes practical recommendations, relies more on qualitative than

quantitative methods, and focuses on interorganizational, regional, intergenerational, and gender equity, with race and ethnicity receiving less attention. They conclude by offering recommendations for addressing cultural gaps caused by language barriers in the public administration literature.

Although previous research indicates a relationship between concurrent parental and childhood volunteering, there is little research that addresses the long-term effects of parental role-modeling of volunteer behaviors on their children. Kukla-Acevedo and Powell (2024) investigate the lasting impact of parental volunteer behavior on their children as they transition into adulthood by merging and analyzing data from multiple modules of the Panel Study of Income Dynamics. Results indicate an association between parental role-modeling of volunteer behaviors during adolescence and higher volunteer participation rates in young adulthood. Their findings emphasize the value of youth-focused and family-oriented volunteering programs in cultivating the next generation of volunteers.

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- Biaou, G., & Charbonneau, É. (2024). French-Language Public Administration Research on Social Equity: A Systematic Literature Review. *Journal of Public and Nonprofit Affairs*, 10(3), 379-407. <https://doi.org/10.20899/jpna.nsb51y51>

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A Scoping and Theoretical Review of Joy in Leadership in the Nonprofit Sector

Katie McIntyre - University of the Sunshine Coast

Rory Mulcahy - University of the Sunshine Coast

Wayne Graham - University of the Sunshine Coast

Meredith Lawley - University of the Sunshine Coast

Effective leadership plays a critical role in the success of organizations, particularly in the nonprofit sector, with positive leader affect, and more recently joy, being one aspect of leadership that significantly influences followers. Whilst some studies of positive affect and joy in leadership have been undertaken in the nonprofit sector, lack of clarity and coherence, as well as theoretical divergence has impeded research integration. This article presents the first systematic literature review of positive affect, and more specifically joy and leadership in the nonprofit sector and systematically identifies the extent to which joy has been considered as a discrete emotion in the current nonprofit leadership literature. In addition, this article synthesises the existing nonprofit leadership literature to determine what employee outcomes joy has been shown to influence. Finally, the quality of current literature and any patterns considering joy and leadership in the nonprofit leadership literature is assessed. Future research opportunities are identified.

Keywords: Leadership, Positive Affect, Nonprofit, Management, Joy

Leadership in the nonprofit sector can be challenging (Schubert & Willems, 2021) owing to the multifaceted demands placed on leaders and the organizations they serve. These demands of leaders in nonprofit organizations involve engaging diverse stakeholders, including donors, volunteers, employees, each with different roles, expectations, priorities, and interests (Mato-Santiso et al., 2021). Recent reports also highlight several challenges facing nonprofit leaders, notably an increase in volunteer and donor compassion fatigue (Cañas-Lerma et al., 2022; Gonzalez-Mendez & Díaz, 2021). Additionally, leaders are confronted with employee challenges, such as high turnover rates and mounting instances of burnout instances (Einolf, 2022; Lee, 2016). To tackle these challenges, nonprofit leaders can benefit from insights gleaned from the broader leadership and management literature. This literature emphasizes the pivotal role of emotions (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009; Silard, 2018; Ward & Greene, 2018) and underscores the importance of leaders strategically managing them to address pressing issues.

In the broader leadership and management literature, there is a growing demand for more nuanced explorations of emotions (Lindebaum & Jordan, 2012), especially focusing on positive ones. This shift aims to move away from valence-based approaches, where positively oriented emotions are often grouped together under terms like positive affect or positive emotions. This article suggests that grouping positive emotions together under a valence-based approach overlooks their specific qualities as suggested by Discrete Emotion Theory.

Simply focusing on “positive affect” without delving into individual emotions like joy in nonprofit and leadership literature may miss crucial nuances. For instance, advising a nonprofit leader to inject more “positivity” into their leadership without specifying emotions from Discrete Emotion Theory could leave them unsure about which emotion to express. Should they show joy or pride, for example? Research, like that of Williams et al. (2024), indicates that joy has a stronger link to job satisfaction compared to pride. Without clear guidance on discrete emotions, leaders might miss opportunities to foster positive team dynamics and collaboration by purposefully managing emotions.

The current research, utilizing a theoretical and scoping review approach, explores joy's portrayal and empirical investigation in nonprofit leadership literature. Despite the prevalent use of valence approaches to emotions in the literature, this review enables through its theoretical and scoping approach an examination of joy's explicit or implicit consideration, even if it is concealed by the inclusion of other positive emotions in valenced studies. This research suggests that considering joy, characterized by contentment, fulfillment, and an uplifted mood (Johnson, 2020; Underwood, 2020), could benefit nonprofit leaders, as it has been associated with enhanced engagement, job satisfaction, and productivity (Balik, 2018; Choudhary et al., 2017; Harolds, 2020; Hartmann et al., 2021; Liu, 2019; Liu et al., 2017). However, due to the unclear extent of joy's consideration in nonprofit leadership studies and its potential masking via valenced approaches, drawing conclusions about the outcomes it may be associated with is challenging. Thus, the first two aims emerge for the current research: first, to theoretically scope and identify the extent to which joy has been considered in current nonprofit leadership literature, and second, to synthesize existing literature to determine the outcomes associated with joy. Addressing this fragmentation and clarifying joy's consideration is crucial, as fragmentation can lead to a loss of coherence, hinder knowledge progression, and pose challenges in establishing conceptualization and measurement standards within the field of nonprofit leadership and the study of joy.

To further advance research and practice in nonprofit leadership and the future consideration of joy it is also important to consider evaluating the quality of the literature and identifying consistencies and patterns across the current evidence base as undertaken by other reviews of leadership (e.g., Collins et al. 2022). When evaluating the quality of the literature, it becomes crucial for systematic reviews to assess the methodological rigor and robustness of the studies (Collins et al., 2022; Riedel et al., 2021; Whittaker et al., 2023). This will also be applied to the current investigation of joy as a discrete emotion in nonprofit leadership. This involves critically analysing the research designs, sampling methods, data collection procedures, and statistical analyses employed in the studies. By assessing the quality of the literature, researchers can gain confidence in the reliability and validity of the findings or potential opportunities for future research. Thus, the third and final aim of the current research is to assess the quality of the current literature and current patterns regarding the research designs and approaches used considering joy in the nonprofit leadership literature.

The remainder of this article will be structured as follows. First, justification for a discrete emotion approach for nonprofit leadership particularly focusing on the emotion of joy is provided. This is followed by a review of current reviews in the nonprofit and leadership literature considering emotions. Next, the method of the systematic review is presented, followed by the results. A discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the systematic review findings is then presented. After this, opportunities for future research of joy in nonprofit leadership are outlined.

Conceptual and Theoretical Background

Before delving into the method and results of the current systematic review this paper follows the precedent set by other reviews across a variety of management fields including leadership (Florence et al., 2022; Parris & Peachy, 2013; Whittaker et al., 2023) by presenting, defining,

and elucidating the key constructs and theoretical framework that underpin the current work. Additionally, it outlines the scope of related reviews conducted in this domain, their limitations, and underscores the novelty of the current review along with its potential to advance knowledge as suggested by Paul et al. (2021).

Leadership in Nonprofits

Leadership is defined in the current study as the ability to guide, inspire, and influence individuals or groups within an organization plays a critical role in achieving organizational objectives and the long-term success of contemporary organizations (Chi et al., 2011; Johansen & Sowa, 2019; Seong & Choi, 2014). This is particularly relevant for current nonprofit organizations as they seek to meet their humane mission and social purpose, while responding to increasing economic, social, political, and technological demands (Hodges & Howieson, 2017; Kukreja, 2019). Nonprofit leaders who operate effectively demonstrate behaviors and characteristics that support the development of situations conducive to achieving organizational goals (Madanchian, 2017; Shier & Handy, 2020). Nonprofit organizations that are subject to ineffective or unethical leadership, however, often experience poor results and reduced long-term viability (Erickson et al., 2007; Schilling & Schyns, 2014).

In relation to effective leadership, considerable attention is given in the academic literature to the concept of mood contagion (the transfer of emotion from one person to another through their observed behavior) and emotional leadership (the emotions demonstrated by the leader in influencing and leading followers) (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002), highlighting the influence of a leader's positive affect on employee and organizational outcomes (Ouakouak et al., 2020). Established literature identifies that effective leaders who demonstrate a positive affect are associated with higher levels of employee engagement (Gutermann et al., 2017; Johansen & Sowa, 2019; Johnson, 2009), enhanced desired employee behavior (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020) and improved overall employee performance (Chi et al., 2011; Kammerhoff et al., 2019; Seong & Choi, 2014).

More specifically, related to positive affect, concepts of joy in leadership have recently begun appearing in the academic literature. For example, Bernard (2019), highlights the role of a leader's positive affect in a nursing environment when aiming to enhance employee motivation and engagement (Bernard, 2019; Chunta, 2020). This is in addition to efforts aimed at improved patient care (Manion, 2003; Morath et al., 2014). Within the literature, joy can be seen as a discrete emotion (Harmon-Jones et al., 2017) separate from other emotions such as love and happiness (Emmons, 2020) characterized by positive affect, playfulness, gratitude and adherence to a promotion of the 'greater good' (Emmons, 2020; Harmon-Jones et al., 2017; Johnson, 2020).

Outside the nonprofit literature, there is support for considering joy as a discrete emotion within the workplace and as something that can be managed by leaders. For example, in healthcare organizations, joy has been found to be associated with better patient care, higher productivity, profitability, and enhanced engagement (Harolds, 2020). Joy is also linked to improved connections and novel approaches to work that enhance worker engagement and productivity, as well as improving customer experiences and financial performance (Balik, 2018; Hartmann et al., 2021; Liu, 2019).

Complex issues around retention and engagement of staff are particularly relevant in the nonprofit sector, a sector distinct from both the government and the for-profit sector (Phipps & Burbach, 2010). Effective nonprofit leaders characteristically manage and engage with a much higher number of voluntary workers, prioritising fundraising opportunities due to a reliance on external funding sources. Further, nonprofit leaders exercise stewardship and manage resources to provide for the needs of vulnerable social groups (Megheirkouni, 2017; Shier & Handy, 2020). Nonprofit organizations generally have lower financial incentives for employees in contrast to for-profit organizations, limiting promotional opportunities for

employees (Ouakouak et al., 2020). Research has shown that effective nonprofit leaders who navigate these unique challenges have a significant impact on outcomes for the organization and on the well-being and engagement of staff (Erickson et al., 2007; Chi et al., 2011).

One of the additional complexities faced by nonprofit leaders is due to the unique nature of the employee, volunteer and leader relationship that is present in the nonprofit sector. A stakeholder perspective offers some insight into the unique nature of these relationships in nonprofit organizations (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2022). Stakeholder perspective suggests that beyond the mere economic transaction, there is a moral nature to the business relationship and the role relationships play in value creation for the organization (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2022). In the nonprofit sector, stakeholder relationships extend beyond the more atypical leader, employee, consumer profile, to include additional stakeholder groups such as volunteers and donors. What is evident is that these diverse stakeholder groups play a considerable role in the nonprofit sector to the point where they are intrinsic to the function of that sector and are a key consideration for leadership and the management of emotions. What this offers in terms of the systematic review is an opportunity to consider stakeholder themes that may be observed in the literature and to identify gaps where unique stakeholder perspectives remain to be considered. Stakeholder perspectives also lends credence to the unique nature of nonprofits and the inherent challenges presented for leadership due to this unique relationship structure.

Discrete Emotions Theory, Joy and Nonprofit leadership

Emotions play a vital role in the realm of nonprofit leadership, shaping interactions, and decisions, as well as the behaviors of donors, volunteers and employees (Paxton et al., 2020; Silard, 2018; Ward & Greene, 2018; Zhang et al., 2022). Emotions can be defined as the psychological phenomenon that are created as an affective response to some form of stimuli, such as the environment, a specific event or neural process (Izard, 2010). Discrete emotion theory principles assert that emotions are distinct, specific, and recognizable states (Izard, 2010; Russell, 2003). Moreover, each emotion comprises unique physiological, cognitive, and behavioral components (Christie, 2004; Harmon-Jones, 2019). It is due to these theoretical principles of discrete emotion theory that a valenced approach, such as categorizing emotions as either "positive" or "negative," is avoided, recognizing the complexity and diversity of emotional experiences.

The current research focuses on the discrete emotion of Joy, defined in the current study as a state of positive affect which includes a profound and intense feeling of happiness and delight that arises from within based on an individual's response to external or internal stimuli (Johnson, 2020). It is an emotion that has captivated psychologists and philosophers for centuries, recognized as a fundamental emotion with a profound influence on human behavior. Joy is relevant for several reasons in relation to its implementation and integration into nonprofit leadership. First, emotional contagion can be a major benefit for nonprofit leaders in expressing or demonstrating joy. Joy is known to be highly contagious in comparison to other emotions (Petitta, et al., 2017; Petitta, et al., 2021). For example, Petitta et al. (2017) identified that doctors and nurses can absorb and feel joy when it is displayed by leaders in their workplace. Thus, on the basis of these findings, when leaders radiate joy, their positive energy could resonate with their followers and uplift their mood but also potentially other desirable outcomes. This potential is evidenced by prior work on joy which has shown it to predict higher levels of satisfaction, higher employee engagement and higher workplace productivity (Balik, 2018; Hartmann et al., 2021; Liu, 2019). Specifically, the work of Hartmann et al. (2021) evidenced how an emotional culture of joy can build team resilience via generating greater levels of mutuality and reflexivity.

Secondly, joy enhances feelings of connection and relatability (Liu, 2019; Manion, 2003). Leaders who openly express joy could strengthen trust and rapport with followers, critical

factors for team success (Van Cappellen, 2020). Joy is an ideal emotion to consider in the study of leadership as it enhances the development of meaningful connections with the world and others (Liu, 2019; Manion, 2003; Van Cappellen, 2020). Joy is also reported in the literature to be mostly experienced in the presence of others (Arnett, 2022) and is related to a sense of belonging and a shared experience of joy (Cottrell, 2016; Robbins, 2006).

Thirdly, joy has been shown to increase cognitive functioning and curiosity, potentially enabling leaders in nonprofits to enhance their followers' knowledge, creativity and innovation (Petitta et al., 2021), qualities which nonprofits aspire to foster to aid value creation (Huang & Hui-Kuang, 2011). In support of this, Tornare et al. (2017) highlights the positive impact of joy on educational performance among students. Their research demonstrated that feelings of joy by a student can significantly improve academic outcomes and overall educational experience. In a separate study Jiang et al. (2019) discovered that entrepreneurs who express joy during pitches are more likely to succeed.

Whilst these findings and discussion highlight the importance of joy as a discrete emotion and its impact in a variety of fields, its specific consideration within nonprofit leadership, remains unclear. This aspect warrants exploration, as disregarding a discrete emotion perspective to joy may oversimplify the intricacies of this emotion and overlook potential insights crucial for effective nonprofit leadership. Hence, the current research aims to provide an overview and synthesis of existing nonprofit leadership literature, with a specific focus on joy, to offer valuable insights.

Prior Systematic reviews of Related Areas and the Current Review

As suggested by Paul et al. (2021) and colleagues, it is imperative to acknowledge and critically evaluate prior systematic reviews in related areas to contextualize the systematic review being undertaken. In the realm of emotions and/or leadership, examples of reviews include Clarkson et al.'s (2020) examination of emotional contagion in leadership, Gomez-Leal et al.'s (2022) exploration of emotional intelligence in school leaders (principals), Huxtable-Thomas et al.'s (2016) investigation into discrete emotions in entrepreneurial leadership, and Gu et al.'s (2023) analysis of appreciative joy. While other systematic literature reviews have delved into leadership within the nonprofit sector (Gazley, 2021; Stock & Erpf, 2022), none have specifically addressed the concepts of positive affect, particularly joy, within nonprofit leadership, aligning with the focus of the current review.

The literature offers various rationales for conducting systematic reviews (see Paul et al., 2021). This study aligns with a conceptual review (Paul et al., 2021) and a scoping approach (Mun et al., 2018) as it aims to introduce a new perspective on leadership through the discrete emotion of joy, providing fresh insights for future research in nonprofit scholarship. Accordingly, this research will not exclusively focus on "joyful leadership" but will instead evaluate the incorporation of joy into leadership research within the nonprofit literature. This approach is in line with the principles of a scoping review outlined by Mun et al. (2018), which suggest that research may prioritize identifying specific characteristics or concepts in papers or studies. This aligns with the current research's objective to assess the extent to which the concept of joy has been considered in papers or studies within nonprofit leadership research. Therefore, the conceptual and theoretical examination of the literature will establish the groundwork for proposing a conceptual framework for the discrete consideration of joy in future nonprofit leadership scholarship and practice.

Methodology

The current study undertakes a systematic literature review, which allows for a replicable review process, designed to consider the full extent of the academic literature, whilst minimising bias through a clearly documented and auditable process (Moher et al., 2009).

The current systematic review utilizes the PRISMA protocol – Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses (Moher et al., 2009) – which is a widely recognised process of systematic literature reviews (Brennan & Munn, 2021). It also draws on recent exemplar systematic literature reviews related to the nonprofit sector, emerging in the academic literature to enhance a consistency of approach and maximise academic rigour (Maier et al., 2016; van Teunenbroek et al., 2020). The current systematic literature review was conducted over three distinct phases, scoping review, database selection and PRISMA protocol, and data extraction.

Scoping review (phase one).

During phase one, initial scoping was undertaken to determine the size and scope of the literature available and identify key search terms, and inclusion and exclusion criteria (Tranfield et al., 2003). Google Scholar was utilized for the initial scoping activities which produced approximately 33,800 results including articles, books and conceptual papers, the initial key words are summarised in table 1. It is worth noting that “AND” and “OR” are Boolean operators commonly used in constructing search strings. Specifically, “OR” is utilized to identify articles that contain either of the terms provided (e.g., “joy OR joyful”). On the other hand, “AND” is employed to connect the search strings, ensuring that terms like “joy” and related terms, “leadership” and related terms, and “nonprofit” and related terms are present in the retrieved articles. This approach guarantees that each article encompasses representation from at least one term within each search string, as outlined in table 1, and that only one search was required to be conducted with the terms used.

Table 1. Key Words and Associated Key Words Identified Through the Scoping Process

Systematic Review Key Search Terms	Search string 1	Search string 2	Search string 3
	“joyful”	(AND)	(AND)
	(OR)	“leadership”	Not-for-profit
	“Positive Affect”	(OR)	(OR)
	(OR)	“Leader”	Nonprofit
	“Joy”	(OR)	(OR)
	(OR)	“Management”	Non-profit organization
	“Positive Emotion”	(OR)	
	(OR)	“Manager”	
	“Positive Mood”	(OR)	
		“Managing”	
		(OR)	
		“Leading”	

Ten articles considered most relevant to the topic under review were identified and additional relevant key words were added to the search string (see table 2), extending the scope to leadership and management in addition to expanding joyful leadership and positive affect to include both positive mood and positive emotion which was used extensively in the literature (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020; Johnson, 2009; Silard, 2018).

Database selection and PRISMA protocol (phase 2).

During the second phase, five databases most relevant to the research question were selected, namely, Proquest Business, EBSCOhost, Scopus, Emerald, and Sage Publications. These five

databases were identified during the scoping process as those most consistently containing articles relevant to the initial search terms. These databases are also consistent with those commonly employed by systematic reviews in the nonprofit and leadership areas (Maier et al., 2016; Lacerda et al., 2020; Ortega-Rodríguez et al., 2023). An initial search of the key search terms produced a total result of 59,869 items (see table 3) prior to a set of selection criteria being applied to limit the scope to the most relevant journal articles. Five key selection criteria were utilized in the selection of relevant items.

Table 2. Scoping articles for identifying search terms (in chronological order)

- Johnson, S. K. (2009). Do you feel what I feel? Mood contagion and leadership outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(5), 814-827.
- Chi, N. W., Chung, Y. Y., & Tsai, W. C. (2011). How do happy leaders enhance team success? The mediating roles of transformational leadership, group affective tone, and team processes 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 41(6), 1421-1454.
- Seong, J. Y., & Choi, J. N. (2014). Effects of group-level fit on group conflict and performance: The initiating role of leader positive affect. *Group & Organization Management*, 39(2), 190-212.
- Allen, S., Winston, B. E., Tatone, G. R., & Crowson, H. M. (2018). Exploring a model of servant leadership, empowerment, and commitment in nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 29(1), 123-140.
- Silard, A. (2018). Emotions for a cause: How the emotion expression of nonprofit leaders produces follower engagement and loyalty. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 47(2), 304-324.
- Johansen, M. S., & Sowa, J. E. (2019). Human resource management, employee engagement, and nonprofit hospital performance. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 29(4), 549-567.
- Kammerhoff, J., Lauenstein, O., & Schütz, A. (2019). Tuning into performance and satisfaction in nonprofit orchestras: One link between transformational leadership and satisfaction is through reduction in conflict. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 30(2), 321-338.
- Aboramadan, M., & Dahleez, K. A. (2020). Leadership styles and employees' work outcomes in nonprofit organizations: the role of work engagement. *Journal of Management Development*.
- Peng, S., Liao, Y., & Sun, R. (2020). The influence of transformational leadership on employees' affective organizational commitment in public and nonprofit organizations: A moderated mediation model. *Public Personnel Management*, 49(1), 29-56.
- Shier, M. L., & Handy, F. (2020). Leadership in nonprofits: social innovations and blurring boundaries. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 31(2), 333-344.
-

First, each article was required to contain the three key words or associated key words identified from the scoping review. They are Positive Affect, Joy, Positive Emotion, Positive Mood, Leader, Management, Manager, Managing, Leading, Not-for-profit, Nonprofit, Non-

profit organization to ensure the relevance to all three concepts and to eliminate articles related to the for-profit or government sector.

We include terms such as positive emotion, positive mood, and positive affect, alongside joy and joyful, in our study to thoroughly explore joy. This is crucial because joy may be concealed within valence-based studies, where it is measured or considered but overshadowed by aggregation with other positive emotions. Thus, to comprehensively assess the extent to which joy has been addressed in nonprofit leadership literature, we incorporated search terms like positive affect, positive emotion, and positive mood. These terms enable us to identify instances where joy has been examined in these studies. For instance, studies that may consider “positive emotion” could encompass joy as part of their measurement, and excluding such a search term would result in overlooking a comprehensive analysis of joy’s consideration.

The terms nonprofit, not-for-profit, and non-profit organization were also deemed appropriate for the following reasons. These terms were identified within the scoping review to be consistently but interchangeably used to identify the sector under study. Therefore, all variations were included within the search terms. Moreover, the inclusion of these terms aligns with the review conducted by Gazley and Guo (2020) and offers a broader scope compared to other reviews that solely utilize the term nonprofit in their searches (Lacera et al., 2020; Richardson et al., 2023). A total of 59,869 items were identified using the identified search string across all five databases.

Second, only scholarly, peer reviewed articles, as determined by the relevant databases, were included in the scope of the study to ensure the academic rigour, quality and integrity of the review. There were 53,700 items excluded during this stage as they were not peer reviewed articles published in a scholarly journal with relevance to the topic under study. Next, the third criteria excluded articles that were not presented in the English language. One hundred and one articles were excluded implementing this criterion. Fourth, the identified database searches were conducted in September 2023 and within a date range of 2011 to 2023. Consistent with other systematic reviews in leadership (Harris et al., 2021) and nonprofit domains (Baluch & Hans-Gerd Ridder, 2021) a range was used to ensure more contemporary literature on joy and leadership in the nonprofit sector were retained. With this this criterion applied a further 1,743 articles were removed.

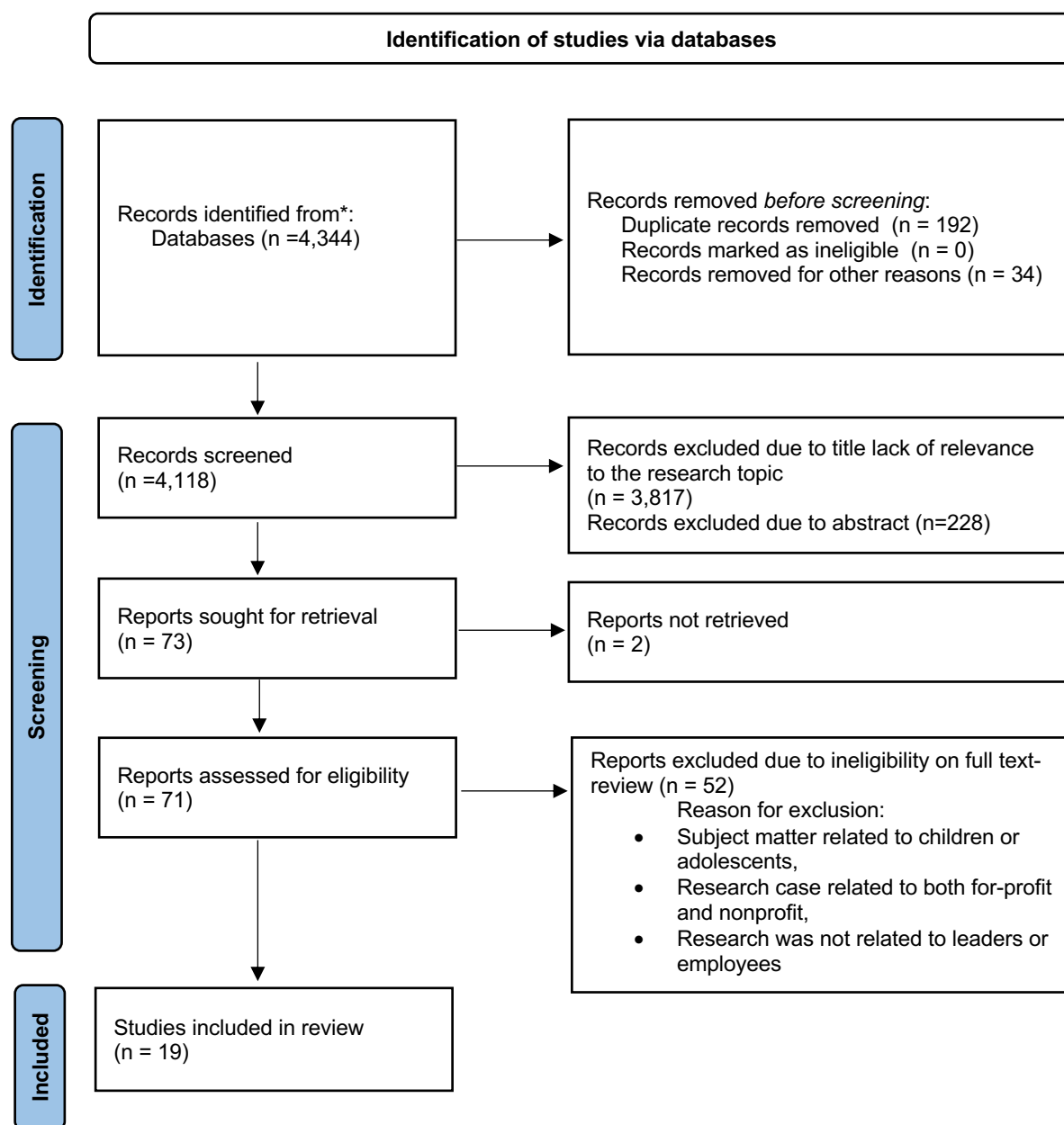
Fifth, articles that were not solely focused on nonprofit organizations – for example, some studies considered both for-profit and nonprofit organizations (n=31) – were excluded to ensure replicability and to acknowledge the unique complexity of leadership in the nonprofit sector (Megheirkouni, 2017; Shier & Handy, 2020).

Table 3. Database Search Results with Selection Criteria Applied

	Proquest Business	EBSCO host	Scopus	Emerald	Sage Public- ations	Total
Key Word Search	56 430	322	20	1195	1902	59 869
Exclusion of non-Peer Reviewed Articles	3 795	87	17	826	1444	6 169
English Language Only	3 759	41	16	826	1444	6 068
Date range 2011 – September 2023	2 569	41	14	739	981	4 344

During phase two, the PRISMA protocol (Brennan & Munn, 2021; Moher et. al., 2009) was utilized (see Figure 1) to identify relevant articles. From the 4,344 articles remaining after the selection criteria were applied a further 192 duplicate records were removed. A further 34 items were removed for other reasons, with the most prevalent reasons being that the article, whilst unrelated to the research topic, had been included in the search as the author's name included the name Joy, the full article was not available or the full article was only available in a language other than English. A total of 4,118 records underwent screening based on their titles or both titles and abstracts. Among these, 73 articles were identified for retrieval due to their relevance to the research topic. Examples of papers that were screened out included those lacking a clear focus on nonprofits, leadership, or any mention of positive affect or joy in their titles and abstracts.

Figure 1. PRISMA Protocol Applied to Systematic Literature Review from Consolidated Articles from Identified Databases.



Note: Adapted from (Moher et al., 2009)

Two articles were unable to be extracted during retrieval, resulting in a total of 71 articles retrieved. Of the 71 articles retrieved, 19 were included in the review with the remaining 52 being excluded. There were four primary reasons for exclusion including that the research participants identified were children or adolescents and not leaders or employees and the fact that upon full analysis of the research, the study related to a combination of for-profit or government organizations and not exclusively to nonprofit organizations. The full list of articles included in the review is outlined in table 4 in the Results section.

Data extraction (phase three).

During phase three, data was extracted from the 19 articles included in the review. Each paper was examined extensively to identify key concepts, selected theory and methodology, along with the location of the study and the research participants. Each article was also assessed in terms of quality across five dimensions. Whilst quality of papers can be difficult to determine (Kmet et al., 2004), the five-dimensional quality assessment tool initially developed and used by Connolly et al. (2012) and subsequently used in later systematic review (see Johnson et al. (2017) for example) provided a basis for researcher decision making. Each paper included in the review underwent assessment by one of the researchers serving as the lead coder, with a second team member acting as a reliability coder for comparison and ensuring accuracy. These assessments were conducted independently to evaluate quality, considering the appropriateness of the research design, methods for data collection and analysis, generalizability of findings to the target population, relevance to the study research question, and the extent to which the findings can be trusted to address the specified research question.

Each dimension was rated on a three-point scale according to the protocol developed by Connolly et al. (2012), with a rating of 3 indicating high quality for each criterion, 2 denoting medium quality, and 1 representing low quality for the specified criterion. The final quality score ranged between 5 and 15. To ensure assessment accuracy and consistent with the procedures of other systematic reviews (Johnson et al., 2017; Riedel et al., 2022), an inter-rater reliability score was calculated for each criterion, with Cohen's kappa scores of $\geq .70$, indicating high satisfactory levels of reliability between the coders. The results of the systematic review are presented next.

Results

Description of the Studies

Articles included in the review were published in 11 out of 13 years over the 13-year period with the exception of 2012 and 2019 demonstrating no clear pattern of growth or decline that is currently discernible. With the exception of 2019, there was an observable slight increase in the number of publications over the course of the initial ten years with 2018 (n=4) and 2020 (n=3) showing the highest number in one year, however one article per year was recorded in the most recent three years.

Citations were variable over the range of articles with the highest being 355 citations (Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011) and the lowest being zero citations, which could be attributed to the recency of the studies and their publication (Borde et al., 2023; Dada et al., 2020).

When considering the research designs of the studies, quantitative research methods were the primary method employed (n=12), followed by qualitative research methods (n=4), mixed methods (n=1), and conceptual (n=2). Research participants identified in the 19 articles were employees or leaders in nonprofit organizations with notable limited studies (n=3) considering donors or volunteers.

Quality assessment of studies

One of the aims of the current research is to assess the quality of the current literature and current patterns regarding the research designs and approaches used considering joy in the nonprofit leadership literature. In relation to quality assessment, the quality of the papers ranged from 6 to 12 with a mean rating of 8.05 for the 19 studies assessed, suggesting the current body of literature as a whole is of moderate quality. Upon deeper inspection of the studies and their ratings, 15 of the articles were assessed to be of higher quality (quality score of 9 or above) (see table 4). Articles with a score of less than 9 were seen as being lower quality in relation to the quality analysis.

Table 4. *Quality Assessment of Articles included in the Review in Order of Overall Quality Rating*

Paper	Research Design	Data	Generalisability	Relevance	Trustworthiness	Total
Chauhan et al., (2021)	2	2	3	3	2	12
Kolodinsky et al., (2018)	3	3	3	2	2	12
Reinhardt & Enke, (2020)	2	2	3	2	2	12
Widianto & Wilderom, (2022)	2	2	3	3	2	12
Dada et al., (2020)	2	3	1	3	2	11
Silard (2018)	2	2	2	3	2	11
Borde et al., (2023)	2	3	2	2	2	10
Aboramadan & Dahleez, (2020)	2	2	1	2	2	9
Ben Hador (2016)	2	1	2	2	2	9
Chen & Nakazawa, (2017)	2	1	2	2	2	9
do Nascimento et al., (2018)	2	1	2	1	2	9
Hess & Bacigalupo (2013)	2	1	2	2	2	9
Wells & Welty Peachey (2011)	2	2	2	1	2	9
Mannarini et al., (2018)	2	1	2	2	2	9
Puls et al., (2014)	2	2	1	2	2	9
Bassous (2015)	2	1	1	2	1	7
Li, Tsai & Lin (2014)	1	1	1	1	2	7
Renard & Snelgar (2016)	1	1	1	2	1	6
Thomas & Pingle (2017)	1	1	1	2	1	6

Use of Theory

Next, the use of theory within the studies included in the systematic review were considered. The results demonstrates that there was a diversity of theories used within the studies, suggesting a current lack of theoretical parsimony related to the research topic (Barkhi & Sheetz, 2001). The following theories were identified, Social Exchange Theory (n=1), motivational theories (n=2), Dynamic Capability Theory (n=1), Self Determination Theory (n=1), Emotion Theory (n=1) and Theory of Planned Behavior (n=1).

Discrete or valence approach to joy (Aim 1)

In relation to the first aim which involved identifying the extent to which joy has been considered as a discrete emotion or as part of positive affect in the current nonprofit leadership literature the following was found. Positive affect was presented in the literature as a generalised concept which was not nuanced to the more specific discrete emotion of joy (n=17). Positive affect, positive emotion and positive mood were used interchangeably (do Nascimento et al., 2018; Renard & Snelgar, 2016; Silard, 2018) with more discrete emotion terms being referred to in the literature rarely (n=2) such as happy and joy (Renard & Snelgar, 2016; Reinhardt & Enke, 2020). Positive emotions, categorised in the literature as positive affect or emotional intelligence, presented themselves in the literature as a suite of emotions including joy, happiness, optimism, courage and trust (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013; Puls et al., 2014) with no nuance presented in the literature to delineate these key concepts (Chauhan et al., 2023; Chen & Nakazawa, 2017; Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013). Recognition however was made in one study of both the outward manifestation of an emotion and its psychological state (Puls et al., 2014) and a further study mapped eight emotions in participant responses utilizing sentiment analysis as an opportunity to provide a more nuanced approach to the understanding of specific emotions (Chen & Nakazawa, 2017). One study examined both positive and negative affect as a generalised concept (Chauhan et al., 2023).

Most articles maintained a valence-based interpretation of participant emotion (n=17); positive affect was seen in the literature as having both an interpersonal and intrapersonal dimension (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013) with leaders being recognised as playing a role in the behavior and emotional response of followers and the development of follower positive affect (do Nascimento et al., 2018; Ben Hador, 2016; Borde et al., 2023; Li et al., 2014). This recognition of the influence of positive affect was also identified as having a positive impact on the performance, engagement, citizenship behavior and proactive behaviors of followers (Li et al., 2014; Renard & Snelgar, 2016; Silard, 2018; Widiyanto & Wilderom, 2022). A correlation was also identified between negative affect and lowered loyalty and engagement of followers (Silard, 2018).

Positive affect within the valence-based interpretation was also associated with concepts of leadership such as authentic, transformational, charismatic or servant leadership, which presented itself as another key theme in the literature. In 10 out of the 19 studies identified in the systematic literature review, positive affect was associated with the leadership style of the leader in the nonprofit organization (Bassous, 2015; Kolodinsky et al., 2018; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011) with transformational leadership featuring most prominently (Bassous, 2015; Chauhan et al., 2023; Kolodinsky et al., 2018; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011). Transformational leadership was categorised as being the process of raising followers to higher levels of motivation, through charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Kolodinsky et al., 2018). Leaders of nonprofit organizations who demonstrated a transformational style were seen to have a positive impact on the satisfaction, affect, motivation, engagement and performance of followers (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020; Bassous, 2015; do Nascimento et al., 2018; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011).

Similarly, charismatic, authentic, paternalistic leadership and servant leadership styles were also associated with joy in the identified research articles (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020; Borde et al., 2023; Kolodinsky et al., 2018; Puls et al., 2014). In the literature, an authentic leadership style was associated with joy as well as other emotions through genuine warmth and interpersonal and intrapersonal elements, demonstrating emotional intelligence, engendering trust and confidence in followers (Puls et al., 2014). Charismatic leadership was associated with both engagement and citizenship behaviors of followers (Kolodinsky et al., 2018) and servant leadership was seen to utilize both personal and behavioral traits associated with emotional intelligence (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020; Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013).

Joy and Outcomes (Aim 2)

When joy has been considered in relation to the outcomes for stakeholders, evidence was shown that it is associated with both employee engagement and performance. Additional aspects of leadership which included joy were also considered, alongside being influential in the performance of nonprofit organizations and in the engagement and performance of followers, including the individual characteristics of the leader such as charisma, paternalism, individualised consideration, interpersonal and management skills (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020; Borde et al., 2023; Puls et al., 2014). An individual leader's experience, strengths and weaknesses were also considered as important attributes in the literature (Reinhardt & Enke, 2020).

In addition to the individual characteristics of the leader, job related characteristics were determined in the literature to exist alongside joy as influencing employee outcomes, including job autonomy, task significance (Kolodinsky et al., 2018; Puls et al., 2014) and interpersonal characteristics such as team performance and a harmonious organizational atmosphere (Kolodinsky et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014). A supportive organizational environment was also associated in the literature with employee engagement and performance (Kolodinsky et al., 2018; Mannarini et al., 2018), as was a sense of organizational purpose particular to nonprofit organizations (Kolodinsky et al., 2018; Mannarini et al., 2018; Silard, 2018).

Nonprofit stakeholder considerations

What is also apparent throughout the literature is the varying degrees of examination of the stakeholder perspective (figure 4). In one case, the research considered a broad multiple stakeholder perspective including leaders, volunteers, board members and employees (Chen & Nakazawa, 2017). In a small number of the papers more than one stakeholder was considered in relation to emotion and leadership (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013; Puls et al., 2014; Silard, 2018; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011; Widiyanto & Wilderom, 2021), however the majority explored a single stakeholder perspective, employee, leader or volunteer (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020; Bassous, 2015; Dada et al., 2020; do Nascimento et al., 2018). For nonprofit organizations, this of particular relevance due to the multiple stakeholders that are essential to the success of the sector.

Figure 4. Stakeholders Considered Through the Systematic Review



Discussion

Guided by a Discrete Emotion Theory perspective, this study undertook a systematic review to uncover the extent to which joy and leadership in the nonprofit leadership literature had been considered and researched. As demonstrated in the results, there is currently an overreliance on a valenced approach to emotions (Ben Hador, 2016; Chauhan et al., 2023; do Nascimento et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014). Recall that a valenced approach is characterised by the description of the emotion as either positive or negative, and not as a discrete emotion such as is the case with joy or pride (Harmon-Jones; 2019), which was captured by the search terms of positive emotions, positive affect and positive mood. In a valenced approach, joy is often coupled with other positive emotions, which is counter to the perspectives and tenants of discrete emotion theory. Thus, whilst joy has been treated as a distinct discrete emotion in other bodies of literature (Manion, 2003; Morath et al., 2014), this has yet to be widely adopted in the nonprofit leadership literature. By embracing discrete emotion approaches in nonprofit leadership research, nonprofit scholarship can unlock a realm of untapped potential in emotions such as joy. Incorporating the concept of joy as a distinct and discrete emotion within nonprofit leadership could provide invaluable insights and a more nuanced understanding of the complex dynamics, opportunities and problems faced by nonprofit organizations and their leaders. Such an approach has the potential to revolutionise the field, paving the way for more effective strategies, improved leadership practices, and ultimately, greater societal impact.

Another important insight from the review is the lack of theoretical consistency that exists within the body of literature. The papers presented in the systematic literature review drew on a range of theories including motivational theories (Bassous, 2015; do Nascimento et al., 2018), theory of planned behavior (Reinhardt & Enke, 2020; Renard & Snelgar, 2016), social exchange theory (Li et al., 2014) and exit voice theory (Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011). Only six of the papers drew specifically on theories or frameworks of emotion including emotional intelligence (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013; Puls et al., 2014), affective commitment (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020); Emotion Theory (Borde et al., 2023) and more generalised conceptualisations of emotion including multiple layers of emotion (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020) and emotion related behaviors (Silard, 2018). This lack of theoretical parsimony presents an exciting opportunity to establish a foundation of theoretical consistency in the realm of leadership and joy (emotion) within the nonprofit sector of which the current study provides some theories for consideration of future scholarship.

First, consistent with the overarching premise of this study, future nonprofit leadership research should consider embracing and utilizing Discrete Emotion Theory. Presenting a more nuanced approach to emotion potentially allows for more effective measurement of emotion and leadership in the nonprofit sector as well as a more nuanced understanding for scholars and practitioners. Very broadly, Discrete Emotion Theory posits that a number of discrete human emotions can be identified and defined according to a set of behavioral and nonverbal features, autonomic patterns and language (Russell, 2003). Whilst considered here specifically in the context of joy and positive affect, Discrete Emotion Theory has been used to identify a range of discrete and specific emotions such as worry (Eckland et al., 2021) and anger (McKasy, 2020). Extending on these studies lends itself to the possibility of further research in the nonprofit context of specific and discrete emotions relation to leadership.

While theoretically underpinned and justified, the current reviews primarily focused on joy in nonprofit leadership, possesses limitations that offer opportunities for future reviews and empirical investigations. Nonprofit and leadership scholarship would gain from adopting a discrete emotion theory perspective, which encompasses negative affect (emotions) – a dimension overlooked in the current review. Often referred to as the "dark side" of leadership (Mackey et al., 2021), exploring and elucidating how discrete negative emotions such as anger and guilt manifest in nonprofit leadership could yield valuable insights into how their utilization may yield less favorable outcomes.

Secondly, in the realm of nonprofit leadership research, it is worth considering the application of Affect as Information Theory (Storbeck & Clore, 2008) and examining specific emotions like joy. This approach would shed light on how emotions influence the processing and utilization of relevant information, as well as how they signify the value and significance of the information, subsequently impacting judgment, decision-making, and behaviors (Storbeck & Clore, 2008). Previous studies within the nonprofit literature have already demonstrated the utility of Affect as Information Theory (Shlefer & Kogut, 2021), and delving into more discrete emotions could offer greater precision and nuanced insights as to how emotional states such as joy serve as a source of information or mental heuristic to evaluating situations in nonprofit settings (Storbeck & Clore, 2008).

A third emotional theory worthy of consideration is the concept of emotional contagion and its potential impact within the nonprofit sector. Emotional contagion refers to the phenomenon where individuals "catch" or are influenced by the emotions of those around them (Herrando & Constantinides, 2021). In the context of nonprofits, leaders who consistently display positive affect could effectively transfer this positivity to employees, fostering a more positive and supportive work environment (Peng et al.; Kammerhoff et al., 2019). Combining emotional contagion with a discrete approach to consider specific emotions such as joy could help isolate or pinpoint the specific emotions required by nonprofit leaders to enhance employee morale, motivation, and overall organizational effectiveness, ultimately benefiting the nonprofit's mission and the communities it serves.

One final area worthy of consideration relates to an area of complexity that is significant for nonprofit organizations. Leaders in nonprofit organizations are often managing multiple stakeholders such as donors, volunteers, and employees (Mato-Santiso et al., 2021). A stakeholder perspective provides a catalyst to examine all stakeholder groups and to consider their unique and value contributions (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2022), as well as their role in emotion and leadership. This means extending research beyond the more atypical leader and employee stakeholder groups to include a broader perspective including volunteers, donors and the community. In examining the identified gaps in the literature presented in the systematic review, it is clear a limited stakeholder perspective currently exists with the work of Borde et al. (2023) being the one exception. Building on the work of Borde et al. (2023), an opportunity exists to examine the multiple perspectives of stakeholders in regards to their role in nonprofit organizations. Who and how emotions are experienced in the nonprofit sector has received limited coverage in the current literature.

Implications for Further Research

Recommendations for theory development

From the research presented in the systematic literature review it is apparent that this body of knowledge would benefit from an enhanced theorization into discrete positive emotions and leadership in the specific context of the nonprofit sector. This area of study would benefit from a movement toward greater theoretical parsimony as it emerges out of its infancy. Ongoing theory examination and empirical research will provide the basis for such parsimony. Current theories utilized lend themselves more to motivational theories with only a small number drawing on theories of emotion to inform their development. Discrete Emotion Theory, Affect as Information Theory and Emotional Contagion are offered as starting points for a theorization conversation. Stakeholder Theory too lends its support to the conversation around the nonprofit sector, however, does not address the fundamental emotional aspect that this body of literature denotes. Providing a theoretical conversation based in emotion potentially provides a language for scholars and practitioners to extend on the current conversation.

Recommendations for empirical research

A clear aim of the current paper is to identify the current patterns in the existing literature around joy and leadership in the specific context of the nonprofit sector. The opportunity around empirical research then, is three-fold. In relation to joy but also potentially other discrete emotions, both qualitative and quantitative studies would extend our understanding of these concepts in leadership. There is currently very limited literature existing in this area in the nonprofit space, particularly isolating and considering discrete emotions, such as joy. Current studies are generally geared toward a quantitative approach though three of the studies took a qualitative approach. Mixed methods papers (n=1) were limited. Within the quantitative papers, the method most consistently used was that of survey's promoting consideration of other methods of study such as an experimental design that should be given deliberation in this area. The goal of this paper is not to be prescriptive but to provide researchers with guidance around the methods and designs that may move this research area forward.

A second consideration for empirical research relates to the stakeholder perspective, which is particularly relevant to the nonprofit context. Who and how emotions such as joy are experienced by stakeholders in the nonprofit sector is a topic worthy of consideration. Drawing on the perspectives of various stakeholders using both quantitative and qualitative analysis will provide a deeper and richer understanding of the experience of stakeholders and their contextual experience of emotion.

A final consideration lies in determining the conceptual approach to further our understanding of nonprofit leadership and joy. While the current research is firmly rooted in leadership studies, the discourse surrounding leadership and positive emotions like joy within the nonprofit sector suggests opportunities for multidisciplinary approaches to cultivate a more nuanced understanding of these concepts. Incorporating insights from scholars versed in the nature of joy and positive affect, as well as leadership experts and nonprofit practitioners, promises to deepen and enrich the ongoing conversation in this domain.

Recommendations for practice

Conversations around practice must also enter into the thinking in the space of positive affect, joy and leadership in the nonprofit sector. Leadership is critical to achieving long-term success in nonprofit organizations, with leaders being presented with unique challenges due to the nature and characteristics of these organizations (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020; Li et al., 2014; Renard & Snelgar, 2016). These unique characteristics and challenges have begun to be addressed in the literature, identified in the systematic literature review (Bassous, 2015; Renard & Snelgar, 2016; Silard, 2018). The literature however on the specific context of the nonprofit sector is currently too vague and lacking methodological consistency. What is clear here though is there is real promise in understanding the role of positive affect and joy as the field of study moves forward. There are some strong indicators that leadership effectiveness in the nonprofit space is enhanced by positive affect, with the more discrete emotion of joy still in need further study. If theoretical consistency was achieved there is real potential for practitioners to implement ideas around positive affect and joy for the multiple stakeholders present in their organizations.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the current nonprofit leadership literature has primarily approached joy as part of positive affect rather than as a discrete emotion, despite calls for a more nuanced approach. This research aimed to identify the extent of this trend, synthesize the outcomes influenced by joy, and assess the quality of the literature. The review revealed limited progress in the past decade and attributed it to a lack of theoretical clarity and limited research in the field. However, this presents an opportunity for researchers to address the gaps highlighted in this

review and contribute valuable insights for future research and practice in the nonprofit leadership domain.

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Author Biographies

Katie McIntyre is a researcher at the University of the Sunshine Coast. With a focus on leadership, she has co-authored multiple publications, including a recent book chapter exploring the conceptualisation of Joyful Leadership. Katie's PhD research examines the concept of Joyful Leadership, investigating its impact on employee wellbeing and engagement. Her work bridges academic theory and practical application, contributing to the development of innovative leadership practices.

Dr. Rory Mulcahy is an Associate Professor of Marketing at the University of the Sunshine Coast (UniSC). His research focuses on service marketing and the integration of digital technologies to drive behaviour change. He is also particularly interested in improving service experiences to enhance human flourishing and mitigate vulnerability.

Wayne Graham is a Senior Lecturer in Management in the School of Business and Creative Industries at the University of the Sunshine Coast, Queensland, Australia. Wayne has developed a suite of credit-bearing micro-credential planning courses in partnership with the Queensland Government. The courses are co-designed, co-delivered and co-evaluated with industry representatives and are offered simultaneously online and onsite at various locations throughout the state. Wayne has supervised nine PhD students to completion and has co-authored twenty published peer reviewed journal articles.

Meredith Lawley is an Emeritus Professor of the University of the Sunshine Coast (USC). She has successfully supervised 29 doctoral candidates in a wide variety of business disciplines using a variety of methodologies, has a H-index of 29, and has published over 40 refereed journal articles.

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Philanthropy Under Uncertainty: Muslim Religious Giving During the COVID-19 Pandemic

Osman Umarji – *Yaqeen Institute for Islamic Research; University of California, Irvine*

Rafeel Wasif - *Portland State University*

Shariq Siddiqui - *Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy*

Zeeshan Noor - *Louisiana State University in Shreveport*

This study investigates the demographic, religious, and psychological correlates of charitable giving during times of uncertainty. We employ structural equation modeling to understand the mechanisms that underlie faith-based philanthropy amongst Muslims. For this purpose, we analyzed Muslim American philanthropy during the month of Ramadan in 2020, a month traditionally associated with increased religiosity and philanthropy. Utilizing a sample of 1,722 Muslims in the United States and Canada, uncertainty intolerance was associated with financial anxiety ($B = .26$), which in turn was related to donating less money ($B = -.06$). Financial anxiety was also associated with subjective financial well-being ($B = -.22$), which was associated with donations ($B = .11$). We also found that income ($B = .23$), education ($B = .30$), and age ($B = .28$) positively predicted charitable giving. Increased religious practice ($B = .07$), such as prayer and reading scripture, was also associated with donating more money. Our results add valuable insights to the literature about the predictors and mediators of religious giving and philanthropy under uncertainty.

Keywords: philanthropy, charitable giving, uncertainty intolerance, decision making, religious giving, COVID-19

The scientific study of philanthropy has received substantial attention from social scientists. Theories from psychology and economics have proposed various explanations about who, why, and when people make charitable contributions. The voluntary decision to give is motivated by numerous personal and societal factors, including the extent to which uncertainty is involved. The effects of uncertainty on decision-making is one of the most active and interdisciplinary research topics in judgment and decision-making (Loewenstein et al., 2001). Although much attention has been devoted to risk and uncertainty in decisions related to gambling, health, and investing, philanthropic decisions during times of uncertainty have received considerably less attention despite their importance. It is estimated that over \$400 billion are donated annually to charitable causes in the United States, with religious causes receiving the most donations (Giving USA,

2018). Moreover, charitable contributions have been highlighted in balancing the allocation of social resources in society (Henderson et al., 2012).

The current study synthesizes insights from psychology, behavioral economics, and religious studies to understand philanthropy during times of uncertainty. In particular, we investigate philanthropy as it pertains to Muslims amidst a time of personal and global uncertainty. Unfortunately, few studies have investigated the intersection of philanthropy, uncertainty, and religion. In this study, we seek to bring an interdisciplinary perspective by studying Muslim philanthropy during a time of great uncertainty, the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic has led to uncertainty over physical, mental, and financial health (Fitzpatrick et al., 2020; Rettie & Daniels, 2021; Umarji et al., 2023). Uncertainty in employment, income, and in the stock market and other investments is hypothesized to influence philanthropic attitudes and behaviors (Altig et al., 2022). Rather than rely on laboratory experiments, we believe that the study of philanthropy under uncertainty in a real-life situation makes the findings more ecologically valid (Levitt & List, 2007).

Mechanisms and Motivators of Giving

In their seminal review of empirical studies of charitable giving, Bekkers and Wiepking (2011a) highlighted eight mechanisms that drive philanthropy, including the awareness of need, solicitation, costs and benefits, altruism, reputation concerns, psychological rewards, and efficacy. These motivations to donate, which are not mutually exclusive, likely operate simultaneously and are hypothesized to vary across time, place, and recipient organization (Batson & Shaw 1991). Some of the sociodemographic factors that relate to donor behavior include religious affiliation, strong religious involvement age, home ownership, education level (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2011b; Wiepking & Bekkers, 2012), marital status, gender, and income (Wiepking and Bekkers 2012). Additionally, Mrkva (2017) found that reflection consistently increases costly charitable giving. In their experimental study, people were initially reluctant to give costly amounts of money to charity, but those who reflected over the decision to donate were more willing to give.

Psychologists emphasize the role of motivational processes that relate to donations, including altruism (Wright, 2001), social norms (Smith & McSweeney, 2007; Wiepking, 2007; Anderson et al., 2021), perceptions about money (Wiepking & Breeze, 2012), power (Wang et al., 2021), ingroup-outgroup perceptions (Hart & Robson, 2019), and empathy (De Wit & Bekkers, 2016). Religion is another motivator of giving that is related to both sociodemographic and psychological factors.

Religious people generally donate more than non-religious people (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2011a; Guo et al., 2013). In addition to the effects of religious beliefs on giving (Curtis et al., 2015), other religious factors, including feelings of communal responsibility, reciprocity, and group norms influence giving (Berger, 2006). Research suggests that several psychological motivations affect religious giving. For example, anticipating empathic joy when helping others has been found to be a motivation for religious giving (Batson & Shaw, 1991). Similarly, giving has been associated with self-esteem in religious people (Schwartz, 1970).

Prior research suggests that donations decrease during times of economic uncertainty (Heist & Vance-McMullen, 2019). Sudden shocks to income and wealth partially account for this drop, and broader psychological shifts in philanthropic attitudes may also occur during such times. Thus, attitudes that develop during economic uncertainty may persist well after these times are over (Meer, 2013; Meer et al., 2016). The COVID-19 pandemic triggered substantial risk spillovers

across financial markets, which were correlated with investor panic, and different markets played different roles in terms of risk transmission (Fang et al., 2023).

Fundraising and COVID-19

Nonprofits are susceptible to shocks during times of recession, such as the Great Recession of 2008 and COVID-19 recession. These shocks can affect nonprofits in several ways (Noor et al., 2021). Economic downswings can reduce donations received from households, governments, and foundations, causing nonprofits to curtail their activities. A survey administered during the COVID-19 pandemic revealed that 71% of nonprofits in Indiana had witnessed a decline in revenues since March 2020, and 60% had to curtail or suspend their activities (Gronbjerg & Bhatt, 2020). Another COVID-19 survey by the *Chronicle of Philanthropy* reported that one-fifth of donors “won’t be giving to charity until the economy is back up and running” (Theis, 2020). Similarly, a report revealed that one-third of US nonprofits fear closing within the year, and two-thirds have only two months of cash reserves (Deitrick et al., 2020). Thus, nonprofits experience major financial challenges during economic recessions and although the demand for services may increase, their fundraising decreases.

Philanthropy in Islam and the American Muslim context

The relation between religion and philanthropy in America has received considerable attention (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2011a; Khader & Siddiqui, 2018; Wuthnow, 2012). However, little attention has been given to Muslim philanthropy in America. One of the central tenets of Islam involves giving charity, as charity is considered proof of one’s submission and commitment to God (Siddiqui, 2010). Philanthropy is considered one of the five pillars of Islam. Specifically, Muslims are mandated to give *zakah*, which refers to annually donating a fixed percentage of surplus assets (2.5% of liquid assets) to specified recipients in need (Samad & Glenn, 2010). Additionally, Muslims are highly encouraged to give general charity that is not bound the specific guidelines of *zakah*. Both types of charity, the mandatory and optional, may be dispersed by a Muslim throughout the year. However, many Muslims save the bulk of their charitable contributions for the most spiritual month of the year, the month of Ramadan (Al-Maryati, 2004). Ramadan is the ninth month of the lunar Islamic calendar, and during this month Muslims fast daily, typically read more Quran, and often engage in voluntary evening prayers.

Ramadan is thus a time when Muslim organizations intensively fundraise, capitalizing on the theological importance of this sacred month to prospective donors (Mahmood, 2019). Muslims typically donate more in Ramadan than any other time of the year (Khan et al., 2022; Khwaja, 2019). They may be motivated to give more because of scriptural promises of reward (Baqutayan et al., 2018), increased solicitations in the mosque, and higher levels of optimism and well-being during the month (Umarji et al., 2023). One novel study of Muslim-majority countries and stock market returns found that returns were substantially higher during Ramadan, suggesting that higher returns in Ramadan could be explained by changes in investor psychology, whereby increased optimism and life satisfaction affected investor sentiment (Bialkowski et al., 2010). It is possible that this same effect extends to Muslims’ donations, as there is evidence of increased charitable behavior in Ramadan. A study of Iranian Muslims found a 154% increase in organ donation willingness in Ramadan (Najafizadeh et al., 2010).

American Muslims primarily give to mosques (i.e., houses of worship), domestic poverty relief, educational initiatives, and international poverty relief (Mahmood, 2019). Whereas the governments in Muslim-majority countries typically finance the construction and maintenance of mosques, Muslims privately fund mosques through individual donations in the United States

(Bagby, 2018). Similarly, private Islamic schools in the United States also depend on the philanthropic efforts of Muslim Americans (Khan & Siddiqui, 2017). Thus, Ramadan is the month that mosques and Islamic schools depend on for substantial donations.

Ramadan occurred in the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020. Due to social isolation guidelines, mosques were closed for the duration of the lunar month (April 23-May 23), which is unprecedented in modern history. As in-person services were not offered, and solicitation was exclusively done online, over the telephone, or through mail campaigns, philanthropic behavior may have been different than in prior years. Additionally, the uncertainty due to the COVID-19 pandemic may also have changed Muslims' philanthropic behavior, as uncertainty has been found to influence decision-making (Bin-Nashwan et al., 2022; Sarea & Bin-Nashwan, 2021).

Decision-Making Under Uncertainty

Emotions are a key component of motivated behavior (Baumeister et al., 2007; Loewenstein, 2000). Emotions consist of psychological subsystems that may be affective, cognitive, and motivational (Damasio, 2004). Behavioral economists have theorized that emotions play a central role in decision-making under uncertainty. Loewenstein and colleagues' (2001) "risk-as-feelings" theory posits that emotions often influence decisions involving risk and uncertainty. Peters and Slovic (1996) argue that the psychological dimensions of risk involve two primary factors: feelings of dread and risk of the unknown (i.e., the extent to which the hazard is unknown in producing harmful consequences). Numerous studies have found that inducing anxiety and fear increases preferences for low-risk, low-reward options (Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Raghunatan & Pham, 1999). Additionally, people making decisions under uncertainty may outweigh small probabilities with extreme outcomes (Prelec, 1998). Understanding people's emotional states may help explain the nonlinearities in probability weights (e.g., the certainty effect; Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Considering that the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic may have changed the probability of employment loss from zero to non-zero, this may have been sufficient to induce substantial worry and stress. Employment and financial anxiety likely influence philanthropy during such uncertain times and understanding the antecedents of these anxieties may help explain the psychological mechanisms underlying changes in philanthropic behavior. Uncertainty intolerance is a likely contributor to these anxieties and risk preferences. Prior research has found that uncertainty predicts risk aversion in economic situations (Kornilova et al., 2018; Schröder & Freedman, 2020), and experimental research has found that individuals' risk preferences also influence their giving behavior (Cettolin et al., 2017).

Uncertainty Intolerance and Anxiety

Employment and financial anxiety refer to feelings of stress and worry pertaining to the security of one's employment and financial situation. Excessive employment anxiety may constitute an overestimation of the likelihood of losing one's job and the negative financial consequences associated with unemployment (Dickerson & Green, 2012). Uncertainty intolerance (UI) has been found to be an antecedent of employment and financial anxiety (Chen & Zeng, 2021). Uncertainty intolerance can be defined as a cognitive bias that affects how a person perceives, interprets, and responds to uncertain situations cognitively, emotionally, and behaviorally. People who experience high levels of uncertainty intolerance consider it unacceptable that a negative event may occur, however small the probability of its occurrence (Buhr & Dugas, 2002). Decades of research on the etiology of worrying have suggested that uncertainty intolerance is the root cause of worry and generalized anxiety disorder (Dugas et al., 2004). Worrying and anxiety may lead to fear, and fear leads people to overestimate the risk of negative outcomes (Hengen & Alpers, 2019).

A few studies have investigated the relation between uncertainty intolerance and philanthropic behavior at the national level. In a study of 79 countries, higher levels of uncertainty avoidance at the country level were associated with less charitable giving at the country level (Stojcic et al., 2016). In another study using nationally representative data from 135 countries, countries high in uncertainty avoidance had lower donor frequencies (Smith, 2015). At the person level, we hypothesize that UI during an uncertain time (i.e., the COVID-19 pandemic) induces employment anxiety and financial anxiety, which in turn diminishes philanthropic behavior. From another perspective, real option theory suggests that financial stress influences economic behavior by incorporating the value of waiting, thus allowing the uncertainty to be resolved, before making an investment (Davig & Hakkio, 2010).

Subjective financial well-being

From both a psychological and economic perspective, one's perception of their financial situation should relate to economic choices. Subjective financial well-being refers to perceptions of financial strain, manageability of finances, and financial prospects (Zyphur et al., 2015). Financial well-being is subjective and relative in nature, as people compare their financial situation relative to others. They may feel more financially secure if comparisons are made with those less affluent, or they may feel financially insecure if comparisons are made with those more affluent (Sweeney et al., 1990). People derive a sense of economic security, or lack thereof, from both their current economic situation and perceptions of future economic well-being (Chou et al., 2016). Higher subjective financial well-being is associated with better life satisfaction, mood, and health (Netemeyer et al., 2018; Shim et al., 2009). Studies have found a positive association between subjective financial well-being and donations (Bennet & Kottasz, 2000), even when controlling for actual income (Schlegelmilch et al., 1997). Thus, it appears that subjective financial well-being improves one's mood, and mood has been found to predict philanthropic behavior (Dyck & Coldevin, 1992; Zolotoy et al., 2020).

The Present Study

In this study, we surveyed a large sample of 1,722 Muslims in the United States and Canada and integrated insights from psychology, behavior economics, and religious studies to understand the psychological, religious, and demographic correlates of philanthropy during the most charitable season for Muslims, the month of Ramadan. The three research questions we addressed are the following:

1. To what extent do uncertainty intolerance and income relate to financial anxiety?
2. To what extent do uncertainty intolerance, financial anxiety, and income relate to subjective financial well-being?
3. To what extent do demographics (income, education, age), financial anxiety, religious practice, and subjective financial well-being relate to donations in the month of Ramadan?

For our first research question, we hypothesize that higher levels of uncertainty intolerance will relate to higher levels of financial anxiety (Kraemer et al., 2016). For our second research question, we hypothesize that uncertainty intolerance and financial anxiety will relate to lower levels of subjective financial well-being (Shim et al., 2009). For our third research question, we hypothesize that age, income, education, religious practice, and subjective financial well-being will positively associate with Ramadan donations, whereas financial anxiety will negatively associate with donations (Davig & Hakkio, 2010).

Methods

Participants and Sampling

The data analyzed in this study come from the Experiencing Ramadan in Social Isolation (ERSI) study. ERSI is a cross-sectional online survey of Muslims worldwide and how they experienced Ramadan amidst the COVID-19 pandemic. ERSI data was gathered by the Yaqeen Institute for Islamic Research in April 2020. Participants were contacted via email. Emails were sent to thousands of subscribers, and the full convenience sample included 3,800 Muslims globally who responded. The current study utilizes a sub-sample of 1,722 Muslims residing in the United States and Canada. The participants were predominantly female (78%). There was substantial variation in age, income, and education levels. The median age category was 25-34 years old, the median annual income was \$75,000 and \$99,999, and the median education level was a bachelor's degree.

Measures

Uncertainty intolerance. Two items from the intolerance of uncertainty scale (Buhr & Dugas, 2002) were used to measure attitudes towards uncertainty. Items were on a Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree (scale $\alpha = .80$; sample item, "My mind can't be relaxed if I don't know what will happen tomorrow."). See Appendix A for a complete list of items used.

Financial anxiety. Two items were created to measure worries related to employment and finances. Respondents were asked, "How worried are you about your employment?" and "How worried are you about your financial situation?". The response choices were on a Likert scale from 1 = not at all worried to 5 = extremely worried. The two items showed good internal reliability (scale $\alpha = .82$).

Subjective financial well-being (SFWB). One item was created to measure perceptions of financial well-being. Respondents were asked, "How financially well-off (well-to-do) do you consider yourself?". The response choices were on a Likert scale from 1 = not well-off at all to 5 = extremely well-off.

Religious Practice. Two items were created to measure religious practice. Reading scripture and optional night prayers are two central aspects of Ramadan. Respondents were asked one question about Quran reading and one question whether they prayed *tarawih*. *Tarawih* is a recommended, Ramadan specific prayer that is performed after fasting and after the final obligatory prayer of the day. Respondents were asked "Outside of Ramadan, how often do you read the Quran?". The variable was dichotomized to code for those who reported reading the Quran daily and those who did not. Respondents were also asked, "Did you pray *tarawih* at home this year?". The responses to the two items were added together to create a score for religious practice.

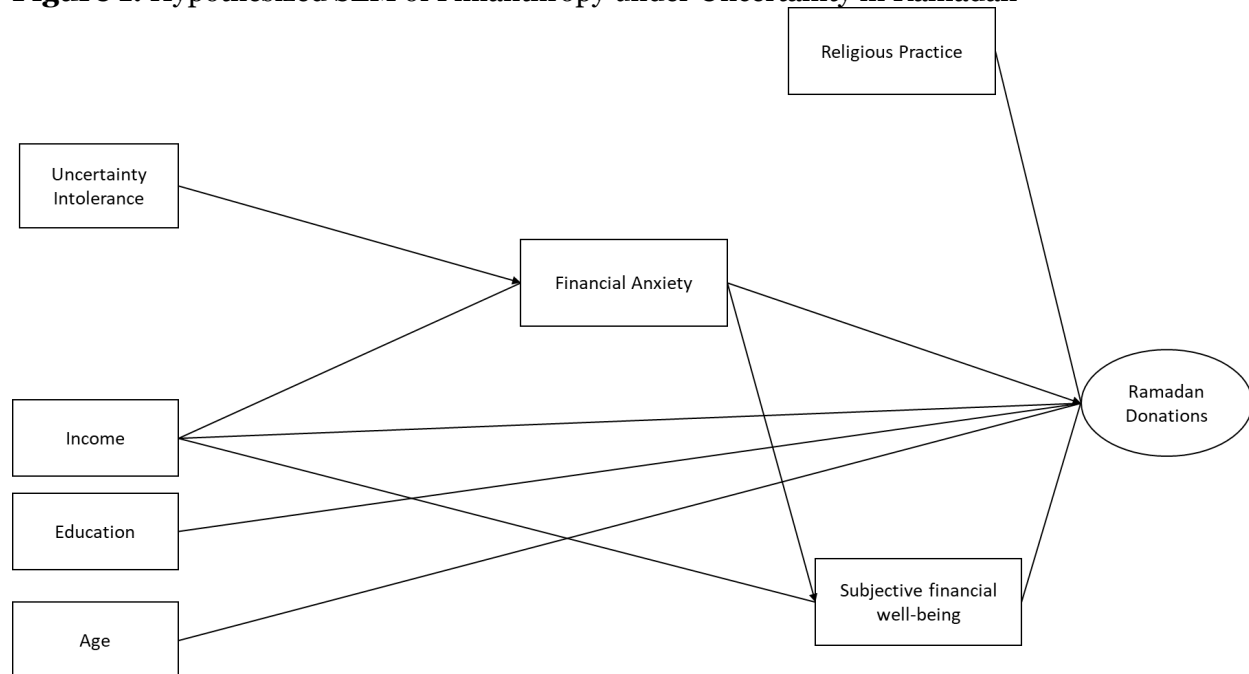
Demographic covariates. Respondents were asked to report their annual income bracket, highest level of education completed, and age bracket.

Donations. One item asked about total donations in Ramadan. Respondents were asked, "How much money did you donate this Ramadan in total?". Options ranged from 1 = \$0 to 7 = \$5000+.

Analysis Plan

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to examine the relations among uncertainty intolerance, financial anxiety, religious practice, demographics, and reported donations (see figure 1 for a diagram of the hypothesized model). SEM is a multivariate statistical analysis technique that allows for investigating the structural relationships between different constructs. Stata 15 was used to estimate the complete path model. Model fit was first assessed using the chi-squared statistic (χ^2), as it is the only inferential statistic in SEM for model fit. Additionally, we used two alternative fit indices, the root mean error of approximation (RMSEA) and the comparative fit index (CFI). RMSEA values below .08 and CFI values greater than .95 indicated good fit (Acock, 2013; Little, 2013).

Figure 1. Hypothesized SEM of Philanthropy under Uncertainty in Ramadan



There were cases of missing data across the survey items. For many items, the pattern appeared to be missing completely at random (MCAR). However, missing data on income was substantial (24%). On average, those with missing data on income were significantly higher educated ($t=5.6$, $p<.001$) and donated less ($t=2.2$, $p<.05$). We accounted for the missing data by utilizing full-information maximum likelihood (FIML), as FIML uses all available information when estimating model parameters. Assuming the data is missing at random, FIML will produce parameter estimates that have optimal large-sample properties of consistency, asymptotic efficiency, and asymptotic normality when sample sizes are large (Allison, 2003). Data are considered missing at random (MAR) if the pattern of missing data is captured in other measured variables. As the respondents with missing data varied on several measured variables, our assumption of MAR appears warranted.

Results

Before reporting the main results, we highlight some of the descriptive findings that provide appropriate background information. Descriptive statistics are reported in table 1 and correlations are reported in table 2. Nearly one in four participants (24%) agreed or strongly

agreed that uncertainty made them stressed and unable to relax. One in four participants (26%) reported feeling at least somewhat financially anxious (i.e., worrying about employment and finances). The median Ramadan donation was between \$250-499. Less than 5% reported donating nothing and 8.6% reported donating over \$5000. See figure 2 for a distribution of Ramadan donations.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Minimum, and Maximum for All Variables

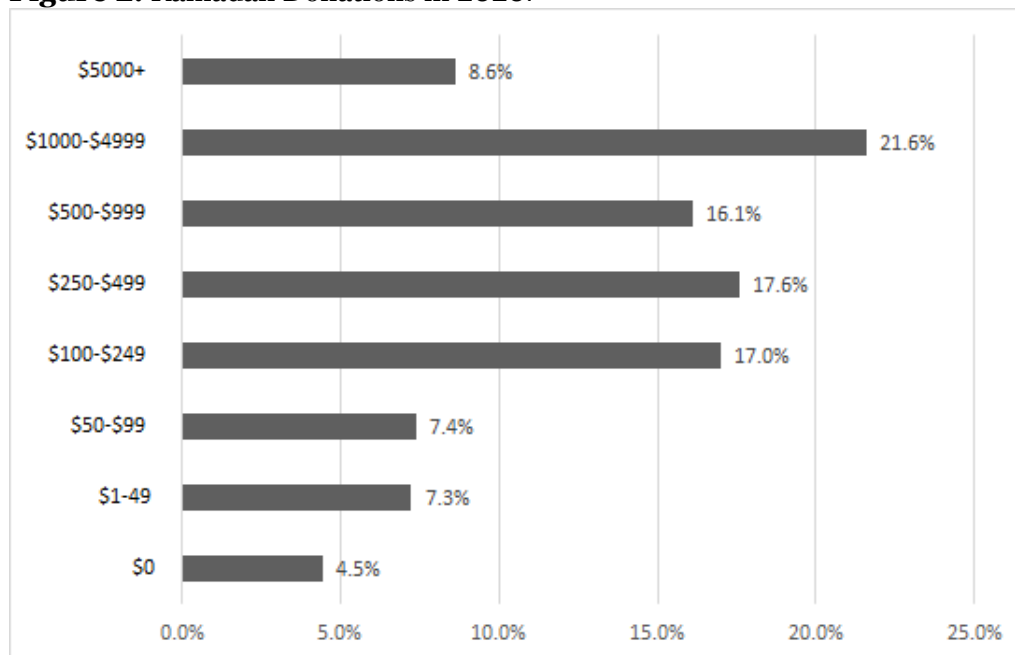
	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Age	3.58	1.52	1	7
Education	3.85	1.17	1	5
Income	2.95	1.86	1	7
Subjective financial well-being	3.04	0.97	1	5
Financial anxiety	2.04	1.02	1	5
Uncertainty intolerance	2.84	1.14	1	5
Pray Tarawih in Ramadan	0.72	0.45	0	1
Daily Quran Reading	0.23	0.42	0	1
Religious Practice	0.95	0.67	0	2
Donations	4.14	1.91	1	7
<i>N</i>	1722			

Table 2. Correlation Table for Study Variables

	Age	Education	Income	SFWB	Financial Anxiety	Uncertainty Intolerance	Tarawih	Quran	Religious Practice	Donations
Age	1									
Education	.47***	1								
Income	.08**	.21***	1							
SFWB	-.10***	.04	.46***	1						
Financial anxiety	-.02	.03	-.21***	-.30***	1					
Uncertainty intolerance	-.19***	.00	.07*	.03	.24***	1				
Tarawih	.03	-.00	.06*	.06*	-.07**	-.02	1			
Quran	.12***	-.01	-.03	.01	.09***	-.14***	.17***	1		
Religious practice	.09***	-.01	.02	.05	-.11***	-.11***	.78***	.75***	1	
Donations	.43***	.47***	.38***	.22***	-.14***	-.06*	.10***	.06*	.10***	1

Note: SFWB = Subjective financial well-being.

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < .001$

Figure 2. Ramadan Donations in 2020.

The results of the SEM address each of our three research questions. See figure 3 for a visual summary of the results and table 3 for detailed results of the model. The model fit the data well ($\chi^2(8) = 66.97, p < .001$; RMSEA = .065; CFI = .954). Regarding our first research question, uncertainty intolerance was positively related to financial anxiety ($B = .26, p < .001$), whereas income was negatively related to financial anxiety ($B = -.21, p < .001$). A one standard deviation increase in uncertainty intolerance was associated with more than a one-fourth of a standard deviation increase in financial anxiety. Our second research question was about how financial anxiety and income predict subjective financial well-being (SFWB). Financial anxiety was negatively associated with SFWB ($B = -.22, p < .001$), whereas income was positively associated with SFWB ($B = .41, p < .001$).

Our third research question was pertaining to the full set of predictors on Ramadan donations. All three demographic variables were related to the amount of money donated. Income ($B = .23, p < .001$), educational level ($B = .30, p < .001$), and age ($B = .28, p < .001$) all positively predicted donation amount. Financial anxiety was negatively associated with donations ($B = -.06, p < .01$). Religious practice ($B = .07, p < .001$) and SFWB ($B = .11, p < .001$) were positively correlated with donations.

Discussion

The present study utilized a large sample of Muslims in the United States and Canada to investigate philanthropy under uncertainty. As Ramadan in 2020 took place during the COVID-19 pandemic, the study presents a unique opportunity to study real-life decision making during a time of personal and global uncertainty. The core ambition of the study was to understand the psychological, behavioral, and demographic predictors of donating. Our results were in line with prior literature that finds income, age, and education to relate to increased philanthropy (Wiepking & Bekkers, 2012). Additionally, we were especially interested in investigating the psychological components of uncertainty intolerance, financial anxiety, and subjective financial well-being on Ramadan philanthropy, as well as specific religious practices. Our hypotheses were

well-supported by the results. The results contribute to the literature on philanthropy by considering economic, psychological, and religious perspectives on giving.

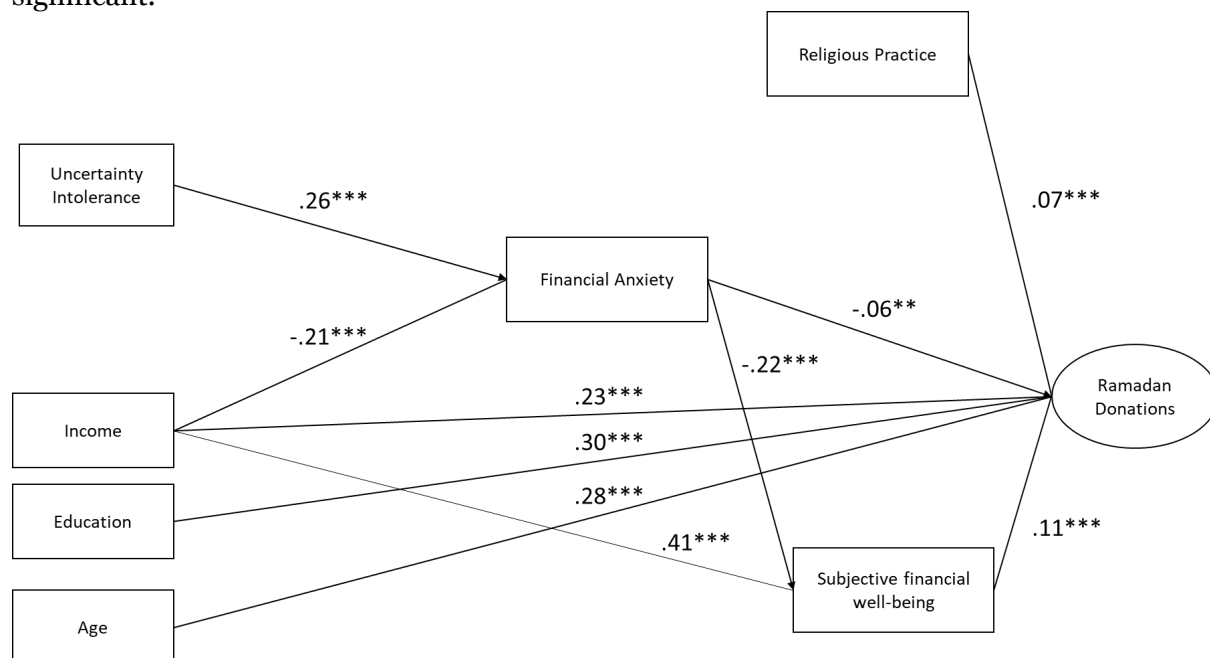
Table 3. SEM of Philanthropy Under Uncertainty in Ramadan

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Structural Model				
Financial anxiety				
Uncertainty Intolerance	0.26	0.02	10.66	0.000
Income	-0.21	0.03	-8.36	0.000
SFWB				
Financial anxiety	-0.22	0.02	-9.58	0.000
Income	0.41	0.02	17.88	0.000
Donations				
Financial anxiety	-0.06	0.02	-2.59	0.010
SFWB	0.11	0.02	4.62	0.000
Income	0.23	0.02	9.04	0.000
Religious Practice	0.07	0.02	3.44	0.001
Age	0.28	0.02	12.38	0.000
Education	0.30	0.02	12.77	0.000

Note: All results are standardized. SE = Standard error.

$\chi^2(7) = 60.14, p = .000$. RMSEA = .066; CFI = .958

Figure 3. Summary of the Full SEM. All coefficients are standardized and statistically significant.



Financial Anxiety and its Antecedents

We found that financial anxiety was negatively related to the amount donated. This finding builds upon prior literature that finds uncertainty intolerance to be a causal antecedent to general anxiety, extending its reach into financial anxiety and diminished philanthropic behavior. If people are anxious about their financial situation and feel uncertain about income or market stability, they are likely to reduce charitable contributions or at least delay them until the uncertainty is resolved. From an intervention perspective, targeting uncertainty intolerance and mindfulness are fruitful avenues for future research. Cognitive behavior therapy (CBT) interventions that reduce uncertainty intolerance have been found to reduce worry, including generalized anxiety disorder (Bomyea et al., 2015; Li et al., 2020; Oglesby et al., 2017). Mindfulness interventions have also been found to reduce uncertainty intolerance and health-related anxieties (Victorson et al., 2017) and to increase compassion and improve general decision-making (Creswell, 2017; Karelaia & Reb, 2015). Whether mindfulness or uncertainty intolerance interventions reduce financial anxiety and change philanthropic behavior and decision-making under uncertainty has not been tested and is an exciting area for future research.

Importance of Subjective Financial Well-being on Philanthropy

Another important finding was the association among SFWB, donations, and financial anxiety. SFWB was negatively correlated with financial anxiety and donations, even after accounting for other factors. These findings relate to relative deprivation theory (RDT), which posits that income satisfaction is related to social comparisons, desire for a higher salary, and feelings of entitlement or deservingness (Sweeney et al., 1990). Relative deprivation is a subjective belief that a person will feel deprived or entitled to something based on a comparison to someone else. Through maladaptive social comparisons and increased desires for material possessions, a person may consider themselves less well-off than they truly are. According to RDT, there is no monotonic function between the subjective feeling of deprivation and the objective situation. Rather, subjective well-being relates to the congruence between value expectations and value capabilities (Mummendey et al., 1999). This suggests that a shift in beliefs and values may alter financial beliefs and behavior, including philanthropy. Experimental research has found that experimentally manipulating (i.e., increasing) relative deprivation beliefs increases the desire for immediate rewards, which increases gambling tendencies (Callan et al., 2011). Future inventions should investigate how changes in relative deprivation and SFWB relate to philanthropy.

Religious Practices and Beliefs

Optional evening prayers in Ramadan (*tarawih*) and reading the Quran daily were associated with increased donations in Ramadan. These two practices are similar in that both acts of worship involved recitation and reflection on Quranic verses. As numerous verses encourage giving charity, we suspect that daily exposure to these verses serves as an alternative form of solicitation. The Quran repeats in multiple chapters that donations are akin to loaning money to God, indicating that God will pay back the loan generously. This form of messaging may have been particularly important in Ramadan 2020, as people did not receive in-person solicitations from the mosque. These messages may reduce financial worries during such an uncertain time. Future research should investigate the relation between religious beliefs and practices and financial anxiety, especially as it pertains to uncertainty.

Islam also provides a perspective to combat relative deprivation beliefs. Prophet Muhammad was reported to have said, “Compare [yourself] to those who are lower than you [in wealth] and do not look at those who are above you [in wealth], for it is more suitable that you do not discount the

blessings of God.” (al-Khattab, 2007) Based on relative deprivation theory and Islamic guidance, interventions focused on making downward social comparisons may be a way to increase SFWB. This is another avenue that future intervention research should investigate.

Limitations and Conclusion

The current study is the one of the first empirical investigations into the determinants of Muslim giving in Ramadan by Muslims in the United States and Canada. It adds to the literature on studying philanthropy under uncertainty in a real-life setting (Chetioui et al., 2023). We believe the results provide an important contribution to the scientific study of philanthropy. However, there are a few limitations that must be considered. First, the study relied on cross-sectional correlational data. Therefore, no strong causal claims can be made about the relations between psychological constructs. The study was also limited to Muslims in Ramadan, so we caution against generalizing our findings to other faiths or giving at different times of the year. In addition, the study is not a representative sample of Muslim Americans and Canadians. The convenience sample acquired skews more religious than the generation population. However, we do believe that the main psychological processes discussed should hold across time and people when making philanthropic decisions during uncertainty. Ultimately, longitudinal studies and experiments would help disentangle directionality to allow for stronger causal claims.

The findings in our study have implications for interventions targeting decision-making under uncertainty, especially philanthropy under uncertainty. Invoking particular religious beliefs and practices may be useful tools to motivate donors during times of uncertainty. Regardless of whether a nonprofit is a faith-based organization or not, it may find it useful to learn about the religious motivations of its donors. For example, Muslim Americans give as much to Muslim nonprofits as they do to those outside of their faith, yet they report similar motivations for both kinds of gifts (Mahmood, 2019). Therefore, it may be advantageous for nonprofits to learn to solicit donations during times that are religiously connected to philanthropy.

Disclosure Statement

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest that relate to the research, authorship, or publication of this article.

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Osman Umarji – Yaqeen Institute for Islamic Research; University of California, Irvine

Osman Umarji is the Director of Survey Research and Evaluation at Yaqeen Institute for Islamic Research and a lecturer in the School of Education at the University of California, Irvine. His research combines his expertise in the psychological sciences and Islamic sciences to empirically study contemporary issues facing Muslims globally.

Rafeel Wasif - Portland State University

Rafeel is an Assistant Professor in Public Administration and Nonprofit Management at Portland State University. His research interests include Public and Nonprofit Management, Philanthropy, International Nonprofits (NGOs), and Data Science. His research focuses on nonprofits belonging to racial and religious minorities in the US by focusing on the Muslim-American nonprofit sector and international NGOs operating in South Asia.

Shariq Siddiqui - Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy

Shariq Siddiqui is an Assistant Professor of Philanthropic Studies and Director of the Muslim Philanthropy Initiative at the Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy. Shariq authors research on Muslim philanthropy and the Muslim nonprofit sector.

Zeeshan Noor - Louisiana State University in Shreveport

Dr. Zeeshan Noor is an Assistant Professor and Director of the MS in Nonprofit Administration program at the Institute for Nonprofit Administration and Research (INAR) at Louisiana State University in Shreveport, where he holds the Norman A. Dolch Super Professorship. He earned his Ph.D. in Public Affairs with a concentration in Nonprofit Management from the University of Texas at Dallas in 2021. Dr. Noor is a mixed-methods researcher with expertise in survey-based research.

Appendix A

Survey Items Used

What is your annual household income? (before taxes)

- \$49,999 or less
- Between \$50,000 and \$74,999
- Between \$75,000 and \$99,999
- Between \$100,000-\$149,999
- Between \$150,000-\$199,999
- Between \$200,000-\$249,999
- \$250,000+

What is your age?

- Under 18
- 18 - 24
- 25 - 34
- 35 - 44
- 45 - 54
- 55 - 64
- 65+

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Less than high school degree
- High school degree
- Some college
- College degree
- Masters, PhD, JD, MD

Uncertainty intolerance

- My mind can't be relaxed if I don't know what will happen tomorrow.
- Uncertainty makes me uneasy, anxious, or stressed.

How financially well-off (well to do) do you consider yourself?

How worried are you about your financial situation?

How worried are you about your employment?

Did you pray tarawih at home this year? (Y/N)

Outside of Ramadan, how often do you read the Quran?

How much money did you donate this Ramadan in total?

- \$0
- \$1-49
- \$50-\$99
- \$100-\$249
- \$250-\$499
- \$500-\$999
- \$1000-\$4999
- \$5000+

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An Exploratory Analysis of Long-Term Effects of Role-Model Volunteering on Young Adults

Sharon A. Kukla-Acevedo - Central Michigan University

Emma A. Powell - Central Michigan University

This study explores the long-term effect of parental role-modeling of volunteer behaviors as children age into adulthood. Although previous research indicates a relationship between concurrent parental and child volunteering, there is very little work that explores the long-term effect of parental volunteering (during a child's adolescent years) on their adult children. We merged several modules of the Panel Study of Income Dynamics that allowed for significant granularity to explore this question. We found evidence that parental role-modeling during an individual's adolescent years is associated with higher rates of young adult volunteering. Our findings are intended to provide practical insight to nonprofit organizations on how to strengthen and maintain volunteer rosters.

Keywords: Intergenerational, volunteer, role-model, parent, adolescent

Introduction

Volunteers in 2021 donated roughly 4.1 billion hours to nonprofit services, which is equivalent to an economic value of \$122 billion (Schneider & Marshall, 2023). The substantial size of the US volunteer workforce can present management challenges. Volunteers in recent decades are less likely to dedicate sustained annual efforts to the same organization, instead favoring shorter (and more infrequent) time periods, focusing on specific projects (such as volunteering for a mega-event), or one-time volunteering with a group at an organization (e.g., soup kitchen or thrift store (Cnaan et al., 2021)). Often termed episodic, this type of volunteering is associated with reduced availability, increased turnover, and increased costs (Compion et al., 2022; Hyde et al., 2014). This reality impacts nonprofit organizations' capacity to carry out their activities, forces continual recruitment of new volunteers, and complicates efforts to retain volunteers (Traeger & Alfes, 2019). To increase volunteer pools one strategy may be for organizations to understand how volunteers are formed (Janoski, et al, 1998).

The current body of work on volunteer management calls for additional potential sources of volunteers (Barnes & Sharpe, 2009) with a higher likelihood of continued service (Butt et al., 2017). Our work contributes to the existing volunteer management scholarship in this vein. We ask whether young adults are more likely to volunteer if their parents role-modeled volunteer behaviors during their formative adolescent years. Thus, the young adult children of parent

volunteers may present a potential volunteer source for nonprofit organizations. We further ask if young adults are more likely to volunteer if they previously volunteered during their adolescent years. If adolescent volunteering predicts young adult volunteering, then nonprofits may nurture more efficient volunteer workforces with higher likelihood of continued service by focusing efforts on individuals with early volunteer experiences.

Previous Research and Hypotheses

Effect of role-modeling on volunteering

Several theories describe the role of family socialization, status transfer, and household conditioning in the efforts to increase youth volunteering. Socialization is the process by which children learn values, socio-emotional skills, and cognitive skills (Bandera, 1986; Grusec & Davidov, 2010; White, 2021). While there are multiple socialization sources in young people's lives, the most important of these are the social interactions with primary caregivers (Padilla-Walker, 2014). Socialization theory provides a potential explanation for how young people develop prosocial behaviors, which, for the purposes of this study are defined as voluntary behaviors intended to benefit others.

A considerable amount of research supports this assertion. Wuthnow (1995) notes that the ethic of caring begins in the family setting. Parental socialization is associated with prosocial attitudes and behaviors that have a significant impact on engaging volunteers (Bekkers, 2007; Brown & Lichter, 2006; Janoski, et al., 1998; Keeter et al., 2002; Schmid et al., 2024; White, 2021; Wilson, 2000). Further, prosocial behaviors that are nurtured during childhood and young adult stages can have long-lasting impacts into adulthood (Smith, 1974; Waugh et al., 2015). Parents that model prosocial behavior demonstrate the importance of service and the impact of volunteering (Eisenberg et al., 2009; Janoski et al., 1998; Mustillo et al., 2004; Weiss, 2012; Yates & Youniss, 1996). Children learn to identify needs around them and recognize their ability to serve.

Several studies suggest that volunteering habits are also passed down from parents to children (Eisenberg et al., 2009; Janoski et al., 1998; Mustillo et al., 2004; Schmid et al., 2024; Sundeen & Raskoff, 1994). While this knowledge base is an important first step in establishing whether parental volunteering establishes a "legacy" effect in their families, certain design choices, such as relying on long-term participant recall (Janoski et al., 1998; Sundeen & Raskoff, 1994; Schmid et al., 2024) and nonrepresentative samples (Bekker, 2007; Mustillo et al., 2004; White, 2021) prevent further characterization of the parental role-modeling effect on young adults' volunteering. Establishing an intergenerational effect is challenging given the many possible influences affecting volunteering decisions throughout the life course. Yet, a primary aim of this research is to test whether we observe a positive association between parent and young adult children volunteerism when using a much shorter participant recall period, actual behaviors, and nationally representative data. Therefore, the first hypothesis is: *Parent role-modeling has a significant effect on volunteering as children age into adulthood.*

As an extension of this hypothesis, we explore the role of organization type on the likelihood of a young adult volunteering. Research on religious organization volunteering shows that most often volunteers are shaped from the needs or requirements of their nonsecular communities (Becker & Dhingra, 2001; Jackson et al., 1995; Park & Smith, 2000; Vermeer & Scheepers, 2012; Wuthnow, 1990, 1991). Yet, scholarship has not yet characterized whether other types of organizations (e.g., those serving youth, those assisting marginalized populations, health-serving)

also elicit long-standing dedication. Drawing from this, our second hypothesis is: *Young adults are more likely to volunteer in the same type of organization their parents volunteered.*
Socioeconomic influences on volunteering behavior

Over the last 30 years, the tenants of dominant status theory match the strategies that organizations use to identify volunteers (Selbee, 2001; Smith, 1994). Dominant status theory suggests that volunteers are recruited with their social status in mind because individuals with higher socioeconomic status (SES) are most likely to volunteer (Brown & Lichter, 2006; Hustinx et al., 2022; Mustillo et al., 2004; Wilson & Musick, 1997). Higher SES typically allows for more discretionary time to participate in volunteering (Caro & Bass, 1995; Fisher et al., 1991; Fisher & Schaffer, 1993; Herzog & Morgan, 1993; Musick et al., 1999; Selbee, 2001). Education level similarly indicates volunteer willingness (Brown & Lichter, 2006; Clary & Snyder, 1999; Hustinx et al., 2022; McPherson & Rotolo, 1996; Schmid et al., 2024; Smith, 1994; Wilson, 2000) and is often the most consistent predictor of volunteering (Smith, 1994). Smith (1994) provides a thorough variable review in support of dominant status theory and suggests that variables like education, SES, marital status, and to a lesser extent, gender predict both organizations' requests for volunteers as well as people feeling able to contribute their time and talents.

Bourdieu's (1977) Habitus and Cultural Capital theory suggests persistent social and economic intergenerational transfers from parents to children. For example, parents with more formalized education pass on opportunities and values that result in their children acquiring more education and higher-status positions. Volunteering, as a field-specific form of capital, is also likely transmitted from parent to child (Dean, 2016; Kraaykamp & van Eijck, 2010). The transmission of not only the prosocial values but various forms of capital from parents to children suggest that youth from higher socioeconomic backgrounds will grow into community members with the capacity, desire, and knowledge to volunteer (Mustillo et al., 2004; Smith, 1994; Weiss, 2012).

The theoretical review of dominant status suggests that individuals pursue volunteering decisions when socioeconomic status, such as education, income, and assets or wealth allow them to do so (Hustinx, et al., 2022; Mustillo et al., 2004; Schmid et al., 2024; Smith, 1994; Weiss, 2012; Wilson & Musick, 1997) and that those SES characteristics are passed down to future generations.

We test the dominant status theory among our sample using our third hypothesis: *The persistence to volunteer in adulthood is stronger for individuals raised in higher income households.*

Method

Data

Our goal is to estimate Parental Role Modeling of Volunteering's (PRMV) association with young adult volunteering. This life-course perspective requires data that follows individuals from childhood into young adulthood. We use data from several different modules of the long-running Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) that provide key volunteering information at different points in the life course. The full PSID family file provides information on the respondents' childhood circumstances, including parents' income, marital status, parental education levels, and volunteering behaviors; the Child Development Supplement (CDS) supplies data on respondents' adolescent volunteering behavior (ages 10-12); parental volunteering during the respondents' adolescence (ages 10-12) comes from the Center on Philanthropy Panel Study (PPS); and the Transition into Adulthood (TA) provides data on the young adults' volunteering behavior and their income.

The Panel Study of Income Dynamics

The PSID is the longest-running panel survey in the US. It contains detailed data on the circumstances affecting US families, including employment, income, health, childbearing, education, and other conditions. These data were collected on an annual basis from a representative sample of nearly 3,000 families and their children beginning in 1968 and have been collected biennially since 1997 (PSID; <http://psidonline.isr.umich.edu>).

Center on Philanthropy Panel Study

The PPS, a PSID module, is the longest-running panel study on charitable giving, volunteering behaviors, and religious attendance in the United States. The first wave of PPS data was collected in 2001 from a sample of 14,849 households (Ottoni-Wilhelm, 2007) with subsequent waves collected biennially. Of particular interest to this study, the 2003 and 2005 PPS waves ask household heads (or the “spouse”) if they volunteered during the previous year, and if so, to indicate the approximate hours and organizational type in which they completed their volunteer activities (Nesbit, 2010). We created parental volunteering measures using the information collected from these questions.

The Child Development Supplement

To better understand child development outcomes, the PSID began collecting data for respondents’ children in 1997 with the Child Development Supplement (CDS) (CDS-III, 2012). The first CDS wave provides information on 3,563 children, ages 0-12, with additional waves of CDS collected in 2002-2003 and 2007-2008. Importantly, children who were at least 10 years old in the second (2002/2003) were asked about their volunteering activities. These data were collected in roughly the same period as the parents’ volunteering behavior, so they allow us to study the concurrent effects of parental volunteering behavior on adolescent volunteering behavior.

The Transition into Adulthood Supplement

The CDS and PSID collect extensive information on their main respondents. However, when a child turned 18, they were no longer part of the CDS. They returned to the PSID family survey, where the primary focus is on the household heads and their spouses. There would be little information gathered on these children as they transitioned into their adult years. The TA supplement remedied the potential information gap and was first collected in 2005, with additional waves collected biennially.

The TA survey provides the information for our dependent variable, which measures the volunteering activities of young adults from ages 18 until roughly their late- twenties. These data allow us to study the lingering effects of parental volunteering behavior (when the respondents were children) on young adult respondents’ volunteering behavior.

Analytic Sample

The full analytic sample is comprised of TA participants (ages 19-36 in any of the TA waves) who have complete information on adolescent volunteering, parental volunteering, socioeconomic circumstances during childhood, and young adult volunteering. Our fully merged, pooled cross-

sectional dataset (PSID, PPS, CDS and TA) contains 5,095 respondents. Seventy-six percent had complete information, for a total of 3,894 observations in the analytic sample.

We conducted two-sample t-tests for mean differences to understand the ways in which the respondents in our analytical sample differed from those with incomplete information. Our analytical sample has slight, albeit statistically significant, differences when compared to the full sample. Our sample seems to be slightly more privileged in terms of income (both in childhood and young adulthood) and has more educated parents. It has a slightly higher representation of European American and Latin/x respondents. While the selection bias is substantively small, these differences lean toward dominant status characteristics. We urge cautious interpretation of these results, as this sample may slightly overestimate parental role-modeling's influence on young adult volunteering.

Measures

Dependent Variables

Following the work of Son and Wilson (2012) and Morrow-Howell et al. (2003) we measure young adult volunteering using a count variable equal to the number of years the respondent volunteered during their participation in the TA survey. The count variable captures a “dosage” effect where exposure to more/less volunteering early in life is associated with more/less volunteering in early adulthood. This modeling choice helps distinguish consistent, annual volunteer work (such as belonging to a group) from one-time volunteering. However, as Son and Wilson (2012) note, a binary volunteering variable captures a different aspect whereby young adults volunteer because their parent identified as a volunteer (regardless of regularity). We employed both modeling strategies and the results are largely consistent across both. We present results using the count dependent variable in this work.

Some models use dependent variables to count the number of years in which the respondent volunteered in a specific type of organization (organizations for children and youth, health organizations/hospitals, religious groups, and other organizations).

Independent Variables

The primary independent variable of interest is a count variable measuring the number of years the parent(s) volunteered during the respondents' childhood. The 2000, 2002, 2004, and 2008 PPS surveys ask whether the head of household or wife/spouse did any volunteer work through organizations totaling 10 or more hours. The “Family Unit” is the PPS's unit of analysis, which is defined in two ways: (a) a legally married or cohabitating couple, plus the people living together in the same household as a family (e.g., related by blood, marriage, or romantic relationship and economically interdependent), or (b) a single person, plus the people living together in the same household as a family.

Some models identify the type of organization where the parent(s) volunteered during the young adult's childhood. Four of the organization types overlapped with the TA organization types asked of the young adults – organizations for children and youth, religious groups, health organizations/hospitals, and other organizations. We created count variables that measure the number of years in which the respondent volunteered in that specific type of organization.

We control for home environment and dominant status characteristics using three variables. First, we created a measure of permanent household income using the PSID's annual total family

income (pre-tax) for each of the years in which the child was 0-18 years old and adjusted to constant 2013 dollars. Then, we create an average annual income level variable across childhood for each young adult respondent. We used the permanent income measure instead of annual income because it is a better approximation of families' long-term consumption habits and has substantially less measurement error in population surveys (Friedman, 1957; Modigliani & Brumberg, 1954).

The second home environment control accounts for the parents' marital status. The measure is equal to 1 if the parents were married or permanently cohabitating for the majority of the young adult's childhood years, and equal to 0 if the respondent resided in a single-parent household in the majority of their childhood years. Finally, we control for the respondents' parental education level using the highest reported years of education for either parent.

We also control for the young adult respondents' current financial circumstances and socio-demographic characteristics. The TA survey collects information on the respondents' young adult annual taxable income and cash transfers. We use the same methodology as described above by calculating observed young adult income in constant dollars and then creating an average annual income level variable. All models also include the respondents' own number of dependent children, sex and racial/ethnic identity, which we drew from TA data.

Finally, some models control for respondents' volunteering behavior during adolescence. If a child was 10-12 years old in 2002, the CDS asks, "Were you involved in any volunteer service activities or service clubs in the last 12 months?" The adolescent volunteering variable is equal to 1 if the respondent volunteered in at least one of the observable years; 0, otherwise.

Empirical Approach

Parental volunteering is associated with children's volunteering (Ottoni-Wilhelm et al., 2014). Our goal is to understand whether PRMV continues to be associated with respondents' volunteering behavior into young adulthood. Using pooled cross-sectional data, we estimate young adult volunteering behavior (YAV) for individual i using the following equation:

$$(1) YAV_i = \beta_0 + \gamma PRMV_i + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 AV_{2i} + e_i$$

PRMV, is a count variable indicating the number of years the parent(s) i volunteered during the young adult's adolescence (provided by 2003 and 2005 PPS waves). The estimated parameter on γ captures our relationship of interest. In all estimates the X_1 -vector controls for demographics (race/ethnicity and gender), childhood home environment (average permanent household income, whether the young adult's parent(s) were married in most of their childhood, and the highest level of education completed by either parent), and circumstances in young adulthood that could impact volunteering behavior (average permanent young adult income and number of children) (provided by available PSID full family waves from 1990 through 2010). In some models, we include the X_2 -vector, which introduces the adolescent volunteering variable (AV) and controls for the young adult's previous volunteering behavior (provided by the 2003 CDS).

Our analytical models use count data as outcomes (e.g., the number of years the young adult volunteered in the observable TA years). Negative binomial regression appropriately estimates count variables with non-negative integers. We employ this modeling strategy and report incidence rate ratios (IRRs). IRR interpretations are intuitive and illustrate the percent change in the incidence rate of the outcome variable for every one-unit increase in the independent variable. We interpret γ as the percent change in young adult volunteering behavior for every one-year increase in PRMV.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

As a first step in understanding whether PRMV has a lasting correlation with young adult volunteering, we look at the observable differences in our sample. Table 1 provides means and standard deviations for the full analytical sample (results presented in column 2); the subsample of young adult respondents whose parent(s) volunteered when the respondent was a child (results presented in column 3); and the subsample of young adult respondents whose parent(s) did NOT volunteer during their childhood (results presented in column 4). Column five provides t-test results indicating whether the two-subsample means are statistically different.

Table 1: Means, standard deviations, and comparisons describing young adult respondents' volunteerism (ages 18+), their parents' volunteerism during their childhood (ages 0-18), and important socio-demographics.

	Full Analytical Sample	Subsample: Parents Volunteered during Respondents' Childhood	Subsample: Parents Did Not Volunteer during Respondents' Childhood	Subsample Differences (t-tests for mean differences)
<u>Dependent Variable</u>				
# Yrs YA Volunteered (ages 18+)	1.39 (1.29)	1.84 (1.30)	0.64 (0.96)	***
<u>Independent Variable</u>				
# Yrs Parents volunteered (0-18) ^a	0.91 (1.15)	2.85 (0.82)	---	
<u>Socio-demographic Controls</u>				
YA Earnings in \$000s (18+)	6.57 (10.12)	8.05 (11.80)	5.52 (8.59)	***
Avg. family income (0-18)	61.48 (52.59)	86.31 (63.44)	44.01 (33.80)	***
Latin/x ^a	9.60% (29.47)	6.47% (24.60)	11.81% (32.28)	***
African American ^a	31.28% (46.37)	21.77% (41.28)	37.97% (48.54)	***
European American ^a	43.50% (49.58)	62.25% (48.49)	30.31% (45.97)	***
Other racial/ethnic identity ^a	17.05% (37.61)	11.01% (31.31)	21.30% (40.95)	***
Female ^a	50.72% (50.00)	48.45% (50.00)	52.32% (49.96)	**
Parents married (0-18) ^a	64.59% (47.83)	80.91% (39.31)	53.11% (49.91)	***
Parental education (Yrs.)	13.76 (2.65)	14.95 (2.30)	12.92 (2.56)	***
YA number of children	0.68 (1.25)	0.42 (1.00)	0.86 (1.37)	***
Number of Observations	3,894	1,608	2,286	

Note: ^a Indicator variable

Note: *** $p < 0.01$; ** $p < 0.05$; * $p < 0.10$

Column 2 indicates that young adults in the full sample volunteered for about 1.39 years (out of a maximum of six years). Their parents volunteered for 0.91 years, on average (out of a maximum of two years). Families overall had an average income of about \$61,480, nearly 65% of families were married or permanently cohabiting during the respondents' childhood, and parents obtained, on average, nearly 14 years of education. The sample is racially diverse – 31% of respondents identify as Black or African American, 43.5% as white or European American, nearly 10% as Latin/x, and 17% as another racial category or ethnic identity. Finally, respondents are responsible for caretaking for 0.68 children, on average.

Clear differences emerge when we split young adults by parental volunteerism. Young adult respondents exposed to PRMV volunteered for 1.84 years, while those who were not exposed to PRMV volunteered for only 0.64 years. Unsurprisingly, the group exposed to PRMV had higher permanent family income (\$86K vs. \$44K), is more likely to be European American (62% European American vs. 30%), parents are more highly educated (14.95 vs. 12.92 years) and were more likely to grow up in a two-parent household (81% vs. 53%). All these differences are statistically significant.

Table 2 provides correlations for all possible pairs of analytical variables. There is a 0.32 correlation between young adult volunteerism and PRMV, indicating a small to moderate (and statistically significant) correlation for this study's primary correlation of interest. The correlations range from a low of 0.001 to a high of -0.592. Since all correlation coefficients are smaller than 0.7 (and confirmed with variance inflation factors smaller than 2), multicollinearity is not a concern (Wooldridge, 2015).

Table 2. Correlations between respondents' volunteerism during young adulthood (ages 18+), parental role-modeling (ages 0-18), and important socio-demographics.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. # Yrs. YA Vol. ^a	1.00											
2. # Yrs. Parents Vol. ^a	0.32*	1.00										
3. YA Earnings (18+)	0.11*	0.15*	1.00									
4. Perm income (0-18)	0.23*	0.43*	0.16*	1.00								
5. Latin/x ^a	0.03*	-0.10*	0.03	-0.12*	1.00							
6. African American ^a	-0.04*	-0.19*	-0.07*	-0.25*	-0.14*	1.00						
7. Euro. American ^a	0.12*	0.36*	0.10*	0.44*	-0.29*	-0.59*	1.00					
8. Other racial/ethnic ^a	-0.12*	-0.16*	-0.06*	-0.20*	-0.12*	-0.31*	-0.39*	1.00				
9. Female ^a	0.05*	-0.05*	-0.07*	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02	0.00	0.01	1.00			
10. Parents married ^a	0.15*	0.31*	0.10*	0.40*	0.07*	-0.33*	0.41*	-0.21*	-0.01	1.00		
11. Parent Yrs. Ed.	0.24*	0.42*	0.09*	0.42*	-0.17*	-0.11*	0.28*	-0.09*	-0.01	0.21*	1.00	
12. YA # Children	-0.13*	-0.19*	-0.06*	-0.228	0.00	0.20*	-0.17*	-0.01	0.07*	-0.16*	-0.17*	1.00

Note: *p<0.05

Regression Results – Effects of PRMV on Young Adult Volunteering

Table 3 lists the results of the negative binomial regression models, which support our hypothesis that PRMV is associated with an increased likelihood that a young adult will volunteer. The results indicate that each additional year of PRMV is associated with an increased likelihood of young adult volunteering by 21.5 percentage points.¹ Permanent family income and permanent young adult income both indicate positive and statistically significant correlations, such that higher income is associated with higher young adult volunteering. This is consistent with our expectations and in alignment with dominant status trait theory. The largest IRR is associated with identifying as Latin/x. Compared to European Americans, each year of PRMV is associated with an increased likelihood of Latin/x young adults volunteering by 45.8 percentage points. The IRRs for identifying as African American and Female are also substantively large – compared to European Americans, each year of PRMV is associated with an increase in African American young adult volunteering by 18.9 percentage points (for females, 22.1 percentage points). Parental education has a smaller association with young adult volunteering, although it is still a positive and statistically significant (6.7 percentage points). While education levels are often the largest and most consistent predictors of volunteering (Smith, 1994; Mustillo et al., 2004), the substantive size of the education effect is typically smaller in models that control for permanent income, rather than annual income (Fryer & Levitt, 2006). Parental marriage/permanent cohabitation is not statistically significant. The only two variables indicating a negative association with young adult volunteering are identifying as another race/ethnicity (-13.4 percentage points) and having children (-7.9 percentage points.)

Isolating Effects of Parents and Previous Volunteering Behavior

The findings described above provide additional insight on the potential relationship between PRMV and a young adult's likelihood of volunteering. Previous research indicates that adolescents whose parents volunteer will themselves volunteer at higher rates than their peers (Ottoni-Wilhelm et al., 2014). An exploratory research extension in light of these two findings is to identify whether PRMV and the young adults' previous volunteer behavior are independently associated with young adult volunteering.

First, we predict adolescent volunteering behavior using PRMV as the primary variable of interest and our standard set of control variables. This is essentially a replication of the Ottoni-Wilhelm et al. (2014) results and necessary to establish a base association between adolescent volunteering and PRMV. Table 4 lists the IRRs of PRMV on adolescents' volunteering behavior.

The association of PRMV with concurrent adolescent volunteering is positive and statistically significant, thus confirming the relationship described in Ottoni-Wilhelm et al. (2014). However, the IRR for PRMV is substantially smaller than the long-term effect of PRMV on young adult volunteering (listed in Table 3).

Next, we estimate additional models predicting young adult volunteerism using the following as predictors in separate models: (1) PRMV; (2) childhood/adolescent volunteering behavior; and (3) adolescent/childhood volunteering behavior AND PRMV, along with the standard set of controls. Taken as a whole, these three models provide evidence for whether PRMV and respondents' previous volunteering coefficients have independent associations with young adult volunteering behavior. Table 5 lists selected IRRs of three regression models.

Table 3. Effects of PRMV on Young Adult Volunteering: IRRs (Standard Errors in Parenthesis.)

<u>Independent Variable</u>	
# Yrs. Parents volunteered (0-18)	1.215*** (0.019)
<u>Socio-demographic Controls</u>	
YA Earnings in \$000s (18+)	1.006*** (0.002)
Avg. yr. family income (0-18)	1.001*** (0.000)
Latin/x ^{a, b}	1.458*** (0.096)
African American ^{a, b}	1.189*** (0.060)
Other race/ethnicity ^{a, b}	0.866** (0.057)
Female ^a	1.221*** (0.047)
Parents married (0-18) ^{a, c}	1.059 (0.053)
Parental education (yrs)	1.067*** (0.010)
YA number of children	0.921*** (0.018)
Number of Observations	3,870
Note: ^a Indicator variable; ^b European American is comparison category; ^c Single/Divorced/Widowed is comparison category	
Note: ***p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.10	

The results in table 5, Model 2 show that a respondent's previous volunteering (e.g. adolescent volunteering) has a large, meaningful, and statistically significant association with young adult volunteering. The magnitude of the IRR is much larger than that of PRMV. For instance, in the overall sample, those who volunteered during adolescence are 69.3 percentage points more likely to volunteer in young adulthood. This is over three times the magnitude of the PRMV coefficient (21.5 percentage points) in Model 1.

Finally, Model 3 shows that both PRMV and previous adolescent volunteering remain positive and statistically significant when the model includes both factors, indicating that each has a unique association with young adult volunteering. Their effects are attenuated slightly from Models 1 and 2, respectively, but maintain their substantive importance. In the overall sample, each year of PRMV is associated with an increased likelihood of young adult volunteering by 19.2 percentage points and those who volunteered in adolescence are 56.9 percentage points more likely to volunteer in young adulthood.

A Wald test of the point estimates indicates that the PRMV and adolescent volunteering coefficients are statistically different. This provides additional evidence that a respondent's previous volunteering behavior is a strong predictor of their future volunteering behavior, even though PRMV is an important predictor, itself.

Table 4. Effects of Concurrent Parental Volunteering on Adolescent Volunteering

# Yrs. Parents volunteered (0-18)	1.158*** (0.031)
<u>Socio-demographic Controls</u>	
Avg. yr. family income (0-18)	1.000 (0.001)
Latin/x ^{a, b}	0.991 (0.108)
African American ^{a, b}	1.088 (0.089)
Other race/ethnicity ^{a, b}	1.241 (0.214)
Female ^a	1.338*** (0.088)
Parents married (0-18) ^{a, c}	0.996 (0.084)
Parental education (yrs)	1.028* (0.015)
Number of Observations	2,424
Note: ***p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.10; IRRs (Standard Errors in Parenthesis.)	

Table 5. Comparing effects of prior volunteering behavior and parental role-modeling.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Parents volunteered (when respondent aged 0-18) ^a	1.215*** (0.019)		1.192*** (0.022)
Respondent volunteered (ages 10-12) ^a		1.693*** (0.084)	1.569*** (0.077)
Wald test of Equality of Coefficients			24.48***
Number of Observations	2,424	2,424	2,424
Note: ^a Indicator variable			
Note: ***p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.10			

The Influence of Organization Type on Young Adult Volunteering

The final questions we explore, ask whether the type of organization in which the parent volunteered (youth serving, health, religious, serving the economically disadvantaged, or social change) is associated with: (1) the young adult volunteering behavior, overall; and (2) the type of organization in which the respondent eventually volunteers, specifically. This exploratory extension can add to the research base because much of the literature focuses on religious organizations only (Caputo, 2009; Johnston, 2013; Kim & Dew, 2019; Lim & MacGregor, 2012).

The merged PSID dataset allows us to explore these questions. The PPS module in 2003 and 2005 asked heads of household and spouses to report their annual volunteer hours at different types of organizations – religious, youth-serving, senior-serving, health/hospitals, serving people in need, organizations that bring about social change, and any other types of organizations.

The TA survey asked a similar set of questions to young adult respondents in each survey wave. Four organizational types overlap in the two surveys – youth-serving (such as schools and community youth programs), hospital/health, religious, and organizations that assist people in need (shelters, soup kitchens, and Habitat for Humanity.) We explore the effects of organization type in two ways. In the first model we use our previous young adult volunteering outcome variable, which measures the years the young adult volunteered in any organization and use all six of the PRMV organization-specific count variables predictors (see table 6). In the second through fifth models, we look at the organizational match between the young adult volunteering and the parental volunteering. For instance, we explore whether parental volunteering at a youth-serving organization predicts young adult volunteering at a youth-serving organization.

Table 6 lists the results from the organizational match analysis. The results in column A indicate that parental volunteering at youth-serving and religious organizations have positive and statistically significant associations with young adult volunteering, in general. Each additional year of PRMV at youth serving organizations is associated with a 14.6 percentage point increase in the likelihood that the young adult respondent will volunteer. The corresponding IRR for religious organization match is 13.3 percentage points. None of the IRRs for the other parental organizational types (health/hospitals, serving people in need, organizations that bring about social change, and any other types of organizations) are statistically significant.

While Column A indicates that PRMV at Youth-Serving and Religious organizations may predict adult volunteering at any organization, Columns B-E demonstrate that only PRMV in youth-serving organizations is associated with young adult volunteering in the same type of organization. The IRR is substantively large (40.5 percentage points) and statistically significant.

This indicates that only youth-serving organizations have an intergenerational volunteering effect. Research consistently identifies strong volunteer roles among religious organizations, so this finding is somewhat surprising. However, younger Americans hold fewer religious affiliations than previous generations and as of 2019, nearly 17% of teenagers do not hold the same religious affiliation as their mothers (Kramer et al., 2022).

Table 6. Marginal effects of organization type.

	Dependent Variable: Young Adult Volunteered at [type of Organization]				
	A. Any	B. Youth- Serving	C. Hospital or Health	D. Religious	E. People in Need
<u>Parental Volunteering</u>					
Youth-Serving Organization	1.146*** (0.041)	1.405*** (0.129)	---	---	---
Hospital/Health Org.	1.091 (0.069)	---	0.975 (0.264)	---	---
Religious Organization	1.133*** (0.038)	---	---	1.171 (0.184)	---
Org. for People in Need	0.938 (0.062)	---	---	---	1.068 (0.198)
Org. for Social Change	0.907 (0.077)	---	---	---	---
Other Organization	1.005 (0.070)	---	---	---	---
<u>Socio-demographic Controls</u>					
Respondent volunteered (ages 10-12) ^a	1.619*** (0.081)	1.315** (0.174)	1.559 (0.467)	1.600* (0.430)	1.424** (0.251)
YA Earnings in \$000s (18+)	1.014*** (0.002)	1.025*** (0.008)	1.031 (0.020)	1.026 (0.017)	1.030*** (0.011)
Avg. yr. family income (0-18)	1.001** (0.000)	1.001 (0.000)	0.997 (0.004)	1.026 (0.017)	0.999 (0.003)
Latin/x ^{a, b}	1.270*** (0.092)	2.347*** (0.419)	2.723*** (1.045)	2.676*** (0.890)	2.445*** (0.573)
African American ^{a, b}	1.010 (0.059)	0.865 (0.141)	0.566 (0.203)	0.596* (0.183)	0.701* (0.149)
Other race/ethnicity ^{a, b}	1.162 (0.143)	0.904 (0.301)	0.526 (0.370)	0.477 (0.290)	0.563 (0.251)
Female ^a	1.216*** (0.057)	1.041 (0.125)	0.712 (0.189)	0.637** (0.143)	0.868 (0.139)
Parents married (0-18) ^{a, c}	1.069 (0.065)	0.968 (0.173)	1.199 (0.505)	1.555 (0.560)	1.020 (0.243)
Parental education (yrs)	1.068*** (0.012)	1.164*** (0.032)	1.271*** (0.069)	1.287*** (0.065)	1.235*** (0.046)
YA number of children	0.934*** (0.021)	0.996 (0.054)	0.978 (0.133)	0.978 (0.122)	1.003 (0.070)
Number of Observations	2,424	2,424	2,424	2,424	2,424

Note: ^a Indicator variable; ^b European American is comparison category; ^c Single/Divorced/Widowed is comparison category; Models run using the full analytical sample.

Note: ***p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.10

Discussion and Implications

This paper provides an exploratory analysis of the association between parental role-modeling of volunteerism with the volunteering behavior of their young adult children. The questions posed in this study are motivated by socialization theory, which suggests the importance of parents in developing their children's prosocial behaviors. We began the exploration by asking, "Do young adults who grew up in households where their parents' volunteered, volunteer more themselves?".

We found evidence for the theory. Specifically, parental role-modeling during an individual's adolescent years is associated with higher rates of young adult volunteering. It may be that the parental role modeling influence persists into young adulthood, such that young adults whose parents volunteered exhibit higher rates of volunteering themselves. In our preferred specification that controls also for respondents' previous volunteering, for each additional year that the parents volunteered, young adults were 19.2 percentage points more likely to volunteer.

We also find support for dominant status theory, which motivated our third hypothesis. The results suggest that individuals with more socioeconomic privilege volunteer at higher rates than those from lower privilege. Permanent family income, permanent young adult income, and parental education levels all have positive and statistically significant associations with young adult volunteering. Simple demands on time provide a plausible mechanism through which the dominant status theory may be operating (although this work did not test such a mechanism). Individuals with lower incomes (which is often correlated with lower education levels) must often rely on second (or third jobs) to make ends meet thus decreasing their opportunity to volunteer. Dean (2016) similarly found support for Bourdieu's Habitus and Cultural Capital theory. These qualitative results suggest that recruiting structures focus on upper-class volunteers, schools, and communities, which explains the lack of diversity in volunteer recruitment.

While these theories help understand volunteer recruitment behaviors, it begs the question, should volunteer-reliant organizations use these dominant status variables to select "good" volunteers for recruiting? There is a high need for volunteers and discarding many community members from recruiting efforts does a disservice to the organization as well as the community causes that require numerous and representative volunteers. Future work should parse out dominant status and cultural transmission theories to build models of volunteer recruitment and retention that encourage diversity and equity in volunteer pools.

This study also explores whether PRMV and young adults' previous volunteering behavior (during adolescence) are independently associated with young adult volunteering. As expected, respondents' previous volunteering behavior is positively associated with young adult volunteering and the IRR for adolescent volunteering is large (an adolescent that volunteers may be 56.9% more likely to volunteer as an adult). Perhaps more surprising is that the two factors exhibit statistically significant associations with young adult volunteering. This suggests two possible pathways to encourage and replicate volunteering behavior – through the adolescent volunteers, themselves, and through their parents. Understanding this as a recruitment outlet is vital for organizations seeking volunteers. Given that only 23% of Americans volunteer (Schneider & Marshall, 2023), it is possible that many potential volunteers are not being considered, simply due to their predetermined variables, per dominant status theory. Some caution should be urged when interpreting these results, however, because parental influence is likely to be exerted in adolescent volunteering decisions. For example, adolescents will need parental permission to volunteer, and parents often transport their adolescent children to/from the site. In other words, adolescent volunteering may be another form of PRMV.

The richness of the PPS data and the PSID's long panel enable us to explore whether the type of volunteering persists from childhood into young adulthood. The results suggest that parental volunteering at youth-serving and religious organizations may be replicated by their young adult children. Parental volunteering at these types of organizations is associated with a higher likelihood of young adult children volunteering at any organization. Further, young adults whose parents volunteered at youth-serving organizations may be more likely to volunteer at youth-serving organizations themselves. None of the other organizational types seem to have this volunteering effect that persists into adulthood. This suggests that youth-serving organizations may be especially effective at cultivating commitment, meaning, or a sense of identity/community among their volunteers.

This study contributes to the literature on role-modeling and volunteerism by providing evidence that, not only does contemporaneous parental role-modeling affect adolescent volunteering, but that the childhood exposure to volunteering may be associated with prosocial development that persists into young adulthood. Previously, persistence was only assumed.

This work's limitations warrant discussion, however. This descriptive study does not provide conclusive evidence that parental role-modeling is causally related to young adult volunteering. The primary concern is that SES often explains volunteering behavior. While we carefully controlled for family advantages in a longitudinal manner, there are undoubtedly observed and unobserved omitted factors in these models (e.g., measures of debt or wealth), limiting our ability to speak causally about the role of parental role-modeling on young adult volunteering.

Related, while the modeling strategy incorporates variables that measure individual and family privilege (e.g., income), it does not account for broader structural (dis)advantage that may affect volunteerism (e.g., neighborhood or school district characteristics). Schools and communities facing economic hardship are less likely to encourage volunteering because of greater stressors placed on individuals' and families' time and resources ([CNCS, 2010](#)). Additional barriers may also exist in disadvantaged neighborhoods, such as fewer opportunities to formally participate in voluntary associations (Wilson, 2012). The literature could be strengthened by additional studies designed to identify the causal relationship between parental role-modeling and young adult volunteering. Doing so would answer the question definitively whether the parental effect is simply due to economic/social advantage (as dominant status theory might suggest), or to the exposure, itself.

Lastly, it is possible that volunteering goes under-reported in these data. However, this imprecision leads to a more conservative estimate of the parental role-modeling effect. Regardless, care should be taken when interpreting these results.

Conclusion

This research suggests two important and independent influences on young adults' decision to volunteer – their own early volunteering experiences and parents modeling volunteering behaviors during childhood. Since these early influences persist into adulthood, organizations may be well-served by engaging families with younger children and maintaining those social connections over time - ideally, honing the socialization-mindset to cultivate young adults who could be volunteers.

Future work may focus on the social inequalities that plague our communities and how those with less may be proportionately less able to engage in volunteering. Additionally, future research

should identify best practices of volunteer retention and commitment by both youth-serving and religious organizations. We extrapolate that these types of organizations may be especially effective at developing relationships and/or demonstrating meaning in their work that persists with their volunteers through a generation. Much of the volunteer research identifies this relationship in religious organizations. Our study findings indicate that youth-serving organizations may be worthy of this attention, as well.

These research findings have both practical applications for the sector and implications that future research may address. First, volunteers are foundational to nonprofit organizations' ability to provide needed services and innovate within organizations (Shin & Kleiner, 2003). Despite their importance, securing a consistent, reliable, and qualified roster of volunteers remains elusive for many organizations. Organizations seeking volunteers often look to outward social status and human capital qualifications to determine capacity to serve (Tang, 2008; Wilson & Musick, 2003). As Dominant Status Theory supports, the more resources attached to a person the more attractive they are to the organization. Thus, we see income and social networks as key recruiting variables that organizations tend to fall back on (Coleman, 1994; Smith, 1994; Wilson & Musick, 1997). This is a practical approach to volunteer recruitment. However, according to this study, the nonprofit sector may be missing a key recruitment tool by limiting the volunteer outreach to SES related indicators. Through this research we suggest organizations seek out opportunities to develop youth-focused or family-centered volunteering initiatives; providing moments for parents to role-model vital prosocial behaviors designed to build a pipeline of next generation volunteers.

Notes

ⁱ The TA respondents' age range allows for more opportunities for older respondents to volunteer than younger respondents. We conducted a sensitivity analysis by adding age as a variable in the regression models to ensure that age does not overly account for the results of the count outcomes. The model results were robust to the inclusion of age, suggesting the appropriateness and consistency of the model.

Disclosure Statement

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest that relate to the research, authorship, or publication of this article.

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Author Biographies

Sharon A. Kukla-Acevedo – Dr. Kukla-Acevedo is a Professor of Public Administration at Central Michigan University. She researches the effects of social welfare and educational policies on children and young adults.

Emma A. Powell - Dr. Powell is a Professor of Nonprofit Management at Central Michigan University. Her research focuses on nonprofit governance and organization policy development.

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Public Service Motivation and Attrition: Studying Individual-Level Turnover Behavior in the Public Sector Using Panel Data

Dr. Michael Bednarczuk – Austin Peay State University

One of the foundational claims of public service motivation (PSM) is that it should influence an individual's willingness to join and remain in public organizations. However, the evidence in support of the “attrition hypothesis” is nuanced, and there is a lack of research examining actual turnover behavior. This study addresses this gap by using longitudinal data from the Youth-Parent Socialization Study to examine the relationship between pre-employment PSM-related values and long-term turnover behavior in the public sector. A multinomial logit model finds that those with higher PSM-related values in childhood are more likely to remain employed in the public sector over time. These results have practical implications for public sector retention strategies, as fostering the development of PSM-related values could lead to reduced employee churn and their related costs.

Keywords: public service motivation; turnover; attrition

Introduction

In their initial postulate concerning public service motivation (PSM), Perry and Wise (1990) noted that PSM may also have an effect on “an individual’s willingness to join *and to stay* with a public organization” (p. 370, italics added). This is known in the PSM literature as the “attrition hypothesis,” which posits that higher PSM should be associated with increased tenure in the public sector.

This hypothesis has been tested but merits further investigation for several reasons. First, the relationship between these factors may be nuanced; although several studies have found that those with higher PSM do have a lower turnover intention (Campbell et al., 2014; Naff & Crum, 1999; Shim, Park, & Eom, 2017), others have found that this effect may be mediated by other factors (Bright, 2008; Campbell and Im, 2016; Gan et al., 2020; Kim, 2015) while still others have found the opposite relationship (Caillier, 2011). Second, many of the studies are cross-sectional in nature, thereby relying on a measure of PSM that may be contaminated by turnover intention. Since PSM can change over time, it is possible that turnover intention may be impacting levels of PSM, thus reversing the actual direction of causality (Choi & Chung, 2017; Kjeldsen, 2014; Vogel & Kroll, 2016). Third, there is a lack of analysis concerning actual turnover. Prior work has found that turnover intent in the public sector may not be highly correlated with actual turnover (Cohen

et al., 2016); therefore, an analysis measuring turnover behavior could better support or refute earlier studies. What is needed is a study that measures actual turnover that also uses a value of PSM obtained prior to employment.

Aside from theoretical considerations, determining the relationship between PSM and public sector employment also has practical applications. As was noted by Perry et al. (2010), improving the understanding of PSM and employment could lead to advances in recruitment strategies for public organizations. If PSM is related to turnover, then recruiting or socializing employees to encourage the development of PSM could lead to reduced costs via lower employee churn.

This study focuses on attrition in the public sector. Furthermore, it does not use cross-sectional data and studies behaviors (turnover) over attitudes (turnover intent.) Additionally, it follows respondents over a lengthy time horizon while also tracking their movement between employment sectors to more closely examine the potential long-term effects of turnover.

Data for this article comes from the Youth-Parent Socialization Study. This study contacted over 1600 high school seniors in the 1960s and followed up with the same students in the mid-1970s and mid-1980s. These data allow for a collection of PSM-related values prior to employment, while its panel structure also allows for an examination of the actual turnover behavior of those individuals once they enter the workforce.

A multinomial logit model finds that having higher PSM-related values in childhood had a positive effect on remaining employed in the public sector when compared to those who always worked in the private sector. That is, those with higher PSM-related values in childhood were less likely to leave public employment. This study provides additional support for welding theoretical considerations to measures of behavior in addition to attitudes.

The rest of the article is laid out as follows. The literature review and hypothesis are discussed. Next, the data and measures are reviewed. The model results are then described, followed by a discussion of those results and the conclusion.

Literature Review

PSM was initially articulated by Perry and Wise (1990) as the term used to capture “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (p. 368). That is, there is a desire to serve the public, and this desire therefore motivates people to want to work for the public.

Since that time, PSM has become one of the most studied topics in public administration, and for good reason. It has been associated with a host of positive workplace behaviors, ranging from job performance (Naff & Crum, 1999), to whistleblowing intention (Brewer & Selden, 1998), to not believing that red tape was a problem (Scott & Pandey, 2005), to exhibiting more innovative behavior (Miao et al., 2018). Different policies and structures also impact employees in various ways, contingent upon their levels of PSM. For example, training and policy enforcement reduced turnout times among firefighters that were high in PSM (Scheller & Reglen, 2021). In another study, those high in PSM with many opportunities to contribute to society in people-changing organizations or those high in PSM with few opportunities to contribute in people-processing institutions were both more prone to burnout (van Loon et al., 2015).

One of the strengths of the PSM literature is the multitude of ways that scholars have measured

it. Some have used various question batteries to tap into the different affective, norm-based, or rational motivations surrounding it (Kim et al., 2013; Perry, 1996; Vandenabeele 2008b.). Others have attributed behavioral differences across groups of people, such as donating blood or volunteering, to varying levels of PSM (Houston, 2006; Lee, 2012). Most relevant to this work, several longitudinal studies have relied on answers to individual questions, such as “satisfaction with the nature of the work itself” (Georgellis & Tabvuma, 2010), or interest in “social service/helping others” (Wright & Christensen, 2010).

While much is known about the consequences of PSM, comparatively little is understood about what causes it and how it changes. In a literature review, Ritz et al. (2016) noted that demographics and work environment were the most commonly-used variables in analysis of the antecedents of PSM, but that the results across these studies have been largely inconsistent. Recently, it has been found that socialization is an important factor; parental PSM largely explains childhood PSM (Bednarczyk, 2021). Studies of how it changes over time have also come to conflicting conclusions, finding evidence that it may increase (Kjeldsen, 2014), decrease (Kjeldsen & Jacobsen, 2013), increase and then decrease (Ward, 2014b), or increase and decrease simultaneously (Vogel & Kroll, 2016).

While starting in the public administration realm, the study of PSM has slowly crossed over into the nonprofit sector. Many have focused on the link between PSM and employment sector choice. For example, scholars have found that those high in PSM are drawn to careers in both the public and nonprofit sectors (Holt, 2018), while more recent work suggests that the findings are more nuanced: those with high PSM are drawn to organizations with high public value in both the nonprofit and public administration spaces (Ritz et al., 2023). Additional studies have analyzed PSM within those in the nonprofit sector. For example, Lapworth et al. (2018) found in qualitative work that voluntary sector employees largely support the dimensions of PSM, while Word and Carpenter (2013) found that PSM of those in nonprofits is impacted by factors such as their attraction to the mission. That said, a recent literature review found that less than 3% of PSM research focused solely on nonprofits (Ritz et al. 2016). As was noted by Mann (2006, p. 40), “suggestions for research on PSM in the nonprofit sector appear to have generally been unheeded thus far.”

An oft-examined link is between PSM and turnover intention. There have been various studies that have generally supported the proposition that PSM and turnover are correlated, but the results carry a number of caveats. For example, many have found a positive relationship between PSM and decreased turnover intention (Bao & Zhong, 2023; Campbell et al., 2014; Naff & Crum, 1999; Shim et al., 2017). That said, several studies argue that this relationship may be moderated by organizational or interpersonal characteristics, such as person-organization fit (Bright, 2008; Gould-Williams et al., 2015), “Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior” (Campbell & Im, 2016), intrinsic motivation (Kim, 2015), mission valence (Caillier, 2011), job and organizational commitment (Gan et al., 2020), perceptions of organizational prestige (Bright, 2020), or job satisfaction and career growth opportunity (Wang et al., 2024). Furthermore, there has also been a study that found that PSM increased turnover intention (Caillier, 2011). In short, while previous studies have typically suggested that those with higher PSM will have a lower turnover intention, these results are not without qualification.

Furthermore, the studies of this relationship have focused on attitudes, not behaviors. The evidence of a relationship between turnover intention and actual turnover among those in the public sector is mixed (Cohen et al., 2016; Ki & Choi-Kwon, 2022). While there have been several recent studies of actual turnover in the public sector (Fukui et al., 2019; Hur & Hawley, 2020; Ki & Choi-Kwon, 2022; Moon & Park, 2019; Sun & Wang, 2017), none have examined the role of

PSM. Therefore, including a measure of actual turnover in a study of PSM would serve as an additional robustness check of earlier findings.

Finally, studies of the attrition hypothesis usually do not include a measurement of PSM that existed prior to employment or to self-selection into a vocation. PSM can be a dynamic variable that changes during a person's career (Choi & Chung, 2017; Jensen et al., 2019; Kjeldsen, 2014; Kjeldsen & Jacobsen, 2013; Schott et al., 2018; Vogel & Kroll, 2016); therefore, measures of PSM taken at the same time as measures of turnover intention or actual turnover may be interrelated or reverse correlated. For example, if turnover intent were to decrease PSM, then cross-sectional studies may be mistaken in their theorized temporal ordering.

The attrition hypothesis suggests that those higher in PSM will be more likely to stay in the public sector, but studies have come to rather conditional conclusions and have yet to include actual turnover behavior. Potential reasons for these muddled results could come from various sources. The studies differ in ways ranging from when PSM is measured, to the length of time of the study, to how turnover is measured. What is largely missing in the attrition literature is a design that records PSM early in a person's career and then tracks their actual workplace turnover over time. Both areas will be addressed in this article.

Hypothesis

The theoretical foundation for this hypothesis comes from the literature on person-organization (P-O) fit and the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) model. Though these frameworks were not explicitly employed by Perry and Wise (1990) when they arrived at their initial deductions concerning PSM, both P-O fit and ASA provide a template for better understanding the implications of this hypothesis.

Those with lower values of PSM may not be compatible with the values of the organization; this lack of fit may increase the likelihood of turnover. This could be expected from those who either did not initially match the values of the organization or those who failed to be socialized into those values while working. However, studies have suggested that the actual mechanism promoting turnover is based on attraction; the lower the perceived match between an individual and the organization's values at entry, the more likely it is that the individual will leave the organization (De Cooman et al., 2009). This suggests the following hypothesis:

Attrition Hypothesis: A public sector employee is more likely to stay in the public sector the higher her or his initial level of PSM.

Data and Measures

Data Source

The Youth-Parent Socialization Panel Study was the source of the data for this study. This study surveyed high school seniors in 1965 that were drawn from a national probability sample. Led by M. Kent Jennings and Richard Niemi at the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan, the surveys were distributed among 97 public and private high schools, reaching a total of 1,669 students. The surveys included questions about the respondents as well as their views on their families, their education, and their country. Follow-up surveys were sent to the respondents in

1973 and 1982. The initial response rate was 99%, while the follow-up surveys had response rates of 81% and 84%. See the appendix for the descriptive statistics.

The design of this dataset makes it uniquely appropriate to address many of the concerns from other studies of the attrition hypothesis. This study obtained measures of PSM prior to employment, thus eliminating the potential problem of socialization that may come from cross-sectional designs. Furthermore, the multiple measures allow for a more detailed examination of the effects of joining and leaving the public sector. Also, the length of the panel allows for the manifestation of any potential long-term effects.

This data source is not without limitations, however. Since it was commissioned prior to the introduction of PSM as a topic of study, it does not include any of the conventional question batteries that are commonplace in the literature to measure it. Related, while it includes a detailed look of the 1960s through 1980s, there may be cohort or period effects present in any analysis. That is, this data does not capture any of the cultural changes since that time that may have impacted their responses. However, it has been used in recent studies to provide analysis into various areas, ranging from religion (Margolis, 2018) to the federal highway system (Nall, 2018).

Variable Definitions

The key variables of interest in the study are turnover and PSM. For the former, the sector of employment in 1973 is compared to the sector of employment in 1982. While the survey included a wave in 1997, this wave was omitted from the study. This omission was due to the limited number of observations in many of the categories of the “sector of employment” variable relative to the number of independent variables in the model. There needs to be a minimum of 10 cases per variable to minimize the risk of biased coefficients and improper measures of the variance (Peduzzi et al., 1996).

This creates a four-category variable: private sector in 1973 and 1982, public sector in 1973 but private sector in 1982, private sector in 1973 but public sector in 1982, and public sector in 1973 and 1982. These four categories are labeled in reference to the public sector and are called “private,” “leavers,” “joiners,” and “public,” respectively. This is a measure that is less about leaving a job per se and more about leaving the public sector, since Perry and Wise (1990) were concerned about the latter. Those that are higher in PSM should be more likely to “remain with a public organization” (Naff & Crum, 1999, p. 9).

This study builds on a previous analysis that employed a newly validated PSM-related value (Bednarczuk, 2021). In line with other scholars who have used measures of PSM that are not directly derived from more commonly-used scales and question batteries (Holt, 2019; Park & Rainey, 2008; Vogel & Kroll, 2016), the measure used in this study is referred to as a “PSM-related” value or measure.

The questions used to measure PSM asked about interest in public affairs, political knowledge, participation in political and campaign activities, and organizational membership. See the appendix for a description of the questions used to construct the measure. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to construct the measure. In accordance with other recent studies employing confirmatory factor analysis when verifying a measure of PSM, the comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error (RMSE), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) were checked to measure the goodness-of-fit (Holt, 2019; Kim et al., 2013). Across all of the measures, the results suggested a high degree of fit (Kline, 2005).

Methods and Results

Data Analysis Plan and Model Specification

The dependent variable is the measure of turnover out of or into the public sector. Given the unordered, categorical nature of a variable with labels of “private,” “leavers,” “joiners,” and “public,” a multinomial logit model is used. Additional comments about potential improvements that could be made to this measure are noted in the “Discussion” section.

The key independent variable is the PSM-related measure from 1965. This measure is recorded prior to employment. The other independent variables are drawn from the literature on turnover intention. It has been argued, for example, that females are more likely to stay in the public sector. Reasons for this include a potential attraction to the stability and benefits of public employment, as well as the smaller wage gap between sexes (Bernhardt & Dresser, 2002; Gornick & Jacobs, 1998; Kolberg, 1991). However, the findings for such an effect remain inconsistent (Campbell & Im, 2016; Ertas, 2015; Ko & Hur, 2013). Education is a similar factor. Theoretically, possessing a college education should increase the perceived employability of an individual, thus making them more likely to leave a job, but this has also displayed an inconsistent effect in the public sector (Kim, 2012; Lewis, 1991; Liss-Levinson et al., 2015).

Results

First, the distribution of the various turnover categories, along with the initial levels of the PSM-related value for those in those categories, are visualized in table 1 below. There is a slight trend with respect to the PSM-related value. Those who did not work for the public sector had the lowest average for the PSM-related value, while those who always worked for the public sector had the highest average. Those who left the public sector on average had lower PSM-related values than those who joined the public sector. This does suggest that PSM may play a role in turnover, but this claim merits additional analysis.

Table 1. Employment Categories by Childhood PSM and Percent Total

Category	Average Childhood PSM	Percent
Private	59.1	78.3
Leave	62.9	6.3
Join	64.2	9.5
Public	65	5.8

Table 2 displays the results of the multinomial logit model for turnover. The reference category is those who were never employed by the public sector. Compared to those who never worked for the public sector, those with college degrees were more likely to have worked for the public sector and then left, more likely to join the public sector, and more likely to have remained in the public sector. Also, being a woman made you more likely to have joined the public sector relative to those who always worked in the private sector.

Table 2. Multinomial Logit Model for Attrition (Base Category: Private)

	Leavers		Joiners		Public	
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err	Odds Ratio	Std. Err	Odds Ratio	Std. Err
PSM	1.004	0.011	1.015	0.008	1.017	0.010
Male	1.624	0.315	0.299	0.229	1.160	0.277
College	3.666	0.312	2.880	0.235	2.190	0.280
Constant	0.025	0.676	0.066	0.519	0.022	0.645
N	897					
Log-likelihood	-697.73639					
Pseudo R2	0.0631					

Note: Those variables significant at the 0.10-level are in **bold**

Most importantly, there is support for the hypothesis. The PSM-related value increased the likelihood of belonging to the category of those who always worked for the public sector as opposed to those who never worked for it, while it was not significant among those who left the public sector. Additionally, the PSM-related measure was positive and significant when comparing those who never worked for the public sector to those who joined the public sector. This supports the findings of Wright and Christensen (2010) and Wright et al. (2017), who note that those high in PSM are more likely to eventually work for the public sector than those who are not high in PSM. These results are robust to various model specifications, such as removing covariates.

The results of the model suggest that the PSM-related value is positively associated with staying employed in the public sector; thus, those with higher PSM would be less likely to leave their jobs. Those with the minimum value of PSM have a predicted probability of always working for the public sector of less than 3%, while those at the maximum value see this probability increase to more than 12%.

Discussion

This study does have several potential limitations. For example, the measure of PSM that is used is not derived from one of the more commonly-used scales (Kim et al., 2013; Perry, 1996; Vandenabeele, 2008b). This casts a degree of uncertainty over the findings. That said, this measure does hew closely to conceptions of PSM elsewhere in the literature (Ward 2014a; 2014b). Given that this panel was commissioned decades prior to the introduction of PSM, such allowances may be needed in studies of similar archival data. That said, replicating this panel using other ways of measuring PSM would certainly be a useful robustness check.

Another limitation is with respect to the number of years between measurements. Though this is one of the longer panel studies of PSM to date, there are gaps of 8 and 9 years between observations. The respondents could have changed during the gaps between surveys in ways that would not be apparent when surveyed again. For example, respondents could have moved in and out of the public sector multiple times between 1973 and 1982 and this would not be measured.

While additional surveys between these periods would have better captured the dynamics of attrition, the data suggests that the respondents did not tend to frequently leave their employers, as the average job length was eight years.

It is also important to note that this measure of attrition captures turnover between sectors and not necessarily from the respondent's specific job. For example, someone leaving a position in state government for a job in local government would not be recorded by this measure. However, not being able to completely capture the movement between sectors makes this a more conservative test of the hypothesis, as additional unobserved sector switching would make it more difficult to find the hypothesized effect.

There may also be period and country effects present in this study. This cohort came of age in the 1960s, and there have been several potentially important changes since then. For example, the United States has made it a larger priority to have a more representative bureaucracy. Such changes in hiring practices may help to explain some of the differences in this analysis and others that use more contemporary or international data. However, while some variables may be impacted by the era from which this data is collected, there is little reason to suspect that the relation between PSM and government employment would be similarly affected. However, this hypothesis should continue to be examined in different countries and different eras.

In a related vein, the level or type of government employment is unknown in this analysis. It may be possible that the effects vary by the specific job in the public sector. For example, Vandenabeele (2008a) found that the effect of PSM on sector preference was stronger among public organizations with a larger degree of publicness, while Kjeldsen (2014) found that those in service-regulation jobs saw different changes in their PSM from those in service-production jobs. Additionally, those employed in the public school system were included in this measure. It is possible that those in education may be different from other conceptualizations of bureaucrats. For example, Choi and Chung (2017) found that PSM had no effect on the sector choice for teachers. Finer-grained analysis could add more certainty to this issue.

Another potential shortcoming is the lack of covariates in the model. Additional variables that capture previously studied work-related variables, such as burnout or job satisfaction, could add further context to the model. Other factors may also be likely to play a role in turnover. For example, Michael Babula's hyperbolic model of human motivation might suggest that those who have reached self-actualization may be more inclined to negate their self-interest and instead pursue exocentric altruistic motivations, such as working in roles that serve the public good (Babula, 2013; Babula et al., 2020; Babula et al., 2022). Later work could try to incorporate these factors.

That said, there are multiple strengths that come with using this panel. To date, this is the first panel that is able to use a PSM-related measure that is obtained prior to employment to study turnover. Relatedly, this is one of the longer panels in a study of PSM, with measures covering a span of 17 years. Additionally, this dataset allows for measures of actual behavior and not intended behavior. Also, it does not rely on a single variable to measure PSM, as is common in studies using panel data (Georgellis & Tabvuma, 2010; Wright & Christensen, 2010). While this dataset is well-suited to examine this particular research question, the aforementioned limitations provide numerous suggestions for subsequent analysis.

Since this study finds that PSM can reduce turnover, what are the implications of these results for both theory and practice? First, it puts the conclusions from the turnover intent literature on firmer ground. Given the lack of analysis in this field on actual turnover, this finding strengthens

support for the link between high PSM and low turnover. These results should also encourage scholars to look for ways to analyze both attitudes and behavior in studies of public and nonprofit affairs. Bridging these two realms allows for more robust conclusions. These results also speak to the power of panel data. Following the same individuals over time increases both the number and the types of questions that we can ask.

For practitioners, this particular finding has great importance in their day-to-day work. Since scholars have also noted that PSM can be dynamic, it becomes more incumbent upon those in managerial positions to discover ways to cultivate PSM in the workplace. For example, a recent piece by Remington et al. (2024) highlights several factors that may reduce threats to retention of first responders and concludes by noting that PSM was a recurring theme in interviews. Related, Belle (2013) found that PSM can be increased through contact with beneficiaries. By increasing PSM, managers in both public and nonprofit institutions can hopefully decrease turnover, among the many other related benefits that come from employees with higher PSM.

Conclusion

There have been several tests of the attrition hypothesis that have focused on turnover intention, but none have used a measure of actual turnover. This study was able to leverage panel data to capture movement across employment sectors to test this hypothesis. Using a multinomial logit model, it was found that those with higher PSM-related values in childhood were more likely to stay employed in the public sector than to always work for the private sector.

This article contributes to the literature in additional ways as well. The length of the panel sets it apart; while others have used panel designs to study turnover, their timelines are usually around a year (see Hur & Hawley, 2020), this study captured movement across almost a decade. This study also included a measure of PSM recorded in childhood; given that PSM can display a degree of dynamism (Choi & Chung, 2017; Jensen et al., 2019; Kjeldsen, 2014; Kjeldsen & Jacobsen, 2013; Schott et al., 2018; Vogel & Kroll, 2016), it is important to try and record it prior to any waxing or waning due to one's career.

What are some of the potential implications of this finding? If PSM does increase the duration of employment in the public sector, then managers may wish to find additional ways to cultivate it. Studies have shown that specific practices in the workplace may increase PSM (Belle, 2013; Jensen & Bro, 2018; Schott & Pronk, 2014); perhaps more emphasis should be placed on such management strategies in the hopes of decreasing turnover. Related, academics could build off of this work by focusing on different countries, using different measures of PSM, or varying the length of time between observations.

As the public sector faces increasing challenges, minimizing turnover takes on greater importance. Studies using real world behaviors not only compliment those studies using attitudes, but they enable scholars to better aid practitioners as they focus on the problems before them.

Disclosure Statement

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Author Biographies

Dr. Michael Bednarczuk

Michael Bednarczuk is an Assistant Professor of Political Science at Austin Peay State University where he studies American government.

Appendix A: Question Wording for PSM Scale - Childhood PSM from Youth-Parent Socialization Panel Study

Interest in Public Affairs

Some people seem to think about what's going on in government and public affairs most of the time, whether there's an election going on or not. Others aren't that interested. Would you say you follow what's going on in government most of the time, some of the time, only now and then, or hardly at all?

Political Knowledge

Next, I'd like to ask you a few questions that you may or may not be able to answer. We don't expect people to know all the answers. [Note: Responses were open-ended]

- About how many years does a U.S. Senator serve?
- Marshall Tito is a leader in what country?
- Do you happen to know about how many members there are on the United States Supreme Court?
- Who is the governor of (this state) now?
- During World War II, which nation had a great many concentration camps for Jews?
- Do you happen to recall whether President Franklin Roosevelt was a Republican or a Democrat? Which?

Campaign Activities

We're also interested in finding out whether students ordinarily pay much attention to current events, public affairs, and politics.

- Do you read about public affairs and politics in any newspaper?
- Do you listen to any programs about public affairs, politics, and the news on the radio?
- Do you watch any programs about public affairs, politics, and the news on television?
- Do you read about public affairs and politics in any magazines?

Organizational Membership

We find that students differ quite a bit in how much they participate in organizations and activities. I would like you to look at this card as I list some kinds of organizations. For each kind I read, would you tell me the number of the statement which best describes your activity for the past two years.

- School newspaper, magazine, or annual.
- Hobby clubs such as photography, car clubs, and crafts.
- School subject matter clubs such as science or language clubs.
- Occupation clubs such as Future Mechanics, Future Businessmen, Future Homemakers, and so forth.
- Neighborhood groups or clubs.
- Church or religious youth groups.
- Groups like the YMCA, YWCA, Hi-Y, Boys' Club, Boy Scouts.
- Are there any other groups you belong to that I haven't mentioned? [Open-ended]

These four variables were then standardized using the "percent of maximum possible" (POMP) method (Cohen et al. 1999). This method was used because traditional z-score standardization changes the multivariate distribution and the covariance matrix of the variable (Moeller 2015). Furthermore, standardizing by z-score in longitudinal data can lead to problems related to differences in reference frames and distributions among different years of data (Moeller 2015). In contrast, the POMP method is a monotonic transformation which does not alter the multivariate distribution nor the covariance matrix.

To use the POMP method, each value per observation is subtracted from the minimum value of the variable and then divided by the maximum value of the variable. This creates a score that ranges from 0 to 1. Since there are four measures in this index, each measure is then multiplied by 25 and summed to create an index ranging from 0 to 100. For example, if someone joined six of eight groups, their score would be $((6-0)/8)*25$, or 18.75. This score would then be combined with the rescaled measures of the three remaining measures of PSM to create the index.

Appendix B: Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	SD	Range
Category of Employment	0.5106	0.9567	0-3
Childhood PSM	60.8942	14.7612	metric
College	0.4047	0.4911	0-1
Male	0.5875	0.4926	0-1

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French-Language Public Administration Research on Social Equity: A Systematic Literature Review

Gino Biaou - École nationale d'administration publique

Étienne Charbonneau - École nationale d'administration publique

Despite the availability of freely accessible translation tools, research conducted in languages other than English is often overlooked. Findings from foreign contexts are lost, undermining the boundary conditions of theories. This systematic literature review takes stock of methods, theories, and practical recommendations developed in French-language social equity research. Overall, the results suggest that French-language social equity research offers relevant but not in-depth practical recommendations, encompasses a small proportion of papers referring to theories, and is more qualitative method-oriented than quantitative. Our results complement previous findings suggesting the dominance of the quantitative approach to social equity research by bringing to light many qualitative studies. Crucially, unlike English-language social equity research, this study suggests that French-language social equity research rarely focuses on race and ethnicity. Inter-organizational equity, along with regional, intergenerational, and gender equity are frequent loci. The finding of this study bridges a heeded segment of Public Administration scholarship, fostering knowledge sharing across languages and scholarly communities.

Keywords: Systematic Literature Review, Social Equity, Knowledge Sharing, French

Half in jest, linguists call America the graveyard of languages, as languages are lost early by kids of immigrants, and as native Americans fail to acquire a second language in large proportions (Collins, 2016, p. 79). “Only 18 percent of American school children are enrolled in foreign language courses, while 94 percent of European high-school students are studying English” (Collins, p. 79). In American universities, French remains the second most taught language, after Spanish, despite a gradual decline since 1958 (Lusin et al. 2023, p. 5, p. 7). Scholars, even those who have English as a second language, limit themselves to English-language research while conducting systematic literature reviews. This could be explained by the dominance of English in all social sciences, including Public Administration. Nevertheless, a puzzle endures: In an age of easily available digital tools providing effortless translations, why are linguistic research communities still siloed? Although this exclusion of research written in languages other than English could be considered a rational choice for an individual project, this tendency impedes the comprehensiveness of systematic literature reviews – hence, consolidated knowledge. For instance, McDonald and colleagues (2022, p. 59) argued that comparative studies in Public

Administration are crucial since this allows to share knowledge, and moreover, “because the trials of one community are likely to be similar to those of another” (McDonald et al., p. 62), on many topics, including social equity.

At least two options can weave together linguistic scholarly communities. One way is to minimize research in any languages other than English (Candler, 2008, p. 335); another way is to translate research into various languages so that scholars become aware of findings from other communities. This study favors the latter approach. The main research question driving this synthesis is: In Public Administration, what are the theories, methods, and practical recommendations present in French-language social equity research?

There are those who believe that the primary objective of research in the field of Public Administration should be to provide actionable insights for practitioners. This view, as argued by McDonald et al. (2022, p. 7), is based on the idea that such research can and should be used to directly inform the practices of those working in the field. This can be achieved through a variety of means, most notably by offering recommendations for both policy implementation and management strategies (Bushhouse & Sowa, 2012, p. 511). However, there is a growing concern that, in recent years, the focus of research in Public Administration has shifted away from these practical applications. Instead, it appears to be moving in a direction that may not necessarily align with the needs and interests of practitioners. This sentiment is echoed by Pollitt (2017, p.564), who argues that this trend has been ongoing for several decades now and represents a significant departure from the field’s initial aims and objectives.

This study is not the first attempt to use French-language research to conduct a systematic literature review written in English. For instance, with a more onto-epistemological lens, Candler (2014) and (2010) conducted a content analysis of *Revista de Administracao Publica*, *Administration publique du Canada*, *Revista de Administracao e Politicas Publicas*, and *Revue Française d'Administration Publique*, and found that there is a complex tension between global theory and local practice (Candler, 2014, p. 1079-1082) and that scholars from English-speaking countries barely engage with non-English literature (Candler, 2010, p. 843). Compared to Candler, this systematic literature review stands out because it adopts a topic-oriented approach. By focusing on French-language social equity research, we aim to systematically present the scope, methods, theories, and practical recommendations. Practical recommendations provide actionable suggestions based on the results of the researchers’ analyses. In fact, social equity has been studied over the last 100 years (Aoki et al., 2021, p. 46; McCandless et al., 2022, p. 129). Yet, Public Administration scholars continue to urge a greater focus on the social equity dimensions of public affairs (Blessett et al., 2019, p. 284; McDonald et al., 2022, p. 59). A handful of recent systematic literature reviews have focused on social equity (for instance, Blessett et al., 2019; Cepiku & Mastrodascio, 2021; Rivera & Knox, 2022, Ruijter et al., 2023, Shen et al., 2023). Rivera and Knox (2022) conducted a systematic review of social equity using 68 articles from emergency management journals published between 2006 and 2021, and proposed the following definition for social equity:

“The active, culturally competent, and equal provision of services to every social group across all phases of emergency management and the continuing reduction of all groups’ social vulnerability that contributes to desperate physical and social damages associated with natural, technological, and dna-tech hazards.” (Rivera & Knox, 2022, p. 10)

Cepiku and Mastrodascio (2021), systematically selected 145 articles to provide a synopsis of the determinants of equity in public service. In their 2023 study, Shen and colleagues reviewed 127 public administration and policy articles from 2009 to 2019. They aimed to inventory the themes, methods, and measures used. They noted that equity was a frequently mentioned topic, albeit

often treated superficially. Ruijet and colleagues (2023) used 190 systematically selected articles focused on the relationship between data-driven public service and social equity. In short, these authors found that representative bureaucracy and vertical decentralization have a positive impact on equity whereas administrative burden and red tape, privatization, competition, and performance management overlook equity (Cepiku & Mastrodascio, 2021, p. 1026), and data-driven public service delivery have a mixed impact on social equity (Ruijer et al. 2023, p. 321). Blessett and colleagues (2019) systematically reviewed 238 social equity papers, from 1968 to 2018, in three journals, noticing a plurality of methodological and theoretical approaches (p. 292).

However, all those systematic literature reviews on social equity did not include articles that were not written in English. This study aims to fill this void and contribute to knowledge sharing among Public Administration scholars as well as shed light on French-language social equity research. French is one of the official languages for many international organizations. It is also an official language in countries in the Americas, Europe, Africa, and Asia. To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to systematically review French-language social equity research to present to scholars who do not read French, the scope and description of the theories, methods, and practical recommendations. While analyzing practical recommendations offered in French-language social equity research, we leverage the coding grids including the framework of Russo and colleagues (2023, p. 1,624) to present who is identified in these recommendations.

Overall, the results suggest that French-language social equity research offers relevant but not in-depth practical recommendations, encompasses a small proportion of papers referring to theories, and is more qualitative method-oriented than quantitative. Two major takeaways from the recommendations of French-speaking social equity scholars are the fact that practical recommendations are quite often unclear on who is responsible for the implantation of the recommendations and where actions should be taken. On the how of the recommendations, the results suggest that Francophone social equity scholars tend to couch their practical recommendations in an obligation manner. Readers may discover individual peer-reviewed articles that could have been missed using English keywords. Moreover, unlike English-language social equity research, this study suggests that French-language social equity research rarely focuses on race and ethnicity. This could be perplexing, particularly for U.S. scholars.

Literature Review

The dominance of English in scholarly publications is recognized as a fact in many academic fields (Blais, 2018, p. 337; Imbeau & Ouimet, 2012, p. 60; Kraus, 2018, p. 341; Larivière, 2018, p. 357; Moloney et al., 2022, p. 261; Marcoux, 2018, p. 437), including Public Administration (Candler, 2006, p. 335; Candler, 2008, p. 295). However, this dominance varies across countries and fields (Rocher, 2017, p. 97), with consequences in terms of ontologies, preferred themes, and contextual settings (Blais, 2018, p. 338; Candler, 2014, p. 1075; Kraus, 2018, p. 341; Laslier, 2018, p. 349; Nisar & Masood, 2023, pp. 335, 341; Nisar, 2023, p. 147). Among the claimed consequences of ghettoed research are a weakened disciplinary potential and relevance (Blais, 2018, p. 338; Moloney et al., 2022, p. 262), a hampered accumulation of knowledge (Laslier, 2018, p. 350), epistemic nihilism (Candler, 2014, pp. 1075, 1085), epistemic colonialism (Candler, 2014, p. 1083; Candler et al., 2010, p. 837; Nisar, 2023, p. 147), epistemic nationalism, and epistemic parochialism (Candler, 2010, p. 837).ⁱ Against this background, researchers recommend an epistemological and multilingual ethos (Kraus, 2018, pp. 340, 347-348; Moloney et al., 2022, p. 262), fostering an integrated community of scholars (Blais, 2018, p. 338; Candler et al., 2010, p. 836), looking inwards at disciplinary exclusions and rethinking the global application of Public Administration (Nisar, 2023, pp. 335, 341). Conversely, a multilingual stance may limit communication and knowledge sharing since using a sole language facilitates the exchange of

ideas (Lublin, 2018, p. 358) within a specific intellectual community sharing that language. Consequently, developing a method to facilitate knowledge sharing across countries and cultures can benefit the global scholarly community who do not read French.

Equity in the Public Administration literature is often traced back to the work of Dwight Waldo and George Frederickson from the Minnowbrook Conference held in 1968 (Cepiku & Mastrodascio 2021, p. 1019-20). Following this conference, Frederickson (1971, p. 294-5) proposed social equity as a response to efficiency and political responsiveness dichotomy (see also Chitwood 1974, p. 30; Frederickson 2010, p. 11-13). The efficiency-political responsiveness dichotomy resembled a zero-sum game in that when governments seek to increase efficiency (i.e., reduce costs), this is done to the detriment of political responsiveness, which decreases since financial resources are needed to ensure this responsiveness, and conversely, increasing political responsiveness requires the sacrifice of efficiency (Frederickson, 1971, pp. 294-295). The findings of decades of research on social equity in English are outside of our scope (Pandey et al., 2022; Riccucci, 2021; Stivers et al., 2023; Strader et al., 2023; Trochmann & Guy, 2022), including the contributions of the Social Equity section of this very journal. Yet, a comparison between French-language social equity research and the Anglophone one is carried out in the discussion section of the paper. Traditionally, horizontal equity refers to the equal treatment applied across all societal layers, regardless of the gap between social strata. On the other hand, vertical equity refers to the unequal treatment applied to different societal strata with the aim of closing existing gaps and bringing all strata back to a similar status (Cepiku & Mastrodascio 2021, p. 1025; Chitwood, 1974, pp. 33-4; Frederickson, 2010, pp. 46-7).

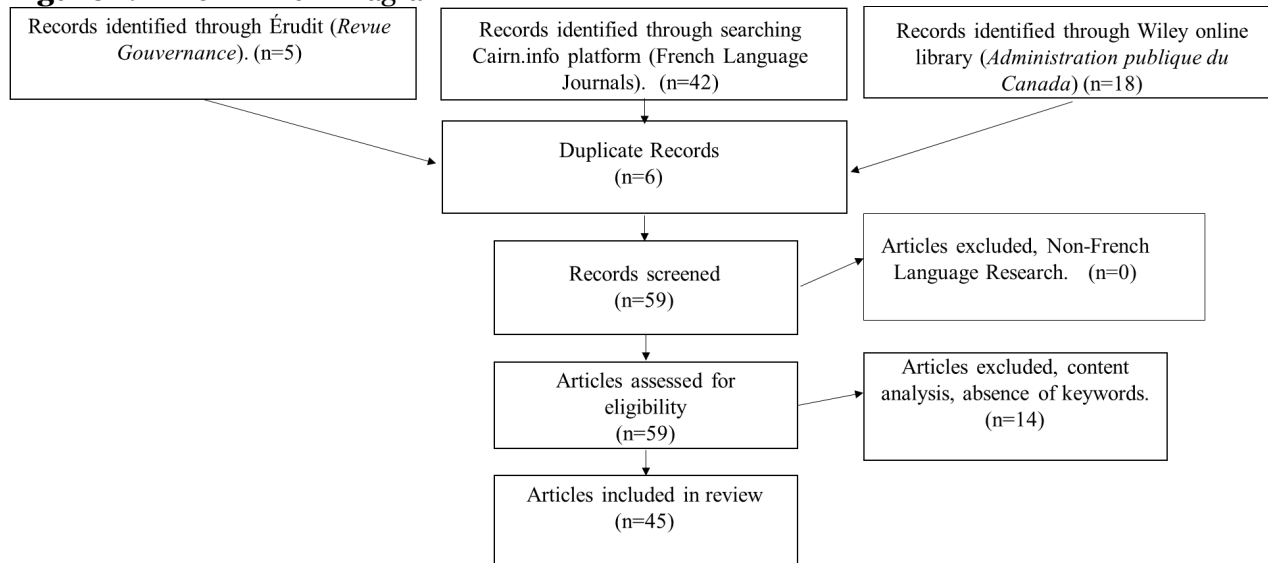
Data and Methods

A systematic literature review follows a structured identification and selection of papers for inclusion with the aim of synthesizing and analyzing knowledge in any given field, sub-field, or a specific topic (Aguinis et al., 2023, p. 54; Kuckertz & Block, 2021, p. 520; Lim et al., 2022, p. 482). George and colleagues (2023, p. 1,525) expressed concern about the risk of “only integrative or systematic reviews using PRISMA to become the hammer that makes us treat all public administration questions as the same nails.” Despite this, like Thomann and colleagues (2024), we used the PRISMA protocol (Moher et al., 2009) to transparently report the identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion of articles in our analysis pool. We chose a journal approach (See Blessett et al., 2019; Candler, 2014, 2010) to increase the likelihood of gathering enough studies and adhere to high-quality systematic literature principles such as transparency, clarity, and thoroughness (Aguinis et al., 2023, p. 48; Kuckertz & Block, 2021, pp. 520-522; Lim et al., 2022, p. 498; Simsek et al., 2023, p. 295), connectedness, and coherence (Simsek et al., 2023, pp. 295-296). Similarly to Farazmand and colleagues (2019) who selected research portals for journals in Farsi, we selected portals for specialized journals in French. We selected seven Public Administration French-Language journals by identifying public sector management journals in the Wiley online library and two wide-encompassing francophone portals for journals, CAIRN and Érudit: *Gestion et management public*, *Politiques et management public*, *Revue Française d'Administration Publique*, *Gestion et Finances publiques*, *Gouvernement et action publique*, *revue Gouvernance*, and *Administration publique du Canada*. Although *Administration publique du Canada* (Canadian Public Administration) and *revue Gouvernance* (Governance Review) offer publication both in French and English, the search solely focuses on French-language social equity research. We did not include *Revue internationale des sciences administratives*, where all articles are available in English – often in their original form – in the *International Review of Administrative Sciences*.

“Équité sociale” is not a coined expression, the way social equity is. Our search was conducted in May 2023 using the terms “*équité*”, “*égalité*”, or “*inégalité*”, equivalent to equity and inequality in Cepiku and Mastrodascio’s (2021) systematic review. We searched these terms in titles, keywords, and abstracts on various journal platforms without any publication year restrictions. This search yielded 65 articles. After eliminating duplicates (n=6), we were left with 59 articles. For quality assurance and control, we further reviewed the content of these articles. It was found that only 45 of them actually included the terms *égalité*, *inégalité*, or *équité*.

Figure 1 illustrates the triage process model.

Figure 1. PRISMA Flow Diagram



As for the coding of the selected articles we used Goertz and Mahoney’s (2012, appendix) coding grid – which has been enhanced with Ospina and colleagues (2018, p. 599) and Groeneveld and colleagues (2015, p. 74). These grids are granular and exhaustive to cover methodological choices. The coding grid on management themes categories (Osborne, 2017, p. 110) includes a typology to categorize multiple years of articles along public policy; public management reform; NPM contracting, competition and privatization; performance management and accountability; collaboration and partnerships; network and governance; innovation and change; strategic management and marketing; human resources management; citizen involvement and co-production; and other topics. The coding grid on levels of analysis (Moon et al., 2014, p. 159) includes program and policy; individuals; artifacts; systems; organizations, and groups of individuals. Following the extensive set of criteria presented by Russo and colleagues (2023, p. 1,625), we searched for practical recommendations in abstracts, introductions, discussions, and conclusion sections of articles for the sake of standardizing the process. We use the “why, what, when and where, who, and how” grid proposed by Russo and colleagues (2023, pp.1,630-1,631) to code the practical implications for practitioners. This grid is valuable because it clarifies why a recommendation should be followed, its purpose, when and where to implement it, its target audience, and the method of implementation. The five dimensions are parsed out in a total of 22 sub-dimensions. For example, recommendations are coded for who is targeted by the recommendation: HR professionals, organizations, managers, employees, clients (users), if ‘who’ is not mentioned, and if ‘who’ is vague. It goes beyond who is accountable.

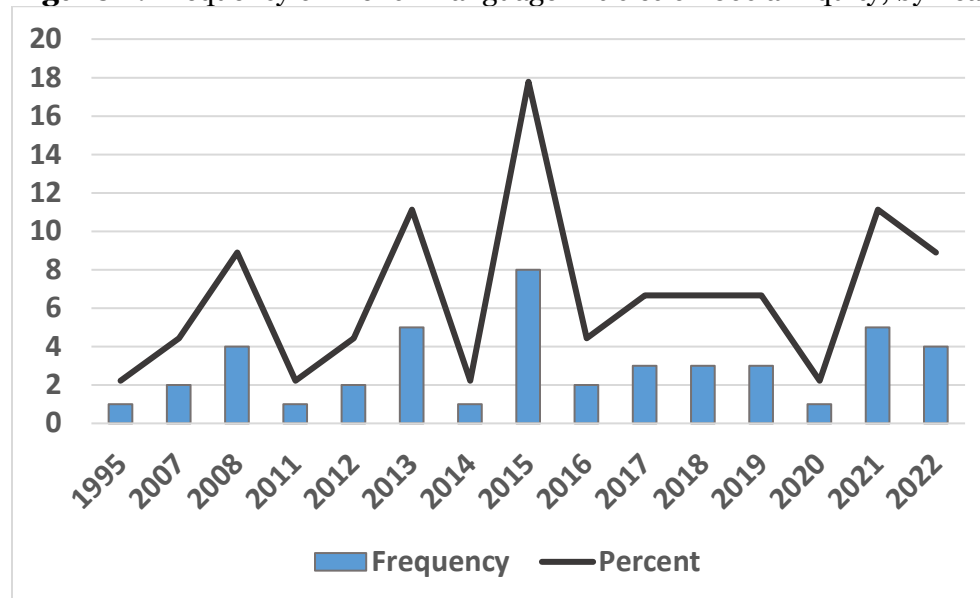
The first phase of the coding process was handled by the first author. After this initial round, another coder independently reviewed a randomly selected subset of 10% of the studies already coded. Any codes that were unclear or debatable were discussed among the authors. This led to a collective agreement, making sure all team members were on the same page regarding the coding scheme, especially with respect to practical recommendations. After reaching a consensus, the coding scheme was updated to include any necessary revisions.

Results

Generalities

This comprehensive and systematic literature review, which covers a timespan extending from 1995 to the end part of 2022, focuses on the work of Public Administration scholars who have written their research in French. As depicted in figure 2, the trend of this scholarship has not been static or linear but has instead shown considerable fluctuation over the years. The most significant peak in this trend was reached in the year 2015. This spike in research output was primarily due to the simultaneous release of seven out of eight articles in the same issue of the renowned journal, *Revue Française d'Administration Publique*.

Figure 2. Frequency of French-Language Articles on Social Equity, by Year

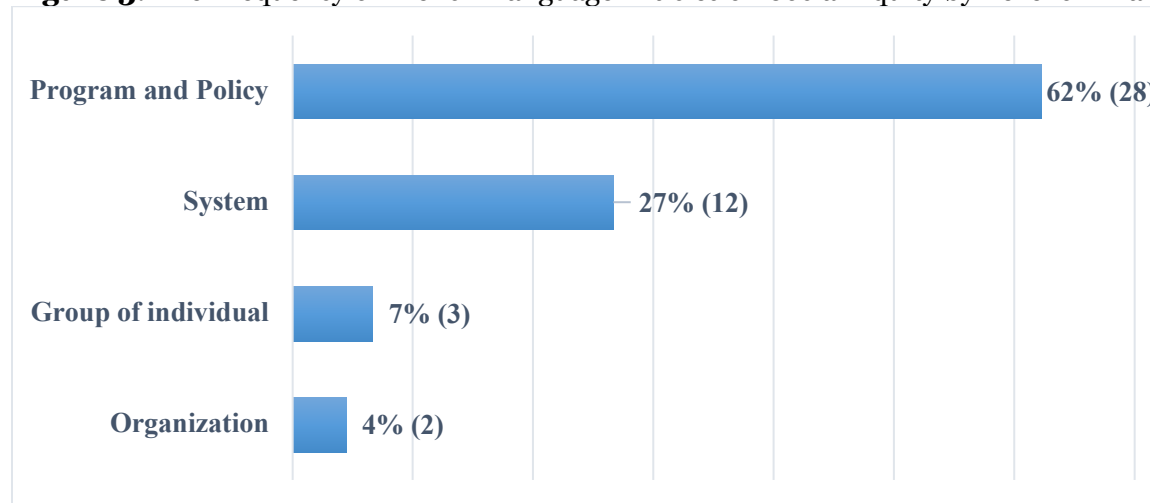


Twenty-seven out of 45 articles (60%) were published in *Revue Française d'Administration Publique*, three articles (6.67%) in *Administration publique du Canada*, two articles (4.44%) in *Gestion et management public*, eight articles (17.78%) in *Gouvernement et Action Publique*, and five articles (11.11%) in *revue Gouvernance*.

By applying Moon and colleagues' (2014, p. 159) categorization of levels of analysis, we found that the more common level of analysis in French-language social equity research is at the program and policy level (see figure 3). In fact, out of the 45 articles, 28 (62%) stood at the program and policy level, 12 (27%) at the system level or government-wide, three (7%) at the group or individual level such as executive public servant women (Rouban, 2013; Sam-Giao, 2015) and Public

Administration students (Larat, 2015; Magnier & Marchal, 2015), and two (4%) at the organization level such as local public organizations (Brochu & Proulx, 1995) and judiciary organization (Jeuland, 2008). Equity is examined from various perspectives, whether it is to address intra-organizational challenges or inter-organizational financial solidarity (Bouvier, 2007; Itçaina, 2021; Prouteau & Tchernonog, 2017) and regional equity (Brochu & Proulx, 1995; Diaz, 2021; Pissaloux & Supplisson, 2015), or to discuss gender equity issues (Blanchard, 2018; Edel, 2013; Marry et al., 2015; Pigeyre & Sabatier, 2012; Rouban, 2013; Sam-Giao, 2015) like gender budgeting (Edel, 2016) and gender income equity (Côté, 2008), or to discuss intergenerational social equity (Sterdyniak, 2022), discrimination (Borrillo & Chappe, 2011; Desage, 2016; Prauthois & Biland, 2022; Toubon, 2015), diversity and inclusion (Edel, 2015; Foulleux, 2013; Larat, 2015; Magnier & Marchal, 2015), and equity as a right (Amrani-Mekki, 2008; Bronsard, 2008; Deville, 2018; Jeuland, 2008; Jobidon, 2021; Luchaire, 2007; Michaud, 2015; Perrou, 2013). Intra-organizational challenges discussed include but are not limited to, public job access (Edel, 2012; Edel 2013; Marry et al., 2015; Rouban, 2013; Sam-Giao, 2015; Toubon, 2015), public service value and provision (Ayed, 2017; Bronsard, 2008; Collin et al., 2022; Dauchez, 2020; Deville, 2018; Honta & Illivi, 2017; Huron & Spieth, 2013; Ledoux, 2021; Nzobonimpa, 2022; Perroud, 2013) in online service and technology (Dauchez, 2020; Perroud, 2013; Nzobonimpa, 2022), in education (Ayed, 2017; Ledoux, 2021), in the public health system (Bronsard, 2008; Collin et al., 2022), and in even in sports (Honta & Illivi, 2017). It is noteworthy that, unlike English-language social equity research, often from the United States, the main focus of French-language social equity research is neither race nor ethnicity. Thomann and colleagues (2024) found that close to half of the fifty-three articles on the programs to limit discrimination were about race and ethnicity, even if 22 of the 53 articles were not from North America. Only two out of 45 articles solely discussed race and ethnicity (Desage, 2016; Nzobonimpa, 2022), whereas Blessett and colleagues (2019, p. 289) documented 63 out of 238 articles for English-language social equity research.

Figure 3. The Frequency of French-Language Articles on Social Equity by Level of Analysis



Out of those 45 articles, 35 (77.78%) are epistemic community-oriented, meaning that the country of analysis is the same as the country hosting the journal. More precisely, ten articles (22.22%) set their aim on foreignⁱⁱ countries (Balsiger et al., 2019; Côté, 2008; Foulleux, 2013; Itçaina, 2021; Jobidon, 2021; Ledoux, 2021; Nzobonimpa, 2022; Tissone et al., 2019; Vairel, 2019, Vairel, 2021). For instance, scholars studied Spain, Albania, Italy, Greece, Switzerland, and Germany (Balsiger et al., 2019; Ledoux, 2021; Tissone et al., 2019) and published in *Revue Française*

d'Administration Publique, *Gestion et management public*, and *Gouvernement et Action Publique* which are hosted in France. Other examples are those of Variel (2019, 2021) who studied Morocco, Nzobonimpa (2022) who studied (in part) the USA, and Itçaina (2021) who studied France and published in *revue Gouvernance* which is hosted in Canada.

Theories and methods

It is also worth mentioning that although most of those systematically selected articles explicitly discussed equity (34 out of 45, 75.56%), there are 11 articles (24.44%) that discussed equity implicitly. This implies that scholars did not delve deeply into the subject, or that social equity is implied in their analysis. In addition to that, out of the 45 articles, only 11 (24.44%) articles clearly identified a theory from which nearly half are intrinsically linked to equity. Equity-related theories are couched in New Public Service (Perroud, 2013, p. 420), New Public Management (Blanchard, 2018, p.41; Edel, 2016, p. 1174), Rights Theory (Bronsard, 2008, p. 87), and Merit Theory (Michaud, 2015, pp. 19-20). The other theories that have been used are the Sociological Approach to Translation (Fouilleux, 2013, p. 94; Huron & Spieth, 2013, p. 34), Neo-institutionalism (Tissone et al., 2019, p. 32), a Functional Theory of Public Finance (Sterdyniak, 2022, p. 415), a Theory of Three Representations (Balme, 2014, p. 415), and Crozier and Friedberg's Organisational Framework (Collin et al., 2022, p. 3).

To borrow from Osborne's (2017) typology, French-language social equity research is more frequently conducted with *public policy* locus (42.22%), *human resource management* (22.22%), *public management reforms* (20%), *performance management and accountability* (20%), *contracting* (13.33%), *networking and governance* (11.11%), and less frequently with *collaboration and partnerships* (6.67%), *innovation and change* (6.67%), *strategic management* (4.44%), *citizen involvement* (4.44%), and *public finance* (2.22%).ⁱⁱⁱ This indicates that *public policy* is the dominant stream (19 out of 45 articles) used by francophone scholars while taking on research toward social equity. French-speaking researchers seem to take for granted that broad public policies are the most secure way to tackle social inequity. A correlation analysis even reveals a positive and significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) between management themes with respect to their co-occurrence or co-appearance within a single article tackling social equity. *Public management reforms* and *citizen involvement* tend to co-appear (0.4313, $p < 0.05$). *Strategic management* and *innovation and change* tend to co-appear (0.3737, $p < 0.05$). *Innovation and change* and *citizen involvement* tend to co-appear (0.3747, $p < 0.05$). *Performance management and accountability* and *public finance* (0.3015, $p < 0.05$) are more likely to co-appear, same for *collaboration and partnership*, and *citizen involvement* (0.3747, $p < 0.05$). However, *public policy* and *network and governance* have a significant and negative association (-0.3022, $p < 0.05$), suggesting that when the former is discussed in a paper, the latter is less likely to be invoked, and vice versa. Other relationships between management themes that we have not mentioned do not have a significant association. This indicates that there is no known significant relationship between those management themes. The initiatives French-speaking researchers studied tend to reveal that public management reforms and citizen involvement were the paths chosen by governments as possibly effective co-production tools to tackle social inequity.

As for the research methods, French-language social equity research is more empirical (27 out of 45 papers, 60%) as opposed to narrative (18 out of 45 papers, 40%), like in an essay. However, from an empirical standpoint, only four articles (14.81%) employed quantitative methods, two articles (7.41%) employed mixed methods, and 21 articles (77.78 %) employed qualitative methods.^{iv} By adding essay articles to those using qualitative and mixed methods, the overall count for non-quantitative methods is 41 articles. Table 1 presents the detailed figures from which

we can see that, considering essay articles, there are 46.67% (21 out of 45) qualitative methods articles, 40% (18 out of 45) essay articles, 8.89% (4 out of 45) quantitative methods articles, and 4.44% (2 out of 45) mixed-methods articles, suggesting that francophone scholars more frequently conducted social equity research with a qualitative lens rather than a quantitative locus. French-language social equity articles employed empirical qualitative methods quite frequently using interviews (15 out of 23, 65.22%) and content analysis (15 out of 23, 65.22%). Interviews and content analysis were commonly used compared to focus groups (3 out of 23, 13.04%) (Fouilleux, 2013, p. 94; Itçaina, 2021, p. 65; Tissone et al., 2019, p. 35), observation (3 out of 23, 13.04%) (Blanchard, 2018, p. 42; Deville, 2018, p. 86; Tissone et al., 2019, p. 35), and archives (2 out of 23, 8.70%) (Aust et al., 2018, p. 13; Brochu & Proulx, 1995, p. 100). Furthermore, two out of 23 empirical qualitative papers (8.70%) adopted ethnography (Côté, 2008, p. 579; Deville, 2018, p. 86), 4.35% (1 article) adopted a typology approach (Huron & Spieth, 2013, p. 31), and none of these studies employed process tracing, equifinality, Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA) and counterfactual analysis. Additionally, nearly half of the empirical qualitative method articles (10 out of 23 papers, 43.48%) embedded two or more instruments for collecting data (Aust et al. 2018, p. 13; Blanchard, 2018, p. 42; Brochu & Proulx, 1995, pp. 100-101; Deville, 2018, p. 86; Fouilleux, 2013, p. 94; Honta & Illivi, 2017, p. 875; Itçaina, 2021, p. 65; Marry et al., 2015, pp. 50-54; Tissone et al., 2019, p. 35; Vairel, 2019, p. 63). Also, there are two comparative analyses (Edel, 2015, p. 141; Marry et al., 2015, p. 50), eight clearly stated single cases, seven small-N qualitative studies, and two qualitative articles using descriptive statistics to convey perspectives (Balme, 2014, p. 313; Brochu & Proulx, 1995, p. 111).

French-speaking social equity scholars who used quantitative methods, employed descriptive statistics (6 out of 6, 100%) alongside only one article (1 out of 6, 16.67%) employing logit regression (Pigeyre & Sabatier, 2012, p. 411) and another article (1 out of 6, 16.67%) using factor analysis (Larat, 2015, p. 111), and none of those used Ordinary Least Squares regression, bivariate correlation, interaction terms, and experiment design research. Furthermore, French-speaking social equity scholars used mixed methods (Pigeyre & Sabatier, 2012; Rouban, 2013) either with an explanatory sequential design (Rouban, 2013, p. 107) or with a convergent parallel design (Pigeyre & Sabatier, 2012, p. 401). Lastly, we noticed that there is a diversity of approaches to data collection used by French-speaking social equity scholars who gathered administrative data (Pigeyre & Sabatier, 2012, p. 405), used existing survey data from authoritative public organizations (Larat, 2015, p. 105; Prouteau & Tchernonog, 2017, p. 533; Sterdyniak, 2022, p. 408), as well as original surveys (Magnier & Marchal, 2015, p. 127; Rouban, 2013, p. 95).

That is quite different from the methodological breakout from the 53 articles on initiatives to curb discrimination analyzed by Thomann and colleagues (2024, supplementary tables and figures). Until now, research in the francophonie has produced far more essays, fewer quantitative studies, and no randomized surveys, or laboratory or field experiments. These are obvious next steps for

these researchers to expand the boundaries of theories and postulates mostly set by English-language research.

Practical recommendations

In French-language social equity research, practical recommendations are found in one-third of the papers (15 out of 45 articles, 33.33%). Analysis of these recommendations reveals that francophone equity scholars often address their suggestions to managers (4 out of 45 articles, 8.89%), elected officials (2 out of 45 articles, 4.44%), and employees (1 out of 45 articles, 2.22%).

Table 1. Summary of Methodological Descriptive Statistics

	Methods	Frequency	%
Research methods			
	Empirical	27	60
	Essays	18	40
	Total	45	100
	Quantitative method (exclude MM)	4	8.89
	Qualitative method (exclude MM)	21	46.67
	Mixed method (MM)	2	4.44
	Essays	18	40
	Total	45	100
Qualitative methods (Total = 41)			
	Comparative case study	2	4.88
	Single case study	8	19.51
	Small N study (2 to 9)	7	17.07
	Medium N study (10+)	0	0
	Other	24	58.54
	Total	41	100
Empirical qualitative methods (Total = 23)			
	Interview	15	65.22
	Content analysis	11	47.83
	Focus group	3	13.04
	Observation	3	13.04
	Archives	2	8.7
	Ethnography	2	8.7
	Typology	1	4.35
	Process tracing	0	0
	Equifinality	0	0
	Counterfactual	0	0
	QCA Fuzzy	0	0
Quantitative methods (Total = 6)			
	Descriptive statistics	6	100
	OLS regression	0	0
	Logit/Probit	1	16.67
	Bicorrelation	0	0
	Comparison means Chi2 test	0	0
	Interaction terms	0	0
	Factor analysis	1	16.67
	Experiment	0	0

MM = Mixed Method; OLS = Ordinary Least Square; QCA = Qualitative Comparative Analysis

These recommendations typically focus on national level (10 out of 45 articles, 22.22%) and public sector (11 out of 45 articles, 24.44%) interventions for effecting change. They are most often presented as obligations (8 out of 45 articles, 17.78%), less frequently as possibilities (4 out of 45 articles, 8.89%), and sometimes in a neutral tone (3 out of 45 articles, 6.67%). However, French-speaking social equity scholars are more likely to adopt a stringent posture when their recommendation includes the national or provincial level as to where actions should be taken (correlation of 0.7559, $p < 0.05$, see Table 2).

Table 2. Summary of Association between the Subdimensions of Recommendations, with the topic at hand.

	<i>WHO</i>		<i>HOW</i>		
	Elected	Managerial	Employee	Obligation	Possibility Neutral
<i>Public management reforms</i>	0.7845				
<i>Contracting</i>	0.6814				0.5345
<i>Collaboration and partnership</i>	0.6814				0.5345
<i>Citizen involvement</i>	0.6814				0.5345
<i>Human resource management</i>		0.6504			0.6504
<i>Network and governance</i>			0.6814		
<i>WHERE – National or Provincial</i>				0.7559	-0.7071

Note: Only includes t-tests significance at the 5 percent-level.

Additionally, we examined the potential associations between the granularity of recommendations and the topic in which social equity is studied. The correlation analysis between the management themes and ‘WHO’ is identified in the recommendations, summarized in table 2, suggests that elected officials are more likely to be identified in social equity research focusing on *public management reforms* (0.7845, $p < 0.05$), *contracting* (0.6814, $p < 0.05$), *collaboration and partnership* (0.6814, $p < 0.05$), and *citizen involvement* (0.6814, $p < 0.05$). On the other hand, while managers are more likely to be identified as targets of recommendations for social equity research focusing on *human resource management* (0.6504, $p < 0.05$), employees are considered as actors than can shape social equity in public programs on *network and governance* (0.6814, $p < 0.05$). These results reveal that elected officials are seen as the main actors for all aspects of the public administration ecosystem related to social equity. This differs from the long tradition of engaged public servants as having the discretion and the agency to protect social equity.

By extrapolating the correlation between the identities recommended in the management themes and how scholars articulated the recommendations (table 2), the results suggest that francophone social equity scholars typically present their practical suggestions in a diplomatic or hesitant manner. This is especially true when managers are portrayed as the ones to take action, particularly in human resource management matters. They tend not to use obligation words like “must” and “should” significantly (see Russo et al., 2023, p. 1,639). When elected officials are depicted as the shapers of social equity, the results indicate that these scholars often present their recommendations neutrally. They do not significantly use words that express obligation or

possibility, regardless of whether the topic is contracting, collaboration and partnership, or citizen involvement. Finally, the correlation analysis between management themes and the provision of practical recommendations by scholars (not reported in table 2) indicates no significant association. In other words, the decision of French social equity scholars to provide practical suggestions does not seem to be influenced by the management themes.

Two major takeaways from the recommendations of French-speaking social equity scholars (table 3) are the fact that practical recommendations are quite often unclear on who (9 out of 45) is identified as having enough agency to enhance social equity and on where actions (4 out of 45) should be taken.

Table 3. Summary of Practical Recommendations on Social Equity, Translated from French

Recommendation	WHO	WHERE	HOW
“In the final analysis, equalization must be seen in the context of good governance of a complex local and national public financial system. (...) This is why, from the point of view of steering public finances, it seems essential to set up joint State/local authority bodies to regulate, in time and space, and through consultation, on the one hand, the evolution of public resources and expenditure, and on the other hand the equalization schemes to be set up at the different levels of authority (regions, départements, groupings).” (Bouvier, 2007, p. 78)	Unclear	National and Local	Obligation
“The flexibility of the system is not without risk of arbitrariness (rare but not impossible) and/or privilege for certain parties. The new reference to the principle of impartiality in the first articles of the code of judicial organization could gradually lead to greater transparency in the distribution of cases. Judicial organization should therefore take greater account of fundamental principles without losing its flexibility.” (Jeuland, 2008, p. 33)	Unclear	National	Obligation
“Speed must not be so attractive as to upset the balance of power within the trial or negate the guarantees of a fair trial. It must be pursued with restraint, in concreto, so that the time saved does not translate into a loss of quality. More than celerity in the strict sense of the word, it is a different perception and acceptance of judicial time that must be sought.” (Amrani-Mekki, 2008, p. 43)	Unclear	National	Obligation
“More broadly, within the profession of teacher-researchers in management itself, it would be a matter of rethinking, in the context of universities made more autonomous, career management, in the short and medium term, which also presupposes rethinking the	Managerial	National	Possibility

relevance of this type of competitive examination.” (Pigeyre and Sabatier, 2012, p. 416)			
“Diversification also relies on the profiles of future managers having heterogeneous cultural references and singular experiences. What the jury will be looking for is the degree to which these experiences have been appropriated, analyzed and formalized, enabling them to be transferred to the local civil service context. (...) This is an imperative of social justice and equal opportunity, but also of efficient public management; the senior territorial civil service will gain by attracting all the talents of society in all its diversity.” (Magnier and Marchal, 2015, p. 138)	Managerial	Local	Possibility
“To be truly able to respond, the CPÉNA’s intervention should amount to a final push. It should be the final link in an integrated set of educational, social and economic equality policies.” (Edel, 2015, p. 162)	Managerial	National	Obligation
“Public actors would perhaps benefit from reconsidering the problem of socio-spatial segregation in this way, apprehended less as a set of concentrations of undesirable population(s) that should be warded off, than as the result of a multitude of obstacles to their social and residential mobility, some of which are akin to discrimination.” (Desage, 2016, p. 83)	Unclear	Unclear	Possibility
“The case of Seine-Saint-Denis shows how far we still have to go to achieve de facto equality between pupils in this department and those in more affluent ones. We also need to examine the sustainability of the State’s commitment, as the history of priority education is above all one of instability, with phases of lesser commitment likely to produce an accumulation of inequalities pushing back the prospect of equality even further.” (Ben Ayed, 2017, p. 382)	Unclear	National	Obligation

“This new order produces new inequalities that benefit sites with the strongest collective action capacities, but also institutional characteristics that meet new hierarchical criteria. To be understood, these transformations must be seen as the product of the articulation between different registers of instrument mobilization - conformation, appropriation, resistance - and ongoing interactions between governors and governed.” (Aust et al., 2018, p. 9)	Managerial and Employee	National	Obligation
“Finally, this study suggests avenues for future research, given the purpose of the institutional work in progress: to mitigate and adapt the institutional field to ecological and climatic changes. Indeed, practices, which arise in reaction to the negative externalities of the globalized food system, very often aim to integrate more circularity into it to limit the impact on territories and natural resources.” (Tissone et al., 2019, p. 49)	Unclear	Unclear	Neutral
“This observation leads us to call for greater consistency in public policies towards the notarial profession, which has been ‘badly treated’ since the law of August 6, 2015 for growth, activity and equal economic opportunity, known as the ‘Growth Law’.” (Dauchez, 2020, p. 181)	Elected-Official	Unclear	Neutral
“In the implementation phase that is now taking shape, the regions will have to assert their role as leaders and mobilize the bodies for dialogue with the territories and the State to bring the advances made in these documents to life.” (Diaz, 2021, p. 607)	Unclear	National and Local	Obligation
“From then on and beyond the case restituted here, it would be a matter for future research to deepen comparisons between the relationships to politics revealed by the different dynamics of the constitution of territorial SSE clusters.” (Itçaina, 2021, p. 81)	Unclear	Unclear	Neutral
“Our ambition to shed light on the French case, as yet little apprehended from this perspective, as well as the global reach of Western categorizations, due first to colonization and now to international institutions, have justified the focus of this article on this context, echoing Anglo-Saxon research. In the future, this focus will merit a dialogue with those on other configurations, particularly non-Western ones, in which the processes of institutionalization of	Unclear	National	Possibility

gender and sexuality relations.” (Prauthois & Biland, 2022, p. 31)			
“The results show that, on the one hand, the provision of services in the language of citizens’ choice, which is conditioned by the legal framework on language rights, drives actors to mobilize strategies focused on quality and security. On the other hand, access has a symbolic dimension, as it is associated with notions of equity and governance. Access to French-language healthcare services is a sensitive issue for the state, which remains on the sidelines. In order to better respond to the health needs of citizens, this actor needs to foster bonds of trust and formulate clear objectives.” (Collin et al., 2022, p. 1)	Elected-Official	National	Obligation

Out of 45 articles, two articles (4.44%) expressed that the national and local government levels (Bouvier, 2007, p. 78; Diaz, 2021, p. 607) are the ones that matters related to public finance (Bouvier, 2007, p. 78) and governance (Diaz, 2021, p. 607), and one article (2.22%) expressed joint responsibility for managers and employees on matters related to network and governance (Aust et al., 2018, p. 9). Future research could explore our suggestion that bureaucratic accountability plays a major role in network and governance matters, while democratic accountability is more prevalent in matters related to public finance and governance.

However, as presented in Table 3, the limited number of practical recommendations masks the quality of these recommendations to bring about change. Out of those 15 papers offering practical recommendations, we find that some articles offer precise and concrete actions (Aust et al., 2018, p. 9; Bouvier, 2007, p. 78; Dauchez, 2020, p. 181; Diaz, 2021, p. 607), precise but less concrete actions (Amrani-Mekki, 2008, p. 43; Collin et al., 2022, p. 1; Edel, 2015, p. 162; Magnier & Marchal, 2015, p. 138; Pigeyre & Sabatier, 2012, p. 416) and a few that remain vague (Ben Ayed, 2017, p. 382; Desage, 2016, p. 83; Itçaina, 2021, p. 81; Jeuland, 2008, p. 33; Prauthois & Biland, 2022, p. 31; Tissone et al., 2019, p. 49). For instance, Bouvier (2007, p. 78) suggested revamping the governance of the financial system and launching joint committees at the national and local government levels. Aust and colleagues (2018, p. 9) suggested strengthening the interaction between rulers and ruled, whereas Dauchez (2020, p. 181) proposed focusing more attention on public policy coherence. Diaz (2021, p. 607) emphasized the role of leadership of regions, and Collin and colleagues (2022, p. 1) indicated clear goal setting and citizen trust as part of the solution to social inequity. In essence, while some articles offered concrete practical recommendations, most authors did not connect their recommendations to their findings, which would make them more actionable for practitioners.

Discussion

Social equity in Public Administration is a fundamental public value along with efficiency and effectiveness (Frederickson, 1971, p. 295; Frederickson, 2010, pp. 28-31) and as a response to the efficiency and political responsiveness dichotomy acting as a zero-sum game (Chitwood, 1974, p. 30; Frederickson, 2010, pp. 11-13; Frederickson, 2010, pp. 11-13). From then on, social equity has been studied in Public Administration (Aoki et al., 2022, p. 46; McCandless, et al., 2022, p. 129) and there are still calls from scholars to deepen the understanding of equity (Blessett et al., 2019, p. 284; McDonald et al., 2022, p. 59) and to conduct comparative administration research (McDonald et al., 2022, p. 59). Yu and colleagues (2023) called for “(...) widening the scope of equity calls for a widening view of diverse groups as definitions and criteria are also continually changing” (p. 446). In this study, we respond to calls from scholars by conducting a comprehensive literature review of French-language social equity research. Our focus is on the methodology, theories, and practical recommendations.

The descriptive results reveal that practical recommendations in French-language social equity research are present in only one-third of the papers (15 out of 45 articles, 33.33%). Is this enough? From a descriptive statistical standpoint, our assessment is no, this is not enough since most of the papers do not provide practical recommendations. The low percentage of papers offering practical recommendations could be due to the lack of incentives for scholars. Elected officials might prefer exploring newspaper articles over academic journal articles. Alternatively, Francophone social equity scholars might focus more on advancing knowledge among their peers than suggesting concrete actions for decision-makers to implement change.

From an empirical and methodological standpoint, only four articles out of 45 (14.81%) employed quantitative methods, two articles (7.41%) employed mixed methods, and 21 articles (77.78 %) employed qualitative methods. These results contrast with the findings of Blessett and colleagues (2019, p. 291) who conducted a content analysis of social equity articles in the *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, *Public Administration Review*, and *Administrative Theory and Praxis*, from 1968 to 2018. Blessett and colleagues (2019, p. 291) found that the articles were mostly quantitative (104 out of 238), less qualitative (72 out of 238), and less theory-oriented (48 out of 238), and few were mixed methods (3 out of 238) and essays (11 out of 238). This also contrasts with Shen and colleagues’ (2023, pp. 403-404) findings, which indicated that over half of the 127 articles they analyzed utilized quantitative methods. This is an interesting comparative finding that suggests that the dominance of the quantitative approach to social equity found by Blessett and colleagues (2019, p. 291) is not shared across the board. In short, the high proportion of quantitative methods in social equity research does not only depend on the nature (theory-focused or not) of the journal (Blessett et al., 2019, p. 291), but not policy or Public Administration journals (Shen et al., 2023, p. 404), but is also contingent on the language and cultures used to disseminate the results.

Conceptually and theoretically, French and English social equity research share commonalities in how social equity is depicted and, in the theories, referenced. Both French and English language research conceptualize social equity as equal service provision to all social groups, as well as a right (Blanchard, 2018, pp. 48-49; Cepiku & Mastrodascio 2021, p. 1025; Edel, 2013, pp. 110-11; Marry et al., 2015, p. 48; Rivera & Knox, 2022, p. 10). Furthermore, the notion of social equity as proportionality is featured in two French-language papers included in this systematic literature review (Bronsard, 2008, p. 86; Michaud, 2015, p.15). Both authors argued that individuals should receive rewards (e.g., wages) proportional to their actions and contributions. They suggested that while equal access signifies fairness, it should also be complemented by proportionality. While it could be argued that French-language research emphasizes equity as proportionality, English-language research also discusses this to some extent. For instance, Haidt (2012) – an American

scholar – characterizes fairness (equity) as proportionality, using political ideology as a contrasting point.

On the left, concerns about equality and social justice are based in part on the Fairness foundation. (...) Everyone cares about fairness, but there are two major kinds. On the left, fairness often implies equality, but on the right, it means proportionality—people should be rewarded in proportion to what they contribute, even if that guarantees unequal outcomes. (Haidt, 2012, pp. 160-161)

Haidt's (2012) analysis points out the fact that the conceptualization of equity varies based on political ideology, cultural and religious background, and society (pp. 160-161).

French and English language social equity research referred to similar frames such as New Public Service and New Public Management (Blanchard, 2018, p.41; Cepiku & Mastrodascio 2021, p. 1025; Edel, 2016, p. 1174; Perroud, 2013, p. 420). However, it is important to mention two theories highlighted by Bronsard (2008) and Michaud (2015). These theories discuss equity as proportionality, the theory of rights, and Merit theory. The theory of rights introduces a proportionality aspect by questioning how to ensure everyone receives their fair share (Bronsard, 2008, p. 86). As a central aspect related to proportionality is knowing what the “right to” entitles you to, the theory of rights goes beyond the “right to” to the detriment of procedural rights. The procedural rights consist of assessing the appropriate fair treatment and then determining the mechanisms and procedures to make this happen (Bronsard, p. 89). Procedural rights imply the institutionalization of dialogue between the administration and the citizen (Bronsard, p. 89) in the quest for equity. As for the Merit theory, merit refers to the notion of virtue, that is to say, a disposition to act well (Michaud, 2015, p. 15). Merit theorists argue that an individual who performs excellently at work should be eligible for a corresponding salary (Michaud, p. 17). However, they also add a caveat, noting that individuals are not necessarily equal in and of themselves (Michaud, p. 20). More specifically, they suggest that greater merit should be awarded for achieving results despite having a disability (e.g. physical, psychological, belonging to a disadvantaged minority) compared to achieving the same results without any disability (Michaud, pp. 18-20). Thus, merit theorists see equity as proportionality in rewards and sanctions, while also considering the nuances of proportionality in relation to an individual's overall capacity, such as in public affairs.

Informed by the French-social equity literature, scholars should consider neglected research questions or goals along with suggested methods, theories, and articles or books, listed in the following table (table 4) to enhance the mainstream English-language literature.

Due to word limit constraints, we will not delve into the details of the table's content. However, the first four questions are inspired by Lee and Ospina (2022) and pertain to collaborative governance and accountability. For instance, should researchers choose to pursue the first (1) research question, they can use descriptive analysis along Lee and Ospina's (2022) Framework for Assessing Accountability in Collaborative Governance, and to confirm the best approach to fill the gaps, they can undertake experimental research through surveys. For question (4), process tracing can be used for theory-testing – is hypothesized causal mechanism present and does it function as theorized? – (Beach & Pedersen, 2019, pp. 9, 145, 248, 254, 257) and theory-building – what is the causal mechanism between the cause and outcome? – (Beach & Pedersen, 2019, pp. 9, 269, 272) As for the suggestion to develop and test an Accountability and Control Framework with respect to social inequity dealing, Scholars can combine Narrative Policy Framework (Dunlop et al., 2021; Jones et al., 2014; Kuenzler & Stauffer, 2023; Shanahan et al., 2018) and Agency Theory (Kamuzinzi & Rubyutsa, 2019) which can be applied to a predefined social problem.

Table 4. Research Agenda

Topic	Research questions/goals	Suggested Methods	Suitable Theories	Suggested Articles/books
Governance and Accountability	(1) What are the dilemmas in collaborative governance linked to social inequity dealing?	Grounded Theory; Ethnography	Resource Dependence Theory; Institutional Theory	Mele and Cappellaro, 2018; Conteh and Harding, 2021; Siciliano et al., 2021; van Popering-Verkerk et al., 2022; Lee and Hung, 2021; Lee and Ospina, 2022; Wang and Ran, 2023; Creswell and Poth, 2018
	(2) With respect to social inequity dealing, what is the most dominant accountability deficit, and how to fill the gaps?	Descriptive analysis; Environmental Intervention	Lee and Ospina (2022)'s Framework for Assessing Accountability in Collaborative Governance; Felt Accountability Theory	Lee and Ospina, 2022; Overman et Schillemans, 2022; Jacobs et al., 2021; Kamuzinzi and Rubyutsa, 2019; Bertelli and Busuioc, 2021; James et al. 2017
Accountability and Network	(3) With respect to social inequity dealing, how do network actors manage the tensions between vertical and horizontal accountability? (Lee and Ospina, 2022, p. 72)	Narrative approach	Felt Accountability Theory; Network Theory	Siciliano et al., 2021; Overman and Schillemans, 2022; Jacobs et al., 2021; Kamuzinzi and Rubyutsa, 2019; Bertelli and Busuioc, 2021; Wang and Ran, 2023; Provan et al. 2014
	(4) Do strong versus weak ties in networks impact information transmission, and how? (Lee and Ospina, 2022, p. 72)	Pathway analysis; Process tracing	Network Theory	Siciliano et al., 2021; Borgatti and Halgin, 2011; Weller and Barnes, 2014; Beach and Pedersen, 2019

Social Policy Analysis	(5) Develop and assess an Accountability and Control Framework with respect to social inequity dealing.	Theory Development	Narrative Policy Framework and Agency Theory	Kamuzinzi and Rubyutsa, 2019; Jones et al., 2014; Shanahan et al., 2018; Dunlop et al., 2021; Kuenzler and Stauffer, 2023; Jacob and Schiffino, 2021
Equity in Public Budgeting and Finance	(6) To what extent does Intergenerational Inequity Impact Public Finance Management (and vice versa), and how?	Causal mechanism; Historical Comparison	Public Choice; Compound Theory of Social Equity	Sterdyniak, 2022; Angrist and Pischke, 2014; Frederickson, 2010; James et al. 2017; Jaramillo, 2020; Beach and Pedersen, 2019
	(7) Equity Budgeting in OECD Countries: A Comparison Analysis	Qualitative comparative analysis	Compound Theory of Social Equity	Rubin and Bartle, 2021; Rubin and Bartle, 2023; Thiem, 2017; Quinn, 2009; Frederickson, 2010
Systematic Literature Review	(8) Develop a practical recommendation quality index	Measurement	Rational Choice Theory; Neo-institutionalism	DeVellis, 2017; Flake and Fried, 2020; Goertz, 2020; Russo et al., 2023; Simsek et al., 2023; Thiem, 2017; Quinn, 2009
	(9) What are the determinants of the presence of practical recommendations in academic research papers?	Linear regression analysis; Qualitative comparative analysis		
	(10) What are the determinants of practical recommendation quality in academic research papers?	Linear regression analysis; Qualitative comparative analysis		

This Accountability and Control Framework can help provide insights into the types and forms of control, in public administration, contingent on villains and heroes related to a specific social problem. Questions (6) and (7) are about Equity in Public Budgeting and Finance, and

Frederickson's (2010) book is relevant to tackle those questions since Frederickson (2010) provided an overview of the origins, theories, and applications of social equity. Questions (8), (9), and (10) are linked to practical recommendations and can be taken on systematically. While developing a practical recommendation quality index, scholars need to bear in mind that clarifying and generating relevant items (DeVellis, 2017, pp. 103-104; Flake & Fried, 2020, pp. 460-461; Foster et al., 2015, p. 13; Lambert & Newman, 2023; Notten & Kaplan, 2021, pp. 2-3), determining the appropriate format for measurements (DeVellis, 2017, p. 114; Flake and Fried, 2020, p. 462; Foster et al., 2015, p. 13; Notten & Kaplan, 2021, p. 5), and evaluating the items (DeVellis, 2017, p. 131; Foster et al., 2015, p. 15; Lambert & Newman, 2023) are of paramount importance.

Conclusion

This systematic literature review summarizes the methodologies, theories, and practical recommendations developed in French-language social equity research. We identified, examined, and critiqued peer-reviewed journal articles in French, a language unfamiliar to many, thus revealing an otherwise overlooked resource for non-speakers. Cultures are tied with languages. Excluding articles not written in English excludes cultures, especially in reviews and systematic reviews on social equity. Overall, the results suggest that French-language social equity research differs from mainstream English research by focusing on minority groups other than racial ones, offering relevant but not in-depth practical recommendations, encompassing a small proportion of papers referring to theories, and favoring qualitative methods.

Francophone researchers also publish their findings in English, even more frequently in English rather than in French (Larivière, 2018, p. 348). The findings would be different if French-speaking scholars were to distill their research into French-language journals instead of English. Notwithstanding English as a lingua franca (Blais, 2018, p. 337; Candler, 2006, p. 335; Candler, 2008, p. 295; Imbeau & Ouimet, 2012, p. 60; Kraus, 2018, p. 341; Larivière, 2018, p. 357; Moloney et al., 2022, p. 261; Marcoux, 2018, p. 437), systematic literature review's results highlight the critical importance of knowledge sharing across languages. The characteristics of the social equity literature presented in systematic reviews are colored by the fact that it comes from English-language research, often in the United States.

It is unrealistic for journals to copy the Babel Fish project from the Canadian Philosophical Review where articles are translated into English from the first language of international researchers to fight power imbalances along the "Barcelona Principles for a Globally Inclusive Philosophy" (Bandini & Salay, 2022, p. 199). We highly recommend future systematic literature reviews to adopt the approach used by Moon and colleagues (2014), who translated Korean Public Administration research into English.

For understandable historical reasons, race is a mainstay in the history of the United States. It is to be expected that essays presenting the past, present, and future of social equity prioritize the American past and present (Yu et al., 2023). Other countries have their own cleavage lines that are not race-based: languages in Belgium and Canada, ethnic groups in Benin, and religions and sects in Iraq, India, and Lebanon. Climate change everywhere can of course spur us to consider future generations when contemplating social equity questions, but so can fiscal issues for possibly unsustainable policies and programs that would not be offered at their current levels in the future. Including samples and contexts from different countries is a way to achieve a more global Public Administration. Bridging linguistic scholarly communities with mainstream English-speaking will enhance this process.

In an essay charting three trajectories to globalize Public Administration research and theory, Ashley and colleagues deemed that our discipline could go three ways. The first trajectory is to develop universally applicable theories; the second is to incorporate a broader range of perspectives in Public Administration studies; the third and final trajectory is to extend research beyond national governments, encompassing global governance bodies and organizations (Ashley et al., 2021, pp. 17-18). Our current effort, along with similar ones to come, by translating and synthesizing research topics from Portuguese, Spanish, Farsi, Hindi, and Arabic, into English, can answer globalize Public Administration research along Ashley and colleagues' (2021) first two trajectories. This benefits researchers who read in English and broadens the discussion in mainstream English-language Public Administration journals. This would also encompass local critiques, formulated in languages other than English, of foreign countries. As summed up by Roberts (2024), social equity and social justice are provincial vernacular; in other countries, these concepts are referred to as human rights. These critiques on human rights/social equity, which Western scholars hesitate to express, would be aimed at non-Western countries that do not prioritize social equity in their governmental operations. These criticisms, often unvoiced by Western Public Administration scholars, would be directed at non-Western countries that neglect social equity in their governmental operations. Daily, public servants from agencies, departments, and ministries responsible for immigration identify instances where asylum seekers and refugees faced discrimination and human rights abuses in their home countries. Public Administration scholars should catch up to this when studying and discussing social equity.

Notes

ⁱ Candler and colleagues (2010) define epistemic colonialism as “an uncritical adoption of administrative structures and techniques from elsewhere, especially the former colonial, or current hegemonic power” (p. 837) whereas epistemic nationalism is considered as the rejection of foreign lessons. Epistemic parochialism represents the lack of awareness of knowledge from other linguistic and cultural corners of a literature (Candler et al., 2010, p. 837).

ⁱⁱ Foreign refers to a study conducted in a country different from the country hosting the journal.

ⁱⁱⁱ The sum of the percentage exceeds 100% as there are a few articles that covered more than a management theme.

^{iv} Doubled counting mixed methods in both qualitative and quantitative methods, empirical qualitative methods count is 23 articles and quantitative methods count is 6 articles.

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Author Biographies

Gino Biauou, M.Sc. (gino.biaou@enap.ca) is a doctoral candidate at École nationale d'administration publique (ENAP) Outaouais campus, Gatineau, QC. He holds a master's degree in finance from Université Laval (Canada) and two bachelor's degrees from Université de Moncton (Canada) and Université d'Abomey-Calavi (Benin). He is interested in financial equity.

Étienne Charbonneau, Ph.D. (etienne.charbonneau@enap.ca) is Canada Research Chair in Comparative Public Management and professor at École nationale d'administration publique in Montreal, QC. His recent research delves into electronic surveillance and police management. This is his second research project on social equity since 2009.

