Exploring the concept of Individual Workplace Well-Being:

What does it mean to have workplace well-being and

what is the role of Identity-Related Resources in achieving it?

Part 1 of 2

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I certify that all material in this thesis which is not my own work has been identified and that no material has previously been submitted and approved for the award of a degree by this or any other university.

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Abstract

When exploring workplace phenomena such as well-being, it is important to recognise the context in which the experience takes place. For example, many contemporary jobs require people to interact with others or to work in groups. Therefore, the social dimension of the workplace well-being experience calls for recognition in research. Keeping the social context of work in mind, the PhD programme had two research aims in order to develop current understanding further on what well-being encompasses and what the best ways are to enhance it.

The first aim was to explore relevant components of individual workplace well-being. The second aim was to explore the relevance of two antecedents of individual workplace well-being: Authenticity and social identification were conceptualized through an identity lens as identity-related resources, incorporating the personal self (authenticity) and the social self (shared social identity).

Well-being experience accounts of managers, consultants, and staff from different work contexts were explored in two studies through questionnaires, interviews, and focus groups and then analysed with thematic qualitative content analysis.

The findings suggest that well-being descriptions from people who work are aligned with existing well-being concepts. Furthermore, the social aspect of well-being was indeed highlighted through the frequent use of indicators such as *feeling connected with others*, *high interaction*, and *collaboration*. In addition, depending on whose well-being was explored, different workplace well-being components were referred to in descriptions of the experience. The findings further suggest that the identity-related resources can act as positive, negative, or irrelevant resources for well-being depending on the work context (i.e. job role and work characteristics).

This research indicates that the social aspect of the well-being is a prevalent part of the experience and is not just important in itself but is also for successfully working together with others. Furthermore, any action to improve well-being needs to be tailored to the characteristics of the work context and the workers themselves.

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Preface

The well-being of people who work is an important issue. Organisations have a duty of care to ensure the welfare of their employees (HSE, n.d). Furthermore, there is the belief that workers who *are* well *perform* well (see Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). Therefore, researchers, government, and employers aim to get a good understanding of what well-being encompasses and what the best ways are to enhance it in order to maintain and develop a workforce that is well and productive.

The theoretical and practical context for interest in well-being research

Well-being has come to the forefront of psychological research since the introduction of positive psychology (Seligman & Csíkszentmihályi, 2000) – a shift of focus in research on how to cope with negative events (i.e. stress research) to accentuating positive experiences, such as flourishing in 'normal' conditions. This approach was adopted by organisational research, namely the fields of positive organisational behaviour (POB; Luthans, 2002) and positive organisational scholarship (POS; Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). POB researches human strength and psychological capacities, such as optimism, hope, self-efficacy, and resilience (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). According to POB scholars, these capacities can be developed to enhance performance in the workplace. Meanwhile, POS, which claims to be different from POB, focuses its research on processes of positive human functioning, such as excellence, thriving, flourishing, abundance, and growth (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003).

However, well-being is not a new concept. It has been researched in the last decades with related constructs such as job satisfaction or emotion at work (Fisher, 2010) and coping with strain and stress (Dewe & Cooper, 2012; Folkman, 2011). Human well-being has always been of interest in organisational psychology research. It is an important aspect of an individual's experience and functioning at work (Dewe & Cooper, 2012). Detrimental physical and emotional outcomes of low well-being and stress occur if the demands on mind and body are high for the employee (Lazarus, 1991). In contrast it is presumed that employees who have resources in place can cope with demands and can also thrive and therefore experience high well-being (e.g. Hakanen & Roodt, 2010).

As already outlined, well-being has been carefully considered not only through academic research, as a result of the rise of positive psychology (Seligman & Csíkszentmihályi, 2000), but also because governments are interested in the concept. The UK Prime Minister, David Cameron, recently proposed an initiative to measure well-being as an index of the success of the country in addition to the gross domestic product (GDP; Cameron, 25.11.2010; Office for National Statistics, n. d.). Dame Carol Black undertook an assignment as National Director for Health and Work in 2005, a cross-government initiative to protect and improve the health and well-being of working-age people, called 'Health, Work and Well-Being'. A report on how to achieve well-being in the UK workforce was published (Black, 2008) as part of this initiative. The Government Office for Science (Foresight mental capital and wellbeing project; Dewe & Kompier, 2008) and the Department for Work and Pensions (Wadell & Burton, 2006) have also published reports on

available research knowledge on well-being and stress in order to give guidance to policy makers and other professionals on how to maintain well-being of individuals in the workplace. The government's intention is to reduce costs for the health sector and lessen the impact of low well-being and stress on the economy through lost productivity (Dewe & Kompier, 2008).

Motivation for businesses and the government to invest in employees' well-being comes from several quarters: The belief that employees perform better when they are well (happy productive worker thesis; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001), the employers' duty of care to prevent employees' stress (HSE, n.d.; CIPD, 2010), and the increasing costs of unhealthy or stressed employees (e.g. sickness absence costs; Tehrani, Humpage, Willmott, & Haslam, 2007). Therefore, well-being interventions are popular in organisations. Many businesses have responded to the perceived advantages of such interventions, believing that it makes 'commercial sense' (Institute of Directors, 2006) to invest in employees' well-being. A review of 55 case studies by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC, 2008) for the Department of Health and Pensions suggest that well-being interventions in organisations led to saving costs due to reduced sickness absence and reduced staff turnover, as well as revenue creation through increased employee satisfaction and performance.

Besides eventual benefits for businesses based on reducing sickness absence and increasing performance, the humanistic management approach sees the consideration of well-being as an important part of an organisation's duties. This approach perceives businesses, through their organisational culture, as enablers of human virtues that help their employees flourish (Maak

& Pless, 2009; Melé, 2003). The well-being of employees, or society as a whole, is seen here as an alternative business outcome to profit. The focus is switched from maximizing profit to maximizing stakeholder (i.e. employee) well-being (Pirson & von Kimakowitz, n.d.).

Even though there seems to be high interest in academic and practitioner circles concerning the concept of well-being, the understanding of what the experience of workplace well-being actually encompasses and what the best ways are to enhance it can still be furthered. One of the gaps in current knowledge relates to the social dimension of well-being. Personal elements of well-being are relatively well supported in the literature: Individual workplace well-being components focus on individuals' experienced affect, satisfaction (e.g. Diener, 1984), autonomy, and meaning (e.g. Ryff, 1989) amongst others. Antecedents that are well researched and used to improve well-being evolve around perceptions of demand and control a person has over their work (demand-and control model, Karasek, 1979) and how much social support they can elicit from co-workers (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Personal resources, such as self-efficacy that influence how the individual engages with job demands and resources (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007) are also recognized as antecedents of well-being. As the well-being and organisational psychology literature have been dominated by exploring the individual dimension, consequently there have been relatively few attempts to explore the social dimension on well-being. However, human beings are social beings; particularly at work people often have to interact with others or work in groups. Therefore, the social dimension of the well-being experience and its antecedents calls for recognition. This social dimension of

workplace well-being was explored in the PhD research programme presented in this thesis.

Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into nine chapters including this preface, an introduction chapter, a literature review chapter, a research overview chapter, two chapters on the studies of the PhD research programme, a discussion chapter, and an epilogue. Chapter 1 follows on from this preface by outlining the rationale of the PhD research programme presented in this thesis, that is to investigate the concept of individual workplace well-being by exploring what it means to have workplace well-being and by exploring the role of identity-related resources in achieving it. Chapter 2 follows on by reviewing existing literature on two research aims, that is literature on components of workplace well-being and literature on antecedents of workplace well-being. The chapter also highlights gaps in current well-being research and how the present thesis adds to advancing knowledge in workplace well-being research. As such, Chapter 2 is divided into two main sections.

The first section gives an overview of existing research on components of individual workplace well-being. It outlines the development of the well-being concept from stress research to current POB research before describing the two well-being research traditions of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. It then reviews workplace well-being definitions. Current research approaches to well-being are also explored, including the use of lay

descriptions[1] of well-being in order to establish relevant components of the well-being experience and the use of self-perceptions and other-perceptions of well-being to establish whether similar indicators are used when describing well-being.

The second section of Chapter 2 gives an outline of existing research on work characteristics and personal resources as antecedents of individual workplace well-being. After a brief overview of relevant work characteristics that influence workplace well-being, an overview of resources of individuals affecting well-being is given before the literature on the two identity-related resources of authenticity and social identification is reviewed and the links with well-being are finally outlined. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key research questions and their theoretical background.

Chapter 3 gives an overview of the research programme outlined in the thesis. It does so by outlining in detail the aims and objectives of the research and its design.

Chapter 4 outlines Study 1, which explored components of workplace well-being and investigated whether people highlight different components when describing their own well-being experience as opposed to others' experienced well-being. Are different indicators used? This study extends previous research by inductively exploring the components of workplace well-being from the perspective of people who work, without priming them for a particular understanding of well-being.

[1] Lay descriptions of well-being are descriptions by individuals based on their experience of well-being without being cued for particular well-being concepts. Their descriptions of well-being are based not on theories but on their everyday experience of well-being.

The first section of the chapter gives a brief overview of existing research on lay descriptions of well-being. The difference between self-perceptions and other-perceptions of well-being is also explored. Then the methodological approach of Study 1 is described. Study 1 investigated the components of workplace well-being by analysing reports from people who work using a self-report questionnaire with open questions on their experience of high and low workplace well-being. Participants also comprised some who lead others and answered questions both as individuals and also based on their perception of other people's well-being. The data was analysed through inductive thematic qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2000, 2003) to group answers on experience of well-being in categories of experiential modalities based on which components of workplace well-being can be established. Chapter 4 ends with the description and discussion of the results of thematic qualitative content analysis on components of high and low well-being, and differences and similarities between own and others' described well-being in terms of which indicators are used to describe the experience. The study's limitations are discussed at the end of the chapter before a summary of the findings is given.

Chapter 5 outlines Study 2, which explored the components of workplace well-being and the relationships between identity-related resources and workplace well-being in an emergency service organisation work setting. Different perspectives on well-being are explored. Call centre staff and well-being managers of the organisation were asked similar questions about components and antecedents of workplace well-being. Study 2 investigated the same research objectives as Study 1 but from a different participant

perspective and in a specific work environment. Additionally, it investigated what role identity-related resources play in achieving workplace well-being.

Chapter 5 first reviews research relating to workplace well-being in the specific work environment settings of emergency service organisations and call centre work. Then the methodological approach of the study is described. A deductive thematic qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2000, 2003) was conducted with the narratives gained from focus groups among the call centre staff and interviews with managers. The chapter ends with a description and discussion of the results of the study and its limitations before a summary of the findings is given.

Chapter 6 summarises the findings of Study 1 and 2 before Chapter 7 discusses the conclusions and implications of all two studies in conjunction with existing literature. Implications for exploring well-being in future research are drawn in relation to the relevant components of workplace well-being and the relevance of identity-related resources as antecedents of workplace well-being.

In Chapter 7 firstly, conclusions based on the findings of both studies are discussed in relation to each research aim. Then recommendations for future research and practice are drawn at the end of the chapter.

The final chapter, the Epilogue, looks at the process of exploring answers to key questions asked in this research programme and reflects on the programme's challenges and learning. The lessons learnt from conducting the research and engaging with different narratives on well-being are described, possible future well-being research questions are outlined, and

some critical reflections of the methodology used in well-being research are made.

Chapter 1: Introduction

People's lives are spent mostly interacting and sharing experiences with others; may that be in dyadic relationships with one's life partner, in tightly knit groups such as one's family, or in teams in the workplace. Other people are important to us as we have an evolutionary need for connection (see Cacioppo & Patrick, 2008; Cacioppo et al., 2006) and as social attachments are a fundamental human motivation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Furthermore, groups that we belong to influence the way we think and behave and shape our sense of self (Tajfel, 1972; Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). They provide us with a social identity. Social identity is the individual's knowledge that he or she belongs to a certain group together with the emotional and value significance of group membership (Tajfel, 1972). Social identity research states that identification with a group provides meaning (Pratt, 2001), supports coping, provides social connections, and induces a sense of belonging (see Haslam, Jetten, Postmes, & Haslam, 2009). Lack of attachment or loneliness has been linked to low well-being and illness such as depression (Cacioppo et al., 2006). People also aim to identify with groups as they provide opportunities for self-knowledge (locating oneself within a context), self-expression (enacting valued aspects of oneself), self-coherence and -continuity (maintaining a sense of wholeness across situations and time), and positive self-distinctiveness (sense of uniqueness and positive distinction from others; Ashforth, 2001).

Identifying with a social group also means that the aims, values, and norms of the group shape the individual's cognition and behaviour of the person that identifies with that group (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). In a

related fashion, it has been found that social identification influences next to the secondary appraisal of a stressor (evaluation of available resources to cope with stress; Haslam, Jetten, O'Brien, & Jacobs, 2004) also an individual's primary appraisal of a stressor, as the salient group membership determines whether the stressor is perceived as relevant to self. For example, Levine and Reicher (1996) reported that female athletes found a knee injury more threatening when their identity as an athlete, rather than a woman, was salient. However when an athlete's identity as a woman was salient, a facial scar was reported as more threatening than the knee injury. Taking into account the social identity of a person should also reveal how the group norms and values influence their understanding of well-being.

The context embeddedness of perceptions of well-being has been addressed in terms of antecedents of stress and well-being in organisational psychology literature. In terms of stress, it is recognised that certain occupations have specific stressors (see Langan-Fox & Cooper, 2011). In terms of well-being, Juniper and colleagues (2011) surveyed several public service sector organisations on what central aspects of their workplace well-being are. They surveyed employees about what impacts on their well-being the most. Each organisation (a library, a hospital, and a police service) highlighted different work characteristics. In connection with this, multiple scholars call for recognition of (economic, occupational, organisational, and departmental) context in exploring phenomena of organisational behaviour (e.g. Bamberger, 2008; Johns, 2006; Rousseau & Fried, 2001). Johns (2006) defines context as "situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organizational behaviour . . ." (p. 386). Rousseau

and Fried (2001) state that through contextualisation, observations are linked to relevant aspects that influence the phenomenon that is being studied.

Well-being concepts such as eudaimonic well-being (Ryff, 1989) incorporate the social dimension of human needs as a component of the well-being experience (having positive relationships in addition to experience of purpose in life, environmental mastery, autonomy, personal growth, and self-acceptance; Ryff, 1989) and social support is recognised as a resource to maintain well-being (e.g. Karasek & Theorell, 1990). But there is relatively little exploration of the social dimension of well-being beyond social support (for exceptions see van Dick & Haslam, 2013; Haslam et al., 2009; Jetten, Haslam, & Haslam, 2012) and as outlined, there is only a limited inclusion of social aspects of well-being in definitions (for exception see Daniels, 2000; Keyes, 1998). However, the social dimension in relation to well-being is not only likely to influence how individuals can maintain their well-being (coping through social support) but also how people understand what well-being is, what components of the experience are. Taking a social perspective onto well-being then would suggest to explore identity-related resources of well-being and an identity-related understanding of well-being in addition to the presence of a social dimension in a well-being definition. Based on this social perspective of human experience, this thesis sets out to explore further what individual workplace well-being encompasses and what the best ways are to enhance it. In particular, the thesis examines how current understanding of components and antecedents of well-being can be expanded through recognising the social dimension of people's lives.

This is an important research endeavour for a number of reasons. As already outlined, the current gap in the well-being and organisational psychology literature is the limited recognition and exploration of the fact that social connections are an essential human need and therefore social aspects are likely to be an important component of the well-being experience. The majority of existing research is also limited in the recognition and exploration of how social identity influences how well-being is experienced and described, in addition to being limited in recognising that a person's self consists of a personal and social identity. Therefore personal resources are useful to be viewed through an identity lens recognising the complete identity of a person. The thesis therefore aims to explore possible answers to questions such as the following: To what extent are positive relationships an important component of people's well-being experience? What does own and others' well-being mean for working together? How does an individual's social identity influence what he or she sees as an important part of the experience of well-being? How does people's social identity in addition to their personal identity act as a personal resource for maintaining well-being?

This research provides a contextualisation for understanding the phenomena of workplace well-being. It does so by taking a social perspective onto well-being and recognising it as a contextual aspect that influences the experience and functional relationships of well-being. This is likely to lead to a better understanding of the complexity of how well-being is experienced and of its functional relationships with antecedents. Therefore, this research advances current knowledge in the research fields of well-being and organisational psychology because organisational research calls for more

recognition of context in research as through contextualisation, observations are linked to relevant aspects that influence the phenomenon being is studied (Rousseau & Fried, 2001).

Therefore, in order to develop current understanding on what well-being encompasses further and the best ways to enhance it, the PhD programme had two research aims. The first aim was to explore relevant components of individual workplace well-being by asking heterogenous samples of people who work, i.e., managers, consultants, and staff, for indicators of their well-being. It was explored whether the social dimension of well-being is talked about in descriptions of well-being experiences and how the social context in which the descriptions take place might influence how well-being is experienced and described. The second aim was to explore the relevance of a particular set of variables as antecedents of individual workplace well-being: Authenticity and social identification were conceptualized through an identity lens as identity-related resources, incorporating the personal self (authenticity) and the social self (shared social identity).

The aims and objectives of the research together with the research design are outlined in more detail in a following chapter after current literature on components and antecedents of well-being is reviewed in the next chapter. After that the studies that were part of the PhD programme are outlined and their findings are discussed in the final chapter of the thesis.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This thesis contributes to two areas of organisational psychology and general well-being research: firstly, to the enquiry on components of well-being and secondly, to the enquiry on the role of resources of individuals for attaining well-being. There is on-going research into what components of workplace well-being can (Fisher, 2010) and should (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009) encompass. In a keyword search in PsycInfo[2], *well-being and work and measures* (with search specification of the publication date between 1950 to 2012 in peer-reviewed journals and well-being in the major heading of the paper) yielded 2521 studies investigating well-being in work contexts. The majority of key categories of the found literature related to personnel attitudes and job satisfaction, personality traits and measurements of well-being, investigating links between perceived well-being and work characteristics of people who work, descriptions and reviews of well-being models and measurements in the workplace, and approaches to promotion and maintenance of health and well-being.

The well-being measures used in these studies differ according to (1) positive or negative conceptualisations (e.g. absence of stress or existence of job satisfaction); (2) hedonic or eudaimonic conceptualisations (e.g. pleasure resulting from one's experiences in and evaluation of work, or personal growth at work); (3) the breadth of conceptualisations (ranging from one dimension of the well-being experience, such as positive affect, to several dimensions of the well-being experience, such as psychological and affective well-being); (4) the degree of context specificity (context-free such as life satisfaction, context-

[2] Search conducted on 18 June 2012.

specific such as work satisfaction or facet-specific such as satisfaction with pay); (5) degree of specificity in terms of overlap in terms of antecedents and components that are included in the measure. [The Ryff scales of psychological well-being (Ryff, 1995; Seifert, 2005) measure autonomy, which is an antecedent, and personal growth, which is a component.]

Debate among researchers and practitioners persists as to which components are a central and necessary feature to distinguish well-being from other forms of workplace experience, such as stress, which have been thought to be connected to the well-being construct (Fisher, 2010). Furthermore, different theoretical approaches (e.g. hedonic and eudaimonic understanding) to the concept of well-being lead to an abundance of definitions of workplace well-being. I therefore add to this exploration by investigating descriptions of well-being experiences of managers, consultants, and staff to see what they identify as relevant components of their individual workplace well-being. Furthermore, as most current approaches to well-being focus on a personal dimension of well-being, I will explore the social dimension of well-being. Others are important to us as we have an evolutionary need for connection (see Cacioppo & Patrick, 2008; Cacioppo et al., 2006) and groups influence the way we think and behave (Tajfel, 1972; Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). So the social dimension in relation to well-being is likely to emerge as part of the well-being experience (i.e. might be a relevant component). The social dimension might also influence how different people and groups understand what well-being is, i.e. what relevant components of the experience are. Depending on what social group one belongs to, one might understand well-being in a particular way, being

influenced by the values and norms of the group that shape group members' cognition.

In terms of antecedents of workplace well-being, the role of individuals in shaping their work experience is increasingly researched (e.g. Daniels, 2011; Daniels, Beesley, Wimalasiri, & Cheyne, 2013). One area of study that considers the role of the individual explores personal resources in addition to job resources as antecedents of well-being (Hobfoll, 2002; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Personal resources can buffer the effect of job demands on well-being and independently from that lead directly to well-being by for example satisfying human needs such as autonomy (see Hakanen & Roodt, 2010). However, conceptual and empirical research is still needed to further explore what resources of individuals are relevant for affecting the well-being experience at work. In particular, the social aspects of individual's cognition and behaviour (see Tajfel, 1972; Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008) should be included in the exploration of resources of individuals as people often have to interact and work together with others in the workplace. I therefore explore relevant resources of the individual by reconceptualising two resources through an identity-lens. This identity-lens highlights that an individual's sense of ability to successfully control an impact on their environment is not only informed by personal aspects of the individual (aspects related to their personal identity) but also social aspects of their identity as people have a personal identity and social identities (Social Identity Theory; Tajfel, 1972). Authenticity provides the individual with knowledge about individual values, goals, strengths, weaknesses, etc. (Kernis & Goldman, 2005) and therefore taps into the personal identity as it provides the individual about traits and

skills that make him or her unique. In addition to personal attributes, individuals define their selves through different group memberships (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). These group memberships inform a person's social identity. Therefore, I conceptualise authenticity and social identification as identity-related resources of an individual, incorporating the personal identity (authenticity) and the social identity (shared social identity).

Based on the outlined rationales of the research programme the review of the literature seeks to demonstrate current understanding of the following two questions:

1) What is individual workplace well-being?

2) What is the importance of identity-related resources (i.e. authenticity and social identification) for experiencing individual workplace well-being?

The scope of this review is the organisational psychology and well-being literature particularly on the concepts of well-being, authenticity, and social identity. The focus is restricted to individual workplace well-being (the well-being of an individual in the workplace) rather than organisational well-being or the well-being of groups.

For each of the two questions outlined above, I begin with a brief overview of what is known about these aspects in the literature and conclude with a discussion of the gaps in current understanding. Propositions are then formed on how to advance research determining relevant components of individual workplace well-being and extending knowledge on identity-related resources as antecedents of individual workplace well-being. Following that, the way these propositions are realised in the empirical studies of the present research programme is outlined in Chapter 3.

Section 2.1 of this chapter reviews literature on components of individual workplace well-being and outlines different approaches to conceptualising and assessing well-being. One approach is to study negative experiences by focusing on the impact of stressors on mental and physical health and the experience of stress or the impact of resources to cope with stressors in order to enable maintaining well-being. Another approach is to explore positive experiences by focusing on the impact of resources for an individuals' ability to experience hedonic well-being (i.e. job satisfaction) or eudaimonic well-being (i.e. to thrive). The existence of the different approaches of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being illustrates the on-going conceptual debate among researchers about the components of workplace well-being. Section 2.2 of this chapter reviews the literature on antecedents of workplace well-being. In particular, it reviews how the literature developed from exploring work characteristics as antecedents of well-being to investigating the role of the individual in functional relationships between work characteristics and well-being through the concepts of agency, job crafting, and personal resources. This section also introduces authenticity and social identification as identity-related resources of the individual.

2.1 What is Individual Workplace Well-Being?

This section reviews current understanding of the components of individual workplace well-being in order to find answers to the following questions: 1) How did the well-being concept develop? 2) What does eudaimonic well-being add to the debate about what constitutes well-being? 3) Does asking people about well-being experiences of themselves and others without

framing the questions give insight into relevant components of well-being? These questions are answered in the following five sections. The first section describes how well-being is conceptualised in POB research and discusses how the stress literature adds to the understanding of the well-being concept. The second section then describes hedonic and eudaimonic well-being, the two research traditions of well-being that exist. The third section introduces the domain-specific concept of workplace well-being. The fourth section reviews approaches to determine the components of well-being and the fifth section includes propositions for further research on components of individual workplace well-being.

2.1.1 The history of the well-being concept - From stress to POB research.

As the name suggests, the positive psychology movement has drawn attention to the positive perspectives on work experiences. POB and POS stem from positive psychology (Seligman & Csíkszentmihályi, 2000). Positive psychology states that a shift in psychology research is needed away from the focus on the negative, away from a field that studies diseases and malfunctioning only. Seligman and Csíkszentmihályi (2000) argue that what they add to psychology research differs from previous research as positive psychology focuses on neglected positive experiences and functioning.

The fields of POB and POS emphasise the importance of focusing on positive experiences to study what good work means, how employees can flourish at work, and how to obtain higher job performance (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). POB researches human strengths and capacities such as

psychological capital (PsyCap) that includes the dimensions of optimism, hope, resilience, and self-efficacy (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). These lead to work satisfaction and enhanced performance of the individual in the workplace as found by Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman (2007). POS, a similar field to POB, studies concepts such as resilience and associated outcomes such as growth (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003).

The field of positive psychology and its conjunct disciplines are not without criticism. Lazarus (2002, 2003) denies that positive work experiences have been ignored in past stress research; instead, he argues, positive experiences are studied actually at the expense of negative experiences. Further critics of positive psychology state that the field overemphasises positive emotions or states and might in fact lead to low well-being. The imperative to experience and express positive emotions (Held, 2004) can lead to feelings of guilt or dysfunctional responses if they are not experienced all the time (Fineman, 2006; Wilson, 2009). Fineman (2006) argues that the separation of negative and positive aspects of work experiences undermines the attempt to capture the richness and complexity of experiencing well-being at work. POB and POS scholars, however, argue that increased attention to the positive has been undertaken in order to achieve a balance in researching work experience, as most research has put the emphasis on the negative (Cameron et al., 2003).

In their discussion about integrating stress and well-being research, Dewe and Cooper (2012) outline that a balanced approach is needed. A balanced approach would be that stress and well-being are given the same priority in research and that these research fields are integrated, as both focus

on the same work experience. From this perspective, stress focuses on negative antecedents and outcomes and well-being focuses on positive antecedents and outcomes. Indeed, more scholars in positive psychology, POB, and POS affirm that both negative and positive states should be researched to understand the complete experience rather than just one side (e.g. Aspinwall & Staudinger, 2002; Seligman & Pawelski, 2003; Snyder & Lopez, 2007). King (2001, p. 53), who has done research in the field of positive psychology, notes: “Another pitfall of focusing on positive emotional experience as definitive of the good life is the tendency to view any negative emotions as problematic. . . . Perhaps focusing so much on subjective well-being, I have missed the somewhat more ambivalent truth of the good life.”

An example of a balanced approach from POB is for example Simmons and Nelson’s (2007) holistic stress model. They state that their model “answers the call for the more balanced view of human behaviour that POB must supply in order to be credible” (Simmons & Nelson, 2007, p. 42). They call their model holistic as it includes positive and negative responses to stressors. Distress is the negative response to a stimulus, ending in experienced strain. Eustress is the positive response to a stimulus, ending in experiencing a positive challenge (see also Seyle, 1975).

Stress researchers can also be called to take a more balanced approach. Indeed, Dewe and Cooper (2012) argue that well-being research is a further development of stress research. They state that, in the past the work experience of well-being was studied through a negative lens of stress (e.g. coping with stressors, experiencing strain) while contemporary research increasingly focuses on positive aspects (e.g. satisfaction, engagement,

flourishing; Dewe & Cooper, 2012). Certainly, stress research has paid a lot of attention to identifying and mitigating adverse experiences at work. Workplace stress research started in the late 1970s and was used in public discourse, governmental agency publications, and academic literature to explain negative experiences at work (Wainwright & Calnon, 2012). After substantial progress was made in understanding negative experiences at work, interest shifted to well-being, making sense of positive experiences at work (Dewe & Cooper, 2012). In relation to this, Folkman (2011) points out that stress research started by establishing the harmful effects of stress, moved on to coping processes, in the sense of regulating negative emotions and distress, and then on to building resilience.

Well-being research started explicitly in 1984 when Diener introduced the concept of hedonic well-being, focusing on the identification of positive experiences, i.e. positive affect and life satisfaction. One could argue that stress and hedonic well-being have a strong link on a broader level (Daniels, 2011). Hedonic well-being focuses on positive affective experiences. Stress relates to negative affective experiences. However, there is also debate whether positive and negative affect are opposites of each other (Tellegen, 1985) or indeed distinct constructs (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1999; Russell & Caroll, 1999).

Well-being research moved further in 2000 when the focus shifted from the presence or absence of negative experiences to enabling situations without adversity in positive psychology. So the ‘average person’ (Sheldon & King, 2011, p. 216) rather than impaired individuals were studied: “It is becoming increasingly clear that the normal functioning of human beings

cannot be accounted for within purely negative (or problem-focused) frames of reference". This is the research focus of positive psychology, POB, and POS. Most enquiry focuses on 'normal', i.e. non-threatening, conditions. Positive psychology is the "scientific study of ordinary human strengths and virtues" (Sheldon & King, 2011, p. 216) and focuses on average individuals and how they can flourish.

However, it is important not to isolate the stress and POB research from one another or to focus only on POB conceptualisations of well-being: "[j]ust as studying dysfunction cannot tell researchers how to promote flourishing . . ., studying flourishing cannot tell us how to improve or prevent suffering" (McNulty & Fincham, 2012, p. 107). Also, stress researchers who explore the concept of distress would argue that a certain level of stress is needed for an individual to experience self-development and to flourish through challenges. As Simmons and Nelson (2007) state, if stress does not go beyond an individuals coping ability, it can act as a mediator for flourishing.

However, stress is commonly perceived to relate to adverse situations. But the concept of eustress looks at positive reactions to events in the environment. "If the outcome of an encounter is construed as positive, that is, if it preserves or enhances well-being or promises to do so" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 32), then eustress is experienced. Based on Selye's work on stress (Selye, 1975), Simmons and Nelson's (2007) holistic stress model suggests that any stressor can produce both positive and negative experiences at work. Therefore it can be argued that positive aspects of the work experience have been researched in the stress field and that well-being research as such is not new. However, eustress is usually construed as a

response to demands and stressors if there are resources to cope with them and see them as a challenge rather than a threat. Well-being in the sense of POB, however, looks at ‘normal’ situations and positive aspects mostly. So in terms of antecedents and facilitators, one could argue that well-being and stress might be interlinked but are not the same.

Furthermore, eudaimonic well-being adds to the debate around well-being and stress as eudaimonic well-being is a further development beyond hedonic well-being, in the sense that is moves beyond the presence or absence of pleasure and explores optimal function in terms of self-development and experiencing meaning and purpose (Ryan & Deci, 2001). This has implications for what predictors and resources, in particular, are examined in well-being research. They would include resources that facilitate coping and also those that help individuals to ‘grow’ in non-threatening conditions.

To summarise, both stress and well-being research investigate an individual’s experience of work using different outcome measures. Stress is based on stressor-strain theories that look mainly at adverse outcomes, such as distress. Well-being research measures outcomes as positive functioning. Whether well-being and stress are different or the same on a broad level cannot be answered definitely as hedonic and eudaimonic conceptualisations of well-being would be linked to stress differently as they have different perspectives on what it means to be well and ultimately what constitutes positive experiences and a good life (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Deci & Ryan 2008).

So there are two questions to be looked at when establishing what constitutes well-being: first, as already done, the development of

conceptualisations of this phenomenon in the research fields of stress and POB and their focus on different predictors and outcomes of this experience; second, what the key components of this concept are. The latter is explained by well-being research. These are outlined in the following sections.

2.1.2 Two research traditions of well-being – hedonic and eudaimonic.

There are two different research traditions and therefore two understandings of what well-being is – positive experience (e.g. pleasure) versus optimal functioning (e.g. growth; Ryan & Deci, 2001). As signalled in Section 2.1.1, well-being research in psychology commenced with Diener's (1984) concept of hedonic well-being. Hedonia refers to experiencing pleasure and happiness (Kahnemann, Diener, & Schwarz, 1999). The hedonic conceptualisation includes three dimensions: (long-term) positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction. Based on these three dimensions, the experience of well-being includes pleasure, lack of unpleasantness, and life satisfaction according to Diener (1984). Ryff (1989) integrated psychological growth into a model of well-being, arguing that this is neglected in hedonic concepts of well-being. This extended notion of well-being relates to eudaimonic well-being. According to the eudaimonic perspective on well-being, happiness is not at the core of optimal functioning. Instead, the core is personal growth (Ryff & Singer, 2008). From this perspective, the experience of well-being includes, for example, having meaning and purpose, having positive relations with others, and having a sense of self-development. In the following section, the

two research traditions are described in more detail and relations to workplace well-being constructs are drawn for each.

2.1.2.1 The hedonic well-being concept.

The hedonic conceptualisation of well-being understands it as an experience of happiness, satisfaction, and avoidance of pain (Kahnemann, Diener, & Schwarz, 1999). Diener is a key theorist in hedonic well-being. In Diener's (1984) definition, hedonic well-being has a cognitive and emotional component and can be measured by looking at long-term levels of affect (pleasant and unpleasant) and life satisfaction. These are not present states but the long-term experience of happiness and satisfaction, measured by the relative frequency of positive affect episodes experienced over several years, and an appraisal of one's life (Diener, 1994). The three dimensions of pleasant affect (i.e. positive affect), unpleasant affect (i.e. negative affect), and life satisfaction are distinct but correlate with each other (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). However, Busseri and Sadava (2011) state that the actual structure and interrelationships of the three dimensions remain inconclusive. They found empirical support for them being three separate dimensions, related in a hierarchical order to another, or even linked in a causal system.

Diener (1994) states that if a researcher wants to assess well-being at work, job satisfaction might be a more sensitive measure than a general hedonic well-being scale because it is more domain specific. Extensive research has been done on job satisfaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002). From such work, one can distinguish between general, intrinsic, and extrinsic job

satisfaction (e.g. Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Intrinsic job satisfaction includes features inherent to conducting the work, such as the level of task variety, while extrinsic satisfaction is based on the context of the work, such as satisfaction with pay (Spector, 1985, 1997). The relation of job satisfaction to hedonic well-being is that by indicating whether they experience desirable characteristics of the job, individuals demonstrate their satisfaction.

A definition of hedonic workplace well-being that considers affect in particular is the concept developed by Warr (1990, 2003), who states that there are two principal axes along which workplace well-being can be described: pleasure and arousal. Based on these axes, three key indicators of affective well-being exist: (1) displeasure–pleasure, (2) anxiety–comfort, (3) depression–enthusiasm. Different variations of the hedonic workplace well-being concept exist. For example, Mäkikangas, Feldt, and Kinnunen (2007) suggest a four-factor structure, including only the latter two axes, based on data from a longitudinal study. In contrast, Daniels (2000) extended the concept of affective well-being as he found empirical support that indeed five key indicators capture hedonic well-being at work in terms of affect best. These are: (1) depression–pleasure, (2) anxiety–comfort (3) boredom–enthusiasm, (4) tiredness–vigour, and (5) angriness–being placid.

Shirom (2004) suggests that vigour is an affective workplace well-being experience as it includes emotional as well as physical and cognitive energy (Shirom, 2011). Vigour “was found to represent a unique type of affect, distinct from affects whose core content represent calm energy, such as pleasantness and contentment” (Shraga & Shirom, 2009, p. 273). Warr (1990) and Daniels (200) also include in their concepts levels of arousal but vigour as

conceptualised by Shirom (2004, 2011) makes the distinction between energies in different domains – emotional, cognitive, and physical.

I would argue that measures of hedonic well-being would ideally combine, for example, Spector's (1985) and Warr's (2003) measures in order to capture the affect and satisfaction dimensions as outlined in the definition of hedonic well-being by Diener (1984). I would further argue that vigour should also be included in hedonic measures of well-being as, according to Shraga and Shirom (2009, p. 272), "[f]eeling invigorated denotes a combination of a positive energy balance and pleasantness or contentment". It refers to feelings of energy and power that are referred to in traditional Chinese culture as *chi* – life force, life energy, energy flow (Porkert, 1974). I would argue, this sense of energy goes beyond aspects of arousal covered in other affective measures like Warr's (2003). A measure assessing to what extent people are feeling positively invigorated, high positive affect, low negative affect, satisfaction would capture hedonic well-being fully. However, hedonic well-being measures are usually based on Diener's (1984) definition. Whenever I refer to the hedonic concept or measures of hedonic well-being in this thesis, I will therefore refer to Diener's conceptualization: He conceptualizes hedonic well-being as consisting of high positive affect, low negative affect, and life satisfaction.

2.1.2.2 The eudaimonic well-being concept.

The "eudaimonic approach [to well-being] focuses on meaning and self-realization, and defines well-being in terms of the degree to which a person is fully functioning" (Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 141). This approach stems from

Aristotle's work on eudaimonia, which states that real happiness can only be achieved when one identifies and develops one's virtues and lives in accordance to them (Charles & Scott, 1999; Franklin, 2010).

Similar concepts of psychology that are based on eudaimonia include the fully-functioning person (Rogers, 1961), self-actualisation (Maslow, 1954), Ryan and Deci's (2000) self-determination theory (SDT), and Ryff and Singer's (1995) positive health concept. SDT is often used in current research to explore antecedents and factors of eudaimonic well-being. SDT states that people have three psychological needs that motivate self-determined behaviour, which Ryan, Huta, and Deci (2008) argue to be antecedents of well-being. They are competence, autonomy, and psychological relatedness. A commonly used eudaimonic well-being concept is Ryff's (1989) psychological well-being. The dimensions of her eudaimonic well-being construct are (1) purpose in life, (2) environmental mastery, (3) positive relationships, (4) autonomy, (5) personal growth, and (6) self-acceptance. She builds the concept of eudaimonic well-being based on the research on positive psychological functioning (i.e. self-actualisation, Maslow, 1968; fully functioning person, Rogers, 1961; formulation of individuation, Jung, 1933; and conception of maturity, Allport, 1961; as cited in Ryff, 1989, p. 1070).

Diener and Biswas-Diener's (2009; as cited in Diener et al., 2009, p. 263) also developed a brief 8-item scale (psychological well-being scale) to measure eudaimonic well-being including the dimensions of meaning and purpose, supportive and rewarding relationships, being engaged and interested, contributing to the well-being of others, competency, self-acceptance, optimism, and being respected.

In relation to workplace well-being, Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie (2011) found that the eudaimonic aspect of well-being was emphasised most when people described what it meant for them to experience well-being at work. Few studies use eudaimonic well-being indicators in the context of work however as most use hedonic measures (Fisher, 2010). One example of a study that included hedonic and eudaimonic measures of well-being in a study set in the workplace was done by Ménard and Brunet (2011). They adapted the phrasing of the meaning-subdimension of Ryff's (1998) scale of eudaimonic well-being to a workplace setting. In particular Ménard and Brunet (2011) explored the predictive relationship of authenticity with hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. They found that the relationship between authenticity and hedonic well-being in the workplace is mediated by eudaimonic well-being (measured as perceptions of meaningful work). The relationship between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being is explored further in the next section.

2.1.2.3 The relationship between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being.

Hedonic and eudaimonic well-being seem to be distinct research traditions. But they do not have to be mutually exclusive (Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, & King, 2008). Waterman and colleagues (2008) found that the concepts are interrelated but empirically and theoretically distinct. McMahan and Estes (2011) support this claim. They asked people to describe the components of well-being. Based on an inductive study on these perspectives, they found the following well-being components: experience of pleasure, avoidance of

negative experience, self-development, and contribution to others. The first two components align with the hedonic conceptualisation of well-being while the latter two are consistent with a eudaimonic perspective. Such findings suggest that well-being may consist of both hedonic and eudaimonic dimensions. This corresponds to the notion proposed by Ryan and Deci (2001), who emphasise that well-being is multifaceted in terms of including hedonic and eudaimonic aspects of the experience. They argued that a broader measure is useful to capture subtleties of the experience. For example, in moments of transition in self-development or learning one might experience low hedonic well-being but high eudaimonic well-being. By simply trying to capture the well-being experience with hedonic measures, one might conclude that the person is experiencing low well-being. Indeed, one could argue that they are in fact experiencing high well-being in a different quality of the experience.

2.1.3 Definitions of workplace well-being.

In organisational psychology some researchers argue that well-being measures should be broad enough to assess fully an individual's experience of well-being (Fisher, 2010; Vella-Brodrick, Park, & Peterson, 2009) and concise enough to have predictive utility for outcomes such as work performance (Daniels & Harris, 2000). However, many measures of individual workplace well-being focus on single aspects of the construct and are typically based on the hedonic notion of well-being (Fisher, 2010; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). As outlined in Section 2.1.2.1, these are, for example, job

satisfaction (Spector, 1987), and affective workplace well-being (Warr, 2003), and vigour at work (Shirom, 2011).

However, in recent years additional definitions of workplace well-being have been developed that expand the concept beyond hedonic aspects. In addition, in some workplace definitions also use a mixture of domains. Danna and Griffin (1999), for example, use a mixture of domains and components for their definition of workplace well-being and state that the construct consists of life/non-work satisfaction, work/job-related satisfaction, and mental and physical health in the workplace. The domains they refer to are work life and non-work life. The components they use are hedonic well-being (satisfaction) and health. Further examples are displayed in Table 2.1 (i.e. Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009; Cartwright & Cooper, 2009).

The field can be described as diverse but not unified as different aspects of the concept are emphasised in the definitions. Such heterogeneity is illustrated in Table 2.1 that displays some individual workplace well-being definitions that are commonly cited in well-being research. Most measures focus on hedonic aspects of well-being: Two out of the six of the measures include the eudaimonic aspect. The most common dimensions assessed are affect and satisfaction with some measures assessing both and others assessing only one of the two.

Table 2.1

Selection of workplace well-being definitions

		Definitional elements relate to the following well-being concepts	
Author	Term	Hedonic	Eudaimonic
Wright & Compranzano, 2009	Psychological well-being	Positive affect, negative affect, global evaluation	
Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009	Employee health	Life satisfaction, dispositional affect, job satisfaction, work-related affect	Psychological well-being
Sirgy, 2006	Employee well-being	Life satisfaction, job satisfaction, happiness	
Danna & Griffin, 1999	Well-being in the workplace	Life/non-work satisfaction, work/job-related satisfaction, [health in the workplace (mental and physical)]	
Warr, 2003	Workplace well-being	Three key indicators of affect: displeasure–pleasure, anxiety–comfort, depression–enthusiasm	
Daniels, 2000	Affective well-being at work	Five key indicators of affect: (1) depression–pleasure, (2) anxiety–comfort (3) boredom–enthusiasm, (4) tiredness–vigour, and (5) angriness–being placid	
Cartwright & Cooper, 2009	Psychological well-being	Affect	Purpose

Through growing interest in eudaimonic aspects of work well-being, more research is being conducted on concepts such as meaning of work, thriving, and flourishing (e.g. Kopperud & Vitterso, 2008; Ménard & Brunet, 2011; Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). In addition, workplace well-being concepts that could be seen as referring to aspects of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being are, for example, flow (Csíkszentmihályi, 1992) and work engagement (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002; Bakker, Schaufeli, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2006) also receive wide spread research attention.

Flow is a concept that could be seen as related to both research traditions as it is characterised by high positive affect and by experiencing learning, development, and mastery through being immersed and dedicated in a task that matches one's skills (Csíkszentmihályi, 1992) and through which self-development is also achieved. Work engagement is a concept that could be seen as related to both research traditions as it is characterised by affective and cognitive states at work and dedication and enjoyment of work tasks (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). It encompasses three dimensions: First, vigour, which refers to high levels of energy while working; second, dedication which refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing significance, enthusiasm inspiration, pride, and challenge; and third, absorption which refers to being fully concentrated and engrossed and time goes by quickly.

To summarise, there is diversity and a lack of unity regarding the conceptualisation of well-being as outlined in Table 2.1 due to focus on negative or positive aspects of this work experience (negative versus positive affect in Warr's definition); the inclusion of only one or both aspects of hedonia and eudaimonia (e.g. Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009; Cartwright & Cooper, 2009); and inclusion of concepts

related to well-being (mental health and physical health in Danna & Griffin 1999; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). However distinct or broad the definition is, all term their concepts ‘well-being’. A broad conceptualisation highlights the complexity of the concept. Indeed, it has been debated whether well-being is a distinct construct or an umbrella term (e.g. Xanthopoulou, Bakker & Ilies, 2012) or area of study (Daniels, 2011) encompassing constructs that relate to positive experience and functioning. Fisher (2010) refers to a family of well-being concepts that includes job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, engagement, thriving, vigour, flow, and affect. The constructs capture different aspects of well-being by focusing on either cognition or affect and have a broad or distinct target, such as work in general or a particular work event. Diener (1999) gives a reason for this continuing debate about what well-being encompasses. Several phenomena are involved when defining well-being, as individuals assess different life facets, such as satisfaction with the job, self-development, and experiencing happy moments, when assessing their well-being.

One approach to capture what components are involved in workplace well-being experience is to ask people what they see as part of their well-being experience but also asking about indicators of other people’s well-being. Existing research in these approaches is outlined in the next section.

2.1.4 Researching the concept of well-being.

Warr (2013a) outlines several issues that should be addressed when conceptualising and operationalising the well-being construct. Some of them are outlined as follows: he notes that psychologists focus on psychological aspects of the well-being concept but that the physiological and social aspects also play a role in the well-being

experience. Depending on the research question these two aspects might be useful to integrate when measuring well-being. Danna and Griffin (2009), for example integrate in their concept of well-being in the workplace heath and well-being as outlined in Section 2.1.3. Keyes' (1998) work recognised the social aspects of well-being: "Although the existing models emphasise private features of well-being, individuals remain embedded in social structures and communities, and face countless social tasks and challenges" (p. 123). For Keyes, well-being goes beyond individual aspects of positive functioning and includes appraisals of one's functioning in society. He identified five dimensions of social well-being: *feeling part of the community* (integration); *understanding and caring about one's surrounding* (coherence); *feeling positive towards others* (acceptance); *feeling one has something to offer* (contribution); and *feeling confident about the future in one's society* (actualisation).

The scope of measurement also determines how well-being is conceptualised and measured. One can measure context free well-being (e.g. life satisfaction), domain specific well-being (e.g. job satisfaction), or facet specific well-being (e.g. satisfaction with pay). In addition to the scope of the well-being concept, Warr (2013a) also comments on the positive and negative emphasis of it (see also Section 2.1.1). When intending to measure well-being one has to decide how wide a range of elements one wants to measure in a well-being concept and whether it is advantageous to one's research question to combine positive and negative components of well-being or measure them separately to be able to make comparative analysis. Measuring a wider range of well-being components would also allow examining ambivalence in the well-being experience. A person can feel good in

some respects and bad in others; he or she can experience negative affect but a sense of self-development (see also Section 2.1.2.3).

Dewe and Cooper (2012) argue that the complexity also described by Warr (2013a) calls for more innovative methods to capture this complexity. Diener (1994) also argues that a wider array of measures should be used to capture (hedonic) well-being as affect includes facial, physiological, motivational, behavioural, and cognitive components. Diener and colleagues (2010) for example suggest considering the following methods beyond self-report measures for measuring hedonic well-being: (1) recording nonverbal behaviour; (2) reports by significant others; (3) measurement of hormones and other physiological indices; (4) cognitive measures such as depth of processing; (5) behavioural information; (6) in-depth interviews; (7) mood sensitive tasks; and (8) choice as reflection of life satisfaction.

Another way to capture the experience of well-being is to ask people to state for themselves their level of well-being and ask them to describe (based on their experience rather than on well-being theories) what they base this assessment on. Inducting components of well-being based on descriptions of the experience of well-being can give insight into relevant components of workplace well-being. These so-called lay descriptions of well-being have been studied as they have implications for how one's own well-being as well as others' well-being is judged and how attempts are made to obtain well-being (McMahan & Estes, 2011). How people try to achieve well-being has been found to have an effect on their hedonic well-being. Engaging in activities that provide meaning and feelings of engagement contributed more to the experience of hedonic well-being than engaging in activities that provide pleasure (Vella-Brodrick et al., 2009).

In addition, as well-being research has used mainly self-report measures, some researchers have investigated how these measures might differ from others' (i.e. observers) rating of an individual's well-being (e.g. Sandvik, Diener, & Larsen, 2009). Extending this approach by not just looking at whether judgments converge but whether similar indicators are used to assess own and others' well-being will allow us insight into whether judgments of own and others' well-being are based on the same indicators. Because many jobs require interacting with other people, an exploration into what indicators are used to assess others' well-being is important as the well-being of others' might also affect the interactions between each other and the effectiveness of work conducted collaboratively. The following sections outline in detail how using lay descriptions of well-being and using self- and other perceptions of well-being can give further insight into relevant components of the well-being experience.

2.1.4.1 Using lay descriptions of well-being to describe relevant components of the well-being experience.

Few studies have looked at how individuals describe, without being guided by predetermined construct measures, what well-being is and how they assess whether they and others have high or low well-being. Their descriptions of well-being are based not on theories but on their everyday experience of well-being. These descriptions are referred to as lay descriptions of well-being as people are not cued for certain well-being aspects.

Some studies have explored lay descriptions of well-being to explore what component of the concept are deemed important by people to their experience of

well-being. These are outlined in the following in terms of their research approach and findings.

A study by Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie (2011) looked at whether a definition derived from their inductive research had similarities with existing (theoretical) well-being definitions. They also wanted to find out to what extent hedonic and eudaimionic components are both part of experiencing well-being. To do so, they created an inductive model of workplace well-being from descriptions of people who work and created a questionnaire based on the found components. To create the model, lay descriptions were obtained from 20 critical incident interviews with mainly female Canadian employees from different industry sectors, which the authors did not specify further. The employees were asked to reply to the following: “Describe a recent situation in which you experienced psychological well-being at work” (Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2011, p. 665). A content analysis was carried out on the answers and 80 manifestations of psychological workplace well-being identified. Based on these manifestations a questionnaire was designed and given to 1080 Canadian employees in the paramedical, administrative, and academic sectors. The manifestations were formulated into items based on their representativeness of each theoretical dimension, their capacity to condense the complexity of other items, and the frequency with which they were mentioned during interviews (Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2011). A committee of six employees and researchers discussed the accuracy and clarity of the created questionnaire items. In addition to the newly created scale (Index of Psychological Well-being at Work; IPWBW), 1080 employees also filled in a number of standard well-being questionnaires (Psychological Well-Being Manifestation Scale, PWBMS, Masse et al., 1998; Psychological Distress Manifestation Scale, PDMS, Masse et al., 1998;

The Positive Affect and Negative Affect Schedule, PANAS, Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; and Satisfaction with Life Scale, SWLS, Diener et al., 1985). The authors' aim was to test whether the created questionnaire measurements correlated with standard well-being measures. They argued that from this calculation one could deduce whether perceptions of well-being (80 manifestations based on descriptions of participants) would relate to experiences of well-being, measured by standard questionnaires.

The 80 items of the IPWBW were tested for internal structure validity with hierarchical exploratory factor analysis, revealing a five-factor model. The authors designated these as *interpersonal fit at work* (experiencing positive relationships); *thriving at work* ("accomplishing a significant and interesting job that allows one to fulfil oneself as an individual"; Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2011, p. 670); *feeling of competency at work* ("possessing necessary aptitudes to do job efficiently"; Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2011, p. 670); *perceived recognition at work* (feeling appreciated in terms of one's work and as an individual); and *desire for involvement at work* (involvement of oneself in an organisation to contribute to its functioning and success). Factor analyses also revealed that the five dimensions are related and belong to a higher order construct, which the authors called *psychological well-being at work*. The five factors are solely related to eudaimonic well-being. However, the authors argue that, at the item level, hedonic well-being in terms of job satisfaction and positive affect is included. Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie (2011) therefore deduce that, from a worker's perspective, the eudaimonic sense of well-being is strong. They state in their study that positive emotions and satisfaction result from eudaimonic manifestations of well-being. They acknowledge, however, that longitudinal studies would be needed to be sure of the direction of causality.

Even though Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie's (2011) study is a questionnaire validation study, one can deduce from the section on qualitative data analysis that lay descriptions of workplace well-being include the following components: interpersonal fit at work, thriving at work, feeling of competency at work, perceived recognition at work, and desire for involvement at work. The context in which those components were retrieved from lay descriptions can be described as a situation with no particular job characteristics being primed. Furthermore, the participants were mainly female and from a Canadian Caucasian background, as far as it was possible to determine from the study. The generalizability of the study onto a general workforce is therefore limited.

The aim of McMahan and Estes' study (2011) was also to determine components of general well-being based on lay conceptions. Another aim of their study was to research lay perceptions of well-being to provide insights into relevant factors impacting on well-being. They drafted a well-being scale based on theoretical understandings of components of well-being and gave it to 300 students. The participants had to rate the extent to which they believed that each item was a necessary aspect of well-being and a good life. In order to compare whether beliefs about well-being (measured with the newly formulated scale) coincided with perceptions of actual well-being, they correlated this scale with standard well-being scales: the Positive Affect and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS, Watson et al., 1988), the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS, Diener et al., 1985), the Subjective Vitality Scale (SVS, Ryan & Frederick, 1997), and the Meaning in Life Questionnaire-Presence subscale (MLQ, Steger, Frazier, & Oishi, 2006).

With their self-formulated scale they calculated factor analyses to determine components of lay

perspectives on well-being. They identified four factors: *avoidance of negative experience*, *experience of pleasure* (arguably hedonic well-being components), *contribution to the well-being of others*, and *self-development* (arguably eudaimonic well-being components). Subscales based on these four factors were then correlated with the standard well-being measures. McMahan and Estes (2011) found that there were significant weak to moderate correlations with those scales and deduced that people's conceptions of well-being have an influence on their experienced well-being. Even though this is a questionnaire validation study[3] and the categories were not formed inductively (participants rated the importance of theoretical components for their well-being experience), one can deduce from this study that components of well-being that are deemed important by people include hedonic and eudaimonic components. The sample of the study consisted of young, female, Caucasian university students from the United States of America who rated these components in a neutral environment. The generalizability of the findings is therefore limited to general working population as the latter might have different understandings of well-being due to more life- and work experience for example.

Munoz Sastre's (1999) study on lay descriptions of well-being aimed to find out how individuals assess their own and others' well-being. Their approach was to determine which factors are mentioned by people as antecedents of well-being. A similar study had been conducted in the past by Ryff (1989), who aimed to determine antecedents of positive functioning. These approaches define well-being not through its components but its antecedents. Munoz Sastre (1999, p. 209) asked 490 participants the question, "What does well-being mean to you?" The participants were French citizens who were questioned on the street or in schools in a French

[3] Cross-validation of the developed Beliefs about Well-Being Scale (BWBS) took part in the second part of the study by McMahan and Estes (2011).

town. Women formed 41.84% of the sample and the age range was between 8 and 85 (*M* = 45). Munoz Sastre then used content analysis to form categories of well-being dimensions. Drawing on research literature, she formed (a-priori) coding categories based on the domain of well-being (physical, family, friends, work, money, leisure, personal, and spiritual) and personal dimensions of well-being (acceptance, positive relationships, autonomy, mastery, purpose, and growth). The four most mentioned categories (acceptance of the relationships one has with one's family, accepting relationships one has with friends, accepting one's work, and accepting one's body) were put in one personal dimension, acceptance. The most frequent domains referred to were therefore family, friends, work, and the physical domain. Individuals' answers were matched to theory-derived categories (deductive, top-down approach). Inductively derived categories might have provided a different picture. Even though this study did not derive categories inductively but rather looked at the importance of theoretical components for participants, one can deduce from it what theoretical well-being components people deem as central to their well-being experience.

Another study that aimed to capture lay descriptions of well-being was conducted by Delle Fave and colleagues (2011). This study also aimed to compare national levels of well-being, experienced meaning, and life satisfaction. For the purposes of the present research, only the first part of the study by Delle Fave and colleagues (2011) is described.[4] A total of 666 participants from seven different countries (52.6% male, 41.6% white-collar workers, 74.5% Christian) answered the question, "What is happiness for you? Take your time and provide your definition" (Delle Fave et al., 2011; p. 191). The choice of wording is important as it could

[4] The second part of the study was a national comparison of descriptions and levels of well-being.

influence how the participants respond to the question. Delle Fave and colleagues (2011) state that ‘happiness’ and ‘well-being’ are used interchangeably. In popular literature the term well-being is often substituted with the term happiness. However, the academic literature does not use the terminology hedonic happiness or eudaimonic happiness. Happiness is mostly associated with the concept of hedonic well-being and in particular its dimensions of positive affect (feeling happy) and life satisfaction. Therefore only limited conclusions about the components of well-being can be made from this study.

Delle Fave and colleagues (2011) take a similar approach to Munoz Sastre (1999) and divide the components of a definition of well-being into domain-related and so-called *psychological* components, which refer to the content of the well-being experience. The majority of components relating to the content of the well-being experience were named as *harmony and balance* (inner peace, self-acceptance, serenity, feeling of balance, evenness) and *emotions* (positive emotions). Here again hedonic (e.g. positive emotions) and eudaimonic (e.g. self-acceptance) aspects were mentioned together; the latter more than the former, even though the term happiness was used in the instructions. The majority of participants stated that well-being is mostly experienced in the domains of *family* and *relationships in general*.

The similarities of the described studies are that people include hedonic and eudaimonic aspects in their descriptions and ratings of well-being components. The articulated issue of the divide between eudaimonic and hedonic well-being in the literature (Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, & King, 2008) seems to be not given in people’s experience of well-being. Both are experienced and are seen as important.

That the studies revealed different components of well-being might be due to the studies having taken place in different contexts and having had different

participants of different occupations. The context in which questions about the components of well-being are asked might have an impact on what components are highlighted. A specific situation might be contextualised through experiences of negative emotions and therefore aspects of well-being that evolve around feeling positive emotions or harmony might be highlighted. Different components might also be described if respondents are asked to provide a general description, or to describe components that are frequently experienced in specific context such as when being at work. The studies of Munoz Sastre (1999), Delle Fave and colleagues (2011), and McMahan and Estes (2011) have a similar context as they asked for a description or rating of well-being in general. Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie (2011), however, asked for a specific situation at work.

These studies are differentiated further by the samples they use, in terms of gender, nationality, age, and occupation. These demographic characteristics can also have an impact on how well-being is understood and experienced (gender, Pugliesi, 1995; nation, Delle Fave et al., 1999; Oish et al., 2013; age, Ryff, 1995; occupation, Langan-Fox & Cooper, 2011).

Another important aspect is that McMahan and Estes (2011) asked about antecedents of well-being to define the concept. This highlights a phenomenon that is found in well-being and stress research equally: antecedents of well-being and stress are not always distinguished from components or outcomes. The term ‘stress’ is sometimes used to refer both to the stimulus leading to stress and to the outcome of an experience (Cooper, Dewe, & Driscoll, 2001). As outlined previously, Ryff (1998) defines well-being through a mix of antecedents and components of well-being; for example, one of the components, autonomy, is an antecedent and another, personal growth, is a component. Even though it might be difficult to

differentiate between antecedents of well-being and the actual experience, it is important to make this differentiation in order to establish causality patterns that could be tested in future research.

Based on these studies, several aspects for researching lay descriptions of well-being could be explored further. First of all, a truly inductive approach might allow components to emerge from lay descriptions of well-being experiences, rather than using measurement or coding schemes based on theoretical definitions of well-being. The categories and components should emerge from the data. Asking people to describe indicators of their well-being experience with open questions that do not cue them for particular components of well-being or definitions of well-being would enable to see what prevalent components of workplace well-being might be. In addition, rather than correlating scales based on lay perceptions of well-being with standard well-being measures and testing whether there is alignment, one could check whether the theoretical definitions on which the measures are based on align with descriptions of well-being experiences. The components that emerged from descriptions of well-being experiences could be compared to components that are part of theoretical well-being definitions. Based on these findings one would be able to deduce whether the well-being components referred to in existing (theoretical well-being) scales map onto the components that are contained in descriptions of the experience of well-being. Furthermore, a sample of men and women from a variety of work backgrounds could be used in the research in order to be able to tap into the workplace well-being experience of a wider range of the working population.

2.1.4.2 Using self-perceptions and other-perceptions of well-being to explore relevant components of the well-being experience.

Well-being is not only subjective in terms of rating how well one is (Diener, 1994) but also, for example, is highly subjective in terms of what constitutes well-being (see Section 2.1.2) One can say one is well because one experiences pleasure. However, for others a life with well-being might be more about engagement and fulfilment (see also Vella-Brodrick et al., 2009). King and Nappa (1998) suggest that one's own conceptualisations of well-being influence the interpretation of the existence or absence of the well-being of others. But different people might have different concepts of what it means to have well-being. If the well-being judgment of others is based on own well-being conceptualisation, this might lead to misevaluations.

Studies have looked at the convergence of self-report and non-self-report measurements in relation to well-being. Sandvik, Diener, and Larsen (2009) have found in an empirical study that self-report measures of hedonic well-being converged with measurements based on judgments of others. However, Sandvik and colleagues (2009, pp. 135–6) note that self-report measures have limitations in that:

> [A]lthough self-report well-being scales may be adequate for many purposes, they do not tell the whole story or necessarily contain all of the information a researcher might want or need. When possible, a broader base of measures is desirable to investigate the experiential, communicative, behavioural, and physiological components of well-being, and their interconnections. For example, if groups differed in informant, i.e. observer, report versus self-report assessments, this would point to interesting hypotheses about the processes underlying the two types of assessment.

Indeed, it is interesting to explore whether different experiential, communication, behavioural, and physiological components are picked up on when looking at own and others' well-being. Different but equally important measures for well-being might emerge from focusing on own and others' well-being. Although research has shown that self-report and others-report measurements converge in their judgement of well-being, it has not yet been researched whether similar indicators are used for the assessment one's own and others' well-being. A research question would be whether judgments of one's own and others' well-being are based on the same indicators. This question is important to pursue as one could argue that the well-being of a person influences how one works and engages with others. Investing in the well-being of a person is not just important for making sure this person is well and performs well. It would also ensure that the whole work group, or anyone the person is interacting with in the organisation, is performing well.

Research on perceptions of others' well-being is rare, however. Only one conceptual study by Daniels (2006) has been found, which discusses whether there are differences in descriptions of work characteristics affecting stress and well-being when described by employees or their manager. He argues that different methods of capturing work characteristics capture diverse aspects of them. A job description refers to the latent job characteristic, a line manager's rating to the enacted and the employee's self-rating to the perceived job characteristic. For example, a manager's rating of an employee's decision latitude rates the enacted aspect of the work characteristic. A self-rating of this job characteristic by the employee presents his or her personal preference for it. A similar processes might take place in the use of indicators for own and others' well-being.

2.1.5 Summary of current knowledge on the components of individual workplace well-being.

This section has reviewed the academic literature on components of workplace well-being. I argue that research on stress that preceded well-being research was expanded into considering positive aspects of stress (eustress research; see Simmons & Nelson, 2007) and into well-being research with concepts that are more than the opposite of stress (introduction of eudaimonic well-being concept). Well-being is a combination of feeling good and functioning well in terms of growth for example (Huppert, 2009).

Workplace well-being can be seen as an overarching term that incorporates different aspects characterised by indicators such as satisfaction and flourishing rather than negative indicators, such as distress or coping with stressors. I would argue that workplace well-being is a complex experience with many facets, as studies based on lay descriptions of the well-being experience indicate. It can be argued that lay descriptions can give insights into components of well-being deemed important by people. Furthermore, one's own and others' well-being might be differently assessed with different indicators. An exploration into what indicators are used to assess others' well-being is important as the well-being of others' might also affect the interactions between each other and the effectiveness of work conducted collaboratively.

2.2 Antecedents of Workplace Well-Being

Research on antecedents of individual workplace well-being has formed part of organisational psychology studies for a considerable period of time if one approaches well-being as a workplace experience that has been studied in the past,

for example through a negative lens as stress. This section reviews organisational psychology literature on antecedents of individual workplace well-being and tracks the development of the research through different fields linked to workplace well-being.

Prominent work characteristic models date back to motivation research by Herzberg (1959), Hackman and Oldham (1975) and stress research by Karasek (1979) and Karasek and Theorell (1990). Their models are still being used in organisational psychology and have been extended, for example, by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) in the research field of job design. Within the specific context of well-being these models have been adapted into the vitamin model of work well-being (Warr, 2008) and the ASSET model of employee well-being (Johnson, 2008).

Table 2.2 displays work characteristics that have been identified by the work characteristics models outlined above. This table displays the characteristics grouped according to Warr's (2003) classification. The models displayed do not stem solely from current well-being research but do give indications of how the well-being experience can be influenced. Theories that are not from well-being research stem from the research fields of motivation theory (Herzberg, 1959; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), stress (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990), and job design (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006).

Table 2.2.

Descriptions of antecedents identified in the literature that influence workplace well-being (grouped based on Warr, 2003)

Theory	Oppor-tunity for personal control	Opportunity for skill use	Externally generated goals	Varie-ty	Environmen-tal clarity	Contact with others	Availabi-lity of money	Physical security	Valued social position	Career outlook	Suppor-tive super-vision	Other
Herzberg, 1959 (employee motivation)	Responsi-bility	Growth	Work itself			Relationship with co-workers	Pay, benefits		Achieve-ment recognition	Promotion	Super-vision	Company policy and adminis-tration
Hackman & Oldham, 1974 (work characteristics)		Task identity		Skill varie-ty	Feedback from the job				Task signifi-cance, task identity			
Karasek & Theorell, 1990 (demand-control-support model)	Control		Demand			Social Support						
Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006 (work characteristics)		Specialisa-tion	Job com-plexity, info. process-sing, problem solving	Skill varie-ty		Social support, initiated interdepend-dence, received interdependen-ce, interaction outside the organisation		Ergono-mics, physical demand, work conditions, equipment use	Task signify-cance, task identity			
Johnson, 2008 (ASSET model)	Control autonomy		Overload		Resources and communi-cation	Work relationships	Pay, benefits	Job conditions	Perceived commit-ment of organisa-tion	Commit-ment of employee, job security and change		Work-life balance

Research into what affects the work experience of employees has identified job characteristics that motivate and harm employees. According to Dewe and Cooper (2012), research started with a focus on job design, concentrating on the effects of poorly designed jobs on productivity and health. Later, in the 1960s, the focus shifted to motivation theories. Maslow (1954) explored individual growth and fulfilment though the satisfaction of certain needs. Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory explored job characteristics called motivator variables that lead to job satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job characteristics model followed, claiming that variety, identity, and significance lead to experiencing meaningfulness in the job. In relation to stress, Karasek's (1979) model was influential in exploring work characteristics that lead to experiencing strain. The occupational stress literature argues that employees experience physical and mental health issues due to excessive job demands, coupled with a lack of control over their work and inadequate resources such as social support (Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Terry & Jimmieson, 2001; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). From this perspective, one could argue that the work environment has to be designed in such a way that employees experience enough control and support to be able to cope with job demands. This model was extended with other factors such as social support (Johnson & Hall, 1988; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). New directions were then taken by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) to integrate social context into a work characteristics model, i.e. interactions with others inside and outside work and the broader work environment. By doing so, they added to the existing work characteristics models and considered new mediators and moderators: knowledge, social characteristics, and contextual

characteristics. Warr (2007) also highlights the relevance of context for determining factors affecting well-being in specific work settings. He points out that these differ from job to job and that their significance also differs across work settings within a job. One example is the emergency service occupation (Regehr & LeBlanc, 2011). Typical factors affecting workplace well-being of, for example, police officers, firefighters, or accident and emergency surgeons are shift work and the experience of traumatic accidents (Brunsden, Hill, & Maguire, 2012).

2.2.1 Demands and resources affecting well-being.

As Table 2.2 shows, there is extensive research on work characteristics and their influence on individual workplace stress and well-being. Current theoretical developments divide these work characteristics into job demands and job resources (e.g. job-demand-resources model; JD-R model; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources such as social support are work characteristics that support the maintenance of well-being. In contrast, job demands such as high workload or lack of control undermine well-being. Job resources are defined by Bakker and Demerouti (2007) as physical, psychological, social, and organisational aspects of a job that are required to achieve a goal, reduce job demands and costs, and stimulate growth and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). For example, “[a] central theme of the JD-R model is the link between job resources and employee well-being, thus the JD-R model is not only an extension of the [demand-and-control model] (Karasek, 1979), but also has similarities with earlier motivational theories, using resources at work

as a starting point for positive motivational outcomes" (Hakanen & Roodt, 2010, p. 88).

Warr's (2008) vitamin model of well-being outlines that the same work characteristics can act as demands or resources. The nine vitamins are opportunity for control, opportunity for using skills, externally generated goals, variety clarity, reward, physical security, opportunity for interpersonal contact, and valued social position. The vitamin analogy is used as some work characteristics act like vitamins. They are advantageous to our well-being to a certain degree (resources become demands, like vitamins A and D) or lose their effect once a certain dosage is succeeded (like vitamins C and E). For example, reward, i.e. income, has a well-being enhancing effect only to a certain point and then discontinues its effect (Warr, 2008). Opportunity for control, i.e. autonomy, is positive for a person's well-being. Too much of it, however, can have a detrimental effect on well-being as no structure or supervision is available to support the work of the individual.

The well-being research seems to have made the same development as stress research. The role of the environment was first established by work characteristics models in both areas of study. Karasek's (1979) and Warr's (2003) models and its various extensions established characteristics of the work environment that can function as demands and resources. Then research in the stress field drew attention to the role of the individual in the stress process by highlighting that the interaction of the individual with the environment is crucial in determining whether a stimulus leads the individual to experience strain and distress (first appraisal and second appraisal process; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The research in the well-being field

made the same development by acknowledging that individuals' subjective perception of work characteristics play a role in how the functional relationship with well-being plays out. This research states that individuals are not passive beings that are being solely guided and shaped by their job description or manager. They are active agents in how they perceive themselves in work (e.g. Daniels, 2011; Briner, Harris, & Daniels, 2004). Furthermore, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) state that people actually change the design and social environment they work in by crafting their job and altering tasks and relationships (job crafting). The role of the individual was further extended in well-being research by adding the role of the individual in terms of personal resources (e.g. JD-R model; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007) and advancing research in positive personal characteristics in POB research (e.g. PsyCap; Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010). Personal resources in research on well-being are, for example, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and optimism (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Personal resources as antecedents of workplace well-being will be explored in more detail in the following section.

2.2.2 Personal resources as antecedents of workplace well-being.

As outlined, characteristics of people themselves have been explored as antecendents of well-being. Diener (1994), Warr and Clapperton (2009), Daniels (2011), and Warr (2013b) amongst others point to the relevance of individual characteristics such as personality traits (extraversion and neuroticism) and to cognitive behaviour (such as comparisons in relation to work demands of fellow employees) as antecedents of well-being and there is also research on the role of resources of the individual for maintaining and

enhancing well-being (see Hobfoll, 2002). The study of resources goes back to the 1960s when Caplan (1964) explored how individuals preserve well-being in wartime, highlighting a resource that is an aspect of the self (sense of mastery) and a resource that is an aspect of an individual's social environment (social support). Indeed, experienced personal control and social support have been widely researched in stress and general psychology research, under the terms internal control, mastery, and self-efficacy (Hobfoll, 2002). Other resources of individuals that have been researched widely in psychology are self-esteem and goal pursuit (see Hobfoll, 2002).

Resources in general can be defined as "entities that either are centrally valued in their own right (e.g., self-esteem, close attachments, health, and inner peace) or act as a means to obtain centrally valued ends (e.g. money, social support, and credit)" (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 307). Individuals' resources are aspects of the self that refer to individuals' sense of their ability to interact successfully with their environment (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003).

As POB is a field of growing interest (Donaldson & Ko, 2010), an increasing number of resources of individuals have been explored in the workplace in recent years. The capacity of the resources has not only been explored in terms of coping with stressors but also to create well-being or work-engagement in 'non-adverse' circumstances (Nelson & Cooper, 2007) by facilitating a motivational process. For example, self-esteem not only helps an individual cope with stress but also enables people in the workplace to achieve their work goals (Xanthopolou, et al., 2009). The field now looks at new, emerging concepts such as authenticity (Roberts, Cha, Hewlin, &

Settles, 2009), which refers to the personal identity of an individual (Kernis, 2003). Another concept related to an individual's identity is social identification (e.g. Haslam, 2004). These concepts will be explored further in this thesis as resources of the individual that relate to his or her identity and influence his or her well-being.

2.2.3 Identity-related resources.

As outlined, resources that are available to an individual can be distinguished into personal resources (e.g. self-efficacy) and environmental resources (e.g. social support). Reconceptualising resources available to the individual not in terms of distinguishing between personal resources and environmental resources but acknowledging the personal and social dimension of the identity of the individual allows it to see how different aspects of a person's identity enables an individual to interact with their environment. The individual's sense of their ability to control and impact their environment is not only informed by personal aspects as an individual is embedded in a social environment. A person's sense of identity is constituted of an individual sense of their identity (personal identity) but also the social sense of their identity (shared social identity). This notion is based on the social identity approach. The social identity approach is based on two key and related social psychology theories, social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and self-categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). Social identity theory (SIT) states that an individual's identity consists of a personal and a social identity (Tajfel, 1972) and self-categorization theory (SCT) states that the

social environment cues self-categorization which in turn impacts the individual's behaviour and cognitions.

The social identity approach to stress illustrates how, beyond personal identity, social identity influences the stress response of the individual. The salience of social identification with a group determines whether a stressor is perceived as relevant to the self and whether social support from other group members is perceived. For example, staff who identify highly with their colleagues perceive that emotional and informational support is available from them (Haslam et al., 2005). Social identification therefore leads to a higher perception of social support and the belief that resources are available to cope with a stressor. Social identification acts as a facilitator of social resources but is also a personal resource in itself for well-being. Social identification with a group satisfies needs of belonging and meaning (Pratt, 2001).

The other resource, authenticity, supports well-being through, for example, drawing on strength by being aware of them and having trusting relationships because of transparency in relations with others (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Authenticty is defined as "the unimpeded operation of one's true or core self" (Kernis & Goldman, 2006, p. 344). Correlational analyses (Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Sheldon et al., 1997; Wood et al., 2008) have shown a positive link between authenticity and hedonic well-being. One study (Ménard & Brunet, 2011) using regression analysis found that authenticity was a significant positive predictor variable for eudaimonic well-being (assessed by the meaning dimension).

Considering authenticity and social identification simultaneously shows the contribution of the identity of a person as a whole in enabling interaction with the environment. This also enables an understanding of the relative contribution of each to well-being and their interplay. For example, whether authenticity is a resource for workplace well-being might depend on what aspects of one's identity a person is authentic to. The interplay of the two is however different to the notion of *resource caravans* (Hobfoll, 1989), which states that high or low levels of one resource goes along with high or low levels in another. For example, a person with high self-esteem also possess a stronger sense of mastery and might have high levels of social support. Identity-related resources are parts of a person's identity and interact in the sense that only by using both can the full identity of a person be tapped into. Or as Guignon (2004) puts it: the distinction between inner (what we 'are') and outer (our 'being') cannot be made. The self is more fluid than that.

The concepts of authenticity and social identification are outlined in more detail to demonstrate what each construct encompasses in terms of psychological and social processes in order to explore their relationship with well-being. Aspects of how they might be interlinked in their effect on well-being are discussed in Section 2.2.3.5.

2.2.3.1 Introduction of the concept of authenticity.

As already stated, authenticity can be defined as the unrestricted operation of the true self (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Much authenticity research is focused on the personal self, its self-knowledge and enactment. There is no recognition that there might be multiple true selves as there would be in social

identity theory which states that different group memberships and therefore social identities are salient in different contexts. This lack of recognition of multiple selves might stem from a particular understanding of the self by authenticity scholars. There are essentialistic (inner-oriented experience of self) and interactionistic (interaction with external context) views; the former emphasise an intrapersonal orientation of conceptualising authenticity and the latter an interpersonal (Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). The social domain of authenticity is overtly acknowledged, however, by some authenticity researchers, such as Guignon (2004), Ménard and Brunet (2012), or Kira and colleagues (2012) who highlight that there are intrapersonal and interpersonal aspects to authenticity. In relation to Guignon's (2004) statement that there is no distinction between inner (what we are) and outer (or being). 'Are' refers to what emerges when we look inside (nominal authenticity, Varga, 2012; intrapersonal authenticity, Ménard & Brunet, 2012; experiential authenticity, Kira, Balkin, & San, 2012). 'Being' refers to behaving in accordance with what we have found within our social interactions, which also inform us who and what we are (expressive authenticity, Varga, 2012; interpersonal authenticity; Ménard & Brunet, 2012; behavioural authenticity, Kira et al., 2012). Ménard and Brunet (2012) allocate existing authenticity definitions to the two categories, referring to them as cognitive/intrapersonal authenticity and behavioural/interpersonal authenticity. Cognitive authenticity conceptualisations define it as respecting one's needs and values (Erikson, 1959; Maslow, 1976, as cited in Ménard & Brunet, 2012, p. 90) and self-determined behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Sheldon & Kasser, 1995, as cited in Ménard & Brunet, 2012, p. 90) in terms of showing behaviour based on

psychological needs of competency, autonomy, and relatedness. Behavioural authenticity is, according to Ménard and Brunet (2012), acting based on own values and with integrity based on one's values and beliefs. In the following sections different conceptualisations of authenticity in psychology are introduced and their relations with well-being outlined.

Harter (2002) researched authenticity within the sphere of developmental psychology. She argues that the personal self is embedded in multiple social contexts and that the shaping of the self during childhood is influenced by significant others. The behaviour of significant others and their communicated norms and values influence the child's view of how to perceive itself and the world. These early experiences are the basis for distorting behaviour based on the 'true' self. She sees a potential for constructing a false self if dependence is high on interactions with others. This can lead to incorporating opinions of others that do not correspond with actual experience. It can also lead to suppression of the individual's own opinions. There are different motivations for false self-behaviour. These include not being sure who one is, testing behaviours to discover who one is, and not liking the true self (Harter, Marold, Whitesell, & Cobbs, 1996). Harter (2002) has measured authenticity by interviewing people about how they perceived their authenticity throughout childhood and adulthood development. Parents and peers of the person were also interviewed regarding the person's ability to show authentic self-behaviour, about knowledge of the authentic self, and about motives for false self-behaviour.

Extending the research on children to adults, Kernis and Goldman (2006) created a definition of authenticity with four dimensions that are similar

to Harter's components of authentic self-behaviour and knowledge of the authentic self. Kernis and Goldman (2006, p. 344) define authenticity as "the unimpeded operation of one's true or core self in one's daily enterprise". They outline and describe four dimensions of authenticity: (1) self-awareness, (2) unbiased processing, (3) authentic behaviour, and (4) authentic orientation towards interpersonal relationships. Self-awareness refers to awareness of and trust in one's own personal characteristics, values, motives, feelings, and cognitions and should be predicated by a positive self-concept. Unbiased processing is characterised by an openness to evaluate desirable and undesirable self-aspects without denying, exaggerating, or ignoring knowledge and experiences. Authentic behaviour means that people are transparent in their actions, in the sense that they act in accordance with their innate values, preferences, and needs and not because of avoidance of punishment or to please others (Kernis, 2003). An authentic orientation towards interpersonal relationships refers to an active process of self-disclosure, which leads to development of trust between people.

This conceptualisation of authenticity is based on Kernis' (2003) theory of optimal self-esteem. According to this theory, high self-esteem is unstable and fragile and associated with low levels of self-worth. Optimal self-esteem is stable and does not need continual external reassurance. This kind of self-esteem is based on having higher levels of authenticity (Kernis, 2003). For Kernis, authenticity leads to an optimal self-esteem that is genuine, true and stable, in contrast to a more unstable high self-esteem that is defensive and contingent. People with optimal self-esteem know and accept themselves with

all their strengths and weaknesses. Their optimal self-esteem allows them to function in a healthy way.

Kernis and Goldman (2006) argue that the components of authenticity are separate but related. They also state that the self-awareness component is the most important component in the authenticity concept and is the basis for authentic behaviour and authentic relational orientation. Also, it is possible that in a situation where there are pressures to not enact one's true self, the person is still aware and able to process information about oneself without bias. Kernis and Goldman (2006) maintain that there are different levels of authenticity. Thus an individual is not just authentic or inauthentic but can express different levels of authenticity. They also argue that authenticity can be developed.

Based on their four-dimensional concept of authenticity, Kernis and Goldman (2006) developed a psychometric scale. The *AUT3* measures each dimension with 10 to 12 items, e.g.: 'I am often confused about my feelings' (reverse coding, self-awareness); 'I am very uncomfortable objectively considering my limitations and shortcomings' (reverse coding, unbiased processing); 'I find that my behavior typically expresses my values' (authentic behaviour); 'I want people with whom I am close to understand my strengths' (authentic relational orientation). A substantial number of the items (22 out of 45) are reverse coded, meaning that inauthenticity is queried.

Another approach to the concept of authenticity based mainly on both, the lack and presence of authentic behaviour, stems from Wood and colleagues (2008). Arguing that most research has looked at interpersonal rather intrapersonal aspects of authenticity, they distinguish their authenticity

concept as focusing on personal characteristics of the individual. They conceptualise authenticity as the consistency between individuals' self-awareness, their experience, and their behaviour. The dimensions of their authenticity concept are: (1) self-alienation, (2) authentic living, and (3) accepting external influences. The first relates to the mismatch of conscious awareness and actual experience; the second to behaving and expressing emotions according to the conscious awareness of physiological states, emotions, beliefs, and cognitions; the third relates to social interaction with others and accepting external influences arising from those interactions.

Wood and colleagues' (2008) authenticity measurement scale consists of 12 items with four items per dimension. Examples of the items are: 'Do you feel as if you don't know yourself very well?' (reverse coding, self-alienation); 'I always stand by what I believe in' (authentic living); 'I usually do what other people tell me to do' (reverse coding, accepting external influences).

A third approach to authenticity looks at the relationship between 'true self' and 'trait self' in order to explore the meaning of authenticity. Sheldon and colleagues (1997) acknowledge that there are two different views of the self. Authenticity or true self relates to behaving in a role in a way that feels personally expressive or self-determined (true self). Trait self means that an individual has a specific constellation of personality traits (e.g. Big 5; Costa & McCrae, 1995) that are stable and expressed consistently across roles and time. According to Costa and McCrae (1995), it can be argued that these traits not only characterise us but are our 'selves'. Being true to oneself would mean behaving in accordance to this trait constellation. So there are two concepts of being true to oneself, according to Sheldon and colleagues

(1997): feeling authentic and self-expressive across roles (humanistic and phenomenological models – true self) or showing consistent trait profiles across different roles (trait theory – trait self). The latter view, however, neglects the social-contextual influence on thinking and behaviour. Social-contextual perspectives on personality claim that people vary in the personality traits they show in different roles (Donahue, Robins, Roberts, & John, 1993). For example, it has been found that people are generally more extrovert with friends, more neurotic as students, and more conscientious as employees. Still, there is a strong role-consistency (Donahue et al., 1993). So the Big 5 cannot be a complete explanation of the true self (Sheldon et al., 1997). Sheldon and colleagues (1997) therefore see authenticity as behaviour that is experienced as determined or authored by the self (connection to self-determination theory). They argue that if people feel constrained and controlled by a situation, they do not feel that they can behave authentically and therefore show different personality traits than in roles where they feel comfortable enough to be genuine.

In a series of studies Sheldon and colleagues (1997) investigated how people express themselves and their personality traits across different roles and related it to well-being and authenticity self-ratings. Research on self-concept differentiation had shown that consistency in expression of traits in different role-selves was linked with higher levels of satisfaction (Donahue et al., 1993). They compared five different roles, examining which personality traits the individual displayed in each and the consistency of expressive behaviour across the roles. Individuals' self-rated authenticity was also measured. Sheldon and colleagues (1997) found that high trait consistency

across roles were positively correlated with felt authenticity in the roles. Sheldon and colleagues (1997) measured the authenticity felt in each role with the following items: ‘I experience this aspect of myself as an authentic part of who I am’, ‘This aspect of myself is meaningful and valuable to me’, ‘I have freely chosen this way of being’, ‘I am only this way because I have to be’ (reverse coded), and ‘I feel tense and pressured in this part of my life’ (reverse coded, p. 1383).

To summarise, different scholars conceptualise authenticity in different ways but they all refer to either intra- or interpersonal perspectives on individual authenticity. They either focus on intrapersonal processes such as self-awareness or self-alienating behaviour, or on interpersonal behaviour, such as transparent and (authentic) behaviour towards others. The psychological authenticity concepts described earlier relate to both. Harter (2002) refers to an authenticity concept in the sense of being able to express individual identity through self-awareness values and beliefs and their expression. Kernis and Goldman (2006) understand authenticity as healthy functioning integrating self-knowledge and authentic behaviour. Sheldon and colleagues (1997) refer to authenticity as self-determined trait expression consistency across different social roles or situations.

2.2.3.2 The link between authenticity and well-being.

As Kernis and Goldman (2006) understand authenticity in relation to healthy functioning, they have done research on the link between authenticity and well-being. They found positive correlative relationships between authenticity and well-being related variables, such as positive affect, satisfaction, self-

actualisation, and vitality. Other empirical research that has been done on the link between authenticity and well-being, is outlined in this section.

A study by Kernis and Goldman (2002) found that the subscales of authenticity had different correlative links with positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction. Life satisfaction, for example, had positive correlations with all scales of the authenticity measure. The correlation with the scale of authentic behaviour was not significant. Negative affect was linked negatively to self-awareness and authentic relational orientation (Goldman & Kernis, 2002). Wood and colleagues (2008) investigated whether the dimensions of their authenticity scale were correlated with well-being. They found that each subscale was correlated with hedonic and eudaimonic well-being (Wood et al., 2008). For the hedonic well-being they found that authentic living is positively correlated to positive affect and life satisfaction and negatively correlated to negative affect. The authenticity components of accepting external influence and self-alienation (indicators of inauthenticity) were negatively correlated to positive affect and life satisfaction and positively correlated to negative affect. For eudaimonic well-being, authentic living was positively correlated to the eudaimonic well-being components of autonomy, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, personal growth, purpose in life, self acceptance, and gratitude. For the authenticity components of accepting external influences and self-alienation, the correlations with the eudaimonic well-being components were negative.

As seen in the literature, empirical claims, based on correlational analysis, are made that authenticity is an important factor affecting well-being (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 2008; Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Wood et al., 2008;

Sheldon et al., 1997). Further, unidirectional links are claimed but it is likely that feedback loops occur between authenticity and well-being. Feeling satisfied and having a sense of purpose and meaningful relationships that might be the result of behaving authentically might also encourage further development of authenticity. Mediator models are also possible. Ménard and Brunet (2011), for example, found evidence that the relationship between authenticity and (hedonic) well-being in the workplace is mediated by perceptions of meaningful work. They state that this finding goes along with the notion exerted by Csikszentmihalyi (1992) who states that engaging in meaningful leads to a healthy functioning and well-being.

Ménard and Brunet's (2011) study is one of the few that empirically examine the link between authenticity and eudaimonic well-being rather than hedonic well-being alone. However, the link between authenticity and eudaimonic well-being has been explored in conceptual research. In a theoretical paper, Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang (2005) showed that all dimensions of eudaimonic well-being can be mapped onto the components of authenticity. They outline the links between each dimension of eudaimonic well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995) and authenticity (Kernis & Goldman, 2006) in their paper as follows: Self-awareness refers to awareness of and trust in own personal characteristics, values, motives, feelings, and cognitions. It has been found that self-awareness is positively correlated with self-esteem (Goldman & Kernis, 2002). Furthermore Ryff and Keyes (1995) argue that self-awareness should increase self-acceptance, autonomy, and environmental mastery (part of eudaimonic well-being's dimension of sense of self-determination). It should also lead to more opportunities for personal

expressiveness and flow, because knowing oneself allows one to seek challenges that match skills (Ilies et al., 2005). However, this latter relationship only holds true if the individual has autonomy over choosing tasks and challenges.

Unbiased processing is characterised by not denying or exaggerating knowledge, experiences, and evaluations of oneself by others (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). According to Ilies and colleagues (2005), this is the core of integrity and character that influences decision-making and well-being. The ability to process feedback accurately means that skills are better estimated and self-challenging situations can be successfully sought. Unbiased processing should therefore lead to environmental mastery through accurate feedback processing and better estimation of own skills.

Authentic behaviour means that people act in accordance with their innate values, preferences, and needs, and not to avoid punishment or to please others (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Definitions of eudaimonic well-being and eudaimonia in general include behaving in accordance with one's true daimon (true self) and with one's aim in life (Waterman, 2008). It can therefore be proposed that authentic behaviour leads to eudaimonic well-being (Ilies et al., 2005).

Authentic relational orientation (which signifies authentic relationships) is an active process of self-disclosure that leads to the development of trust between people (Ilies et al., 2005). This then should lead to positive and meaningful relationships with others, which is one of the dimensions of eudaimonic well-being.

Drawing conceptual links between authenticity and multiple aspects of well-being. In the following paragraphs, I draw conceptual links between authenticity and multiple well-being concepts based on the reviewed conceptual and empirical well-being and organisational psychology literature. I expand the scope of exploring relationships between authenticity and well-being beyond hedonic and eudaimonic well-being by including the concepts of vigour, work engagement, and flow. I do this as Fisher (2010) outlines that concepts that are related to individual well-being at work are job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, engagement, thriving and vigour, flow and intrinsic motivation, and affect at work. I would argue that these concepts can be narrowed down to hedonic well-being (job satisfaction, affect at work), eudaimonic well-being (organisational commitment in the sense of sharing goal and values with organisation, thriving in terms of self-development, intrinsic motivation in terms of experiencing meaning and purpose at work), vigour, work engagement, and flow.

Hedonic well-being. Having authenticity means having self-knowledge and being able to seek fitting tasks and relationships (Kernis & Goldman, 2006) that are likely to lead to experiencing success and positive social encounters. Authenticity also means having close relationships, thanks to the transparency and sincerity of relations. These are likely to lead to heightened positive affect, life satisfaction, and lowered negative affect. Empirical research outlined in previous paragraphs shows that there is a positive correlative relationship between authenticity and positive affect and life

satisfaction and a negative correlative relationship of authenticity with negative affect (Kernis & Goldman, 2002, 2006).

Eudaimonic well-being. One aspect of being authentic is to be aware of one's needs, values, strengths, and weaknesses (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). One aspect of eudaimonic well-being is experiencing personal growth and environmental mastery. Authenticity contributes to growth and the ability to control one's environment by being aware of one's strengths, weaknesses, and aims in life. By knowing what one is good at and what one wants to achieve, fitting tasks and environments can be sought out. Therefore, it is likely to lead to eudaimonic well-being.

As previously outlined, in a conceptual paper, Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang (2005) proposed that all dimensions of eudaimonic well-being can be mapped onto the components of authenticity and therefore presume that intra- and interpersonal aspects of authenticity should lead to eudaimonic well-being. However, there is only sparse empirical research on the link between authenticity and eudaimonic well-being. Sheldon and colleagues (2002) found a positive predictive relationship between being self-concordant in one's goal pursuit and eudaimonic well-being. With regression analysis Ménard and Brunet (2011) found a predictive relationship between authenticity and eudaimonic well-being. However, the latter was only measured in one out of six dimensions (meaning). Wood and colleagues (2008) found that authentic living was positively correlated to the eudaimonic well-being components of autonomy, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, personal growth, purpose in life, self acceptance, and

gratitude. For the authenticity components of accepting external influences and self-alienation, the correlations with the eudaimonic well-being components were negative.

Vigour, work engagement, and flow. Vigour, work engagement, and flow focus on being involved and having positive cognitive and emotional dynamic experiences while working. It can be hypothesised that authenticity leads to vigour, work engagement, and flow due to the two components of the intrapersonal authenticity concept. Self-awareness and unbiased processing could lead to an awareness of what one likes to do (tasks) and what one is good at (talents). If authenticity is achieved, the individual can actively decide which tasks to take on (Ilies et al., 2005); engagement in the task, flow, and cognitive vigour are then likely to be shown. If one has has to work together with others on task, interpersonal authenticity could lead to interpersonal aspects of vigour (emotional vigour) and work engagement (engaging and dedicating oneself to the work with others) and create an environment where flow experiences are supported by matching each other's skills with the task.

Kernis and Goldman (2006) found a positive correlative relationship between authenticity and vitality and Sheldon and colleagues (2002) found a positive predictive relationship of working towards goals that are concordant with what a person sees as important for experiencing vitality.

2.2.3.3 Introduction of the concept of social identification. Social identity research has provided a useful approach to gain insights into organisational behaviour (Haslam, 2004). Research on social identification in

the workplace has shown that high identification with the workplace and its groups, such as departments, teams, or the organisation as a whole, has an influence on an individual's cognitions and behaviours (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008), such as work motivation and performance (but only if high performance is perceived to be in the group's or organisation's interest; van Knippenberg, 2000). There has also been research on the influence of social identification on the experience of stress (Haslam & van Dick, 2011) and well-being (van Dick & Haslam, 2012). In this section the concept of social identification and research on its role for workplace well-being is reviewed. In the following sections, the concept of social identity and social identification are outlined in more detail first and then research on social identification is outlined as an antecedent of stress and well-being at work.

As already outlined in Section 2.2.3, as there is a social dimension in our lives, social identity theory argues that, in addition to personal attributes, individuals define their selves through different group memberships (Tajfel & Turner, 1979); people have a personal identity and social identities. Social identification can be defined as the extent to which a person identifies with a particular social group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Social identity, then, is the individual's knowledge that they belong to a certain group together with the emotional and value significance of group membership (Tajfel, 1972). Different group memberships are salient in different contexts depending on whether they can provide a positive and enhancing distinction from other groups. Each group has norms, values, and behaviours 'attached' to it that provides standards that lead group members in how to interpret and behave in the (social) world.

Belonging to groups also means that separation takes place. Individuals divide the world into groups they belong to (in-groups) and groups they do not (out-groups). This process of self-other categorisation is used to systematise the social surrounding of people into ‘us’ and ‘them’ (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This provides the basis to ‘‘create and define the individual’s place in the society’’ (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, p. 38). While social identity theory (SIT; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) focuses on the motivational processes of belonging to a group and deriving positive self-esteem, self-categorization theory (SCT; Turner et al., 1987) emphasises the cognitive processes that form the basis for categorisation of the self and others. Self-categorization provides individuals with a social identity that is part of their self-concept. According to SCT, an individual’s self-concept can be defined along a continuum of personal to social identity. There are different levels of self-categorization (Turner et al., 1987). The most general is belonging to the human species. The middle level is the level where in-group and out-group are prevalent. Those in-groups and out-groups are formed on the basis of perceived similarities and dissimilarities between ‘humans’. The lowest level is personal identity, which is defined through characteristics that distinguish individuals from their in-group and mark them as unique. It is important to note that there are several levels of social identity but, according to the principle of functional antagonism (Haslam, 2004), only one level can be salient at any one time (e.g., I see myself either as a student, a management student, or a critical management student as a function of the context in which I am defining myself and others). In SCT, activation of a meaningful social identity brings about depersonalisation, a process of self-stereotyping whereby one’s

social identity is internalised, and one's self is seen as interchangeable with other in-group members and distinct from out-group members. Thus while interpersonal behaviour would be guided by a salient personal identity, intergroup behaviour would be framed by a salient social identity.

Some authors say that the term *self* refers to the personal level and *identity* to the social level (Ashmore & Jussim, 1997). But Haslam (2004, p. 31) notes:

> [S]elf-categories at all levels of abstraction are seen to be equally 'real' and just as much a reflection of a person's 'true' self. No one level of self-categorization is inherently more appropriate or useful than another. . . . This proposition is at odds with a general tendency for psychological theorising to give privileged status to personal identity – believing that a person's true *self* is defined by their individuality.

2.2.3.4 The link between social identification and workplace well-being.

As previously outlined, social identification can be seen as a facilitator of resources that help to cope with stress. Haslam and van Dick (2011, p. 327) highlight that "[g]roup life plays a key role in shaping the psychology of stress through its capacity to inform and structure our sense of self – and the sense of belonging, worth, purpose, and potential that goes with it". It has been found that social identification influences an individual's primary appraisal of a stressor, as the salient group membership determines whether the stressor is perceived as relevant to self. Levine and Reicher (1996) reported that female athletes found a knee injury more threatening when their identity as an athlete

rather than a woman was salient. However when an athlete's identity as a woman was salient, a facial scar was reported as more threatening than the knee injury. A study by Haslam and colleagues (2004) revealed that group membership within occupations determines how stressful a task is perceived to be (i.e., primary appraisal). For example, if members of the in-group framed a stressor as a challenge rather than an unattainable goal, individual group members were more likely to conceive of the task as a challenge because the fellow in-group members were perceived as qualified to give information about the meaning of the task. A study by Haslam and others (2005) showed that social identification also influences secondary appraisal, i.e. coping with a stressor, by making emotional and informational support available. Staff who identified highly with their colleagues perceived that their colleagues gave emotional and informational support as needed (Haslam et al., 2005).

Thus, there are different elements of the relationship between social identification and the experience of stress. First, social identification plays a role in the primary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) of a stressor where it is determined whether the stressor has any meaning for the self and will therefore be threatening to one's well-being. Here attention is paid to the self as a member of a salient group in order to evaluate the relevance of the stressor in relation to the in-group values and norms. Second, social identification plays a role in the secondary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) by making social resources provided by in-group members visible and available. Here the attention is on the social/depersonalised level of the self. Finally, social identification itself is a resource to deal with stressors and maintain well-being. Being part of a group provides a sense of belonging and

meaning, which facilitates the experience of well-being. Here again attention is paid to the depersonalised level of the self. The self becomes extended to incorporate members of the in-group.

These findings on the relationships of social identification and stress have implications for workplace well-being. Colleagues and the organisation itself provide a sense-making context for stressors and function as a potential social support resource base as outlined above. Therefore, well-being can be maintained through coping. Furthermore, people who identify strongly with their organisation or work groups derive a sense of well-being in the workplace through satisfaction of their need to belong and do meaningful work (Pratt, 2001). Van Dick and Haslam (2012) also argue that a shared identity creates a basis for positive interactions. Self-enhancement comes through belonging to a well-regarded institution (Abrams & Hogg, 2001). However, research into the role of social identification when the in-group is a 'devalued social group' shows that social identification can also have negative effects on well-being through, for example, perceived discrimination that would be a result of being part of a devalued group (Schmitt & Branscombe, 2002; Sharma & Sharma, 2010).

Drawing conceptual links between social identification and multiple aspects of well-being. In the following subsections I outline the relationships of social identification and various aspects of well-being with the example of work group identification in order to illustrate how social identification can be linked to well-being. In the workplace other social identifications exist such as identification with the organisation or identification with the occupation. Work

group identification was chosen as an example here as this one of the aspects of social identification in the workplace that will be examined in Study 2. The outline is based on the already described conceptual and empirical research.

Hedonic well-being. Social identity research states that identification with a group provides meaning (Pratt, 2001), supports coping, provides social connections, and induces a sense of belonging (Haslam et al., 2009). Furthermore, the group can provide self-esteem and self-worth through positive distinction from other groups (see Rubin & Hewstone, 1998). High positive affect, high life satisfaction, and low negative affect should be the outcome of these beneficial circumstances of the group to which the individual feels an emotional and cognitive connection.

Eudaimonic well-being*.* Characteristics of work group identification, such as the provision of meaning (Pratt, 2001), support and social connections (Haslam et al., 2009), should contribute to eudaimonic well-being, as the latter is characterised by having meaning and purpose in life and having supportive and rewarding relationships (Ryff, 1995).

Vigour. Social identification motivates group members to work in the interest of the group, as individuals take on the group goals as their own. Vigour is defined as emotional, cognitive, and physical energy or liveliness (Shirom, 2010). Work group identification can lead to cognitive liveliness if the group norm is that the group work task has to be completed successfully.

Vigour in general is likely to be influenced by work group identification; Terry and colleagues (2000) found that workplace group cohesion predicts vigour.

Work engagement*.* Through identification with the work group, the task the group has to complete becomes relevant and meaningful to the individual (van Knippenberg, 2000). People show commitment to and engagement in tasks that are relevant and meaningful to them. Therefore, it is likely that work group identification is a positive predictor for work engagement. In a review of empirical studies investigating the link between organisational identification, motivation, and performance at work, van Knippenberg (2000) found that a salient organisational identity is positively related to motivation to exert effort.

Flow*.* Through identification with a group, individuals take on the group goals as their own. One condition of flow is that the activity has a clear set of goals and that challenges and skills are matched (Csíkszentmihályi, 1992). As I argued earlier, work group identification is likely to lead to flow as individuals take on the group goals as their own. If a task is important and the individual has the right skills, flow is experienced (see Csíkszentmihályi, 1992).

2.2.3 Summary of current knowledge on antecedents of workplace well-being.

This section reviewed the academic literature on antecedents of workplace well-being. I argue that well-being research, like stress research explored first work characteristics as antecedents of well-being. Models were then

developed that distinguished work characteristics as demands and resources for well-being (e.g. Warr, 2008). Then conceptual and empirical research drew attention to the role of the individual in the functional relationship between antecedents and well-being by acknowledging that individuals' subjective perception of work characteristics play a role in how the functional relationship with well-being plays out (e.g. Briner, Harris, & Daniels, 2004). Furthermore, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) stated that people engage in job crafting. They actively change the design and social environment they work in by altering tasks and relationships. The role of the individual was further extended in well-being research by exploring personal resources that contribute to a person's well-being (e.g. JD-R model; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). I then argued that authenticity and social identification should be considered as resources of individuals as empirical links to well-being have been established (see Sections 2.2.3.2 and 2.2.3.4). I further argued that both should be considered simultaneously as identity-related resources in order to tap into the full identity of a person.

2.3 Summary of Key Research Questions and their Theoretical Background

The literature review outlined current research to explore the following two questions:

1) What is individual workplace well-being?

Based on the reviewed the academic literature on components of workplace well-being, I argue that well-being is a combination of feeling good (hedonic well-being), functioning well for example in terms of growth (eudaimonic well-

being), and involves experiences of energy (vigour, work engagement, flow). Workplace well-being can be seen as an overarching term that incorporates different aspects characterised by indicators such as satisfaction and flourishing rather than negative indicators, such as distress or coping with stressors. I would argue that workplace well-being is a complex experience with many facets, as studies based on lay descriptions of the well-being experience indicate. It can further be argued that lay descriptions can give insights into components of well-being deemed important by people. Furthermore, one's own and others' well-being might be differently assessed with different indicators. An exploration into what indicators are used to assess others' well-being is important as the well-being of others' might also affect the interactions between each other and the effectiveness of work conducted collaboratively.

The proposition of this research is therefore that exploring lay descriptions of well-being can shed light on the relevant components of well-being. A further key question is whether there are differences when describing one's own and others' well-being. Different perspectives on the well-being experience might focus on different aspects of well-being. Therefore, Study 1 of this research programme aims to use an inductive approach asking people to describe the components of their own experienced well-being and of the observed well-being of others. The study explores components of workplace well-being and whether different components are highlighted when describing one's own well-being experience and whether stress features in descriptions of low well-being. It extends previous research by inductively exploring the components of workplace well-being from the perspective of managers and

consultants that work across multiple organisations. Study 2 adds to the exploration of relevant components of workplace well-being by looking at descriptions of well-being from two different groups within one organisation. Here, a comparison can be made between the descriptions of well-being by managers in charge of well-being and staff. By including multiple perspectives on well-being by people who work in different organisational and job settings, this research can explore whether the understanding of well-being is context dependant.

2) What is the importance of identity-related resources (i.e. authenticity and social identification) for experiencing workplace well-being?

The reviewed literature shows that authenticity and social identification are resources that facilitate well-being. I call these identity-related resources as they relate to the personal and social identity of a person. As outlined, both identity-related resources have been separately found to be linked to well-being. Authenticity, as defined by Kernis and Goldman (2006), facilitates well-being through its provision of knowledge about one's values, strengths, beliefs (accessible through self-awareness) and positive relationships (authentic orientation towards relationships which lead to positive relationships). Social identification is both a facilitator for perceiving and assessing environmental resources such as social support and a personal resource, as it provides a sense of belonging and meaning. Links to well-being have been established by empirical research for both constructs. However, it is important to consider both identity-related resources together to tap into the full identity. Seeing authenticity and social identification as part of the identity suggests

considering them together in order to fully integrate all aspects of a person's identity. Also, considering them simultaneously makes it possible to see how they interact with each other in their influence on well-being. Whether authenticity is a resource for workplace well-being might depend on what aspects of one's identity a person is authentic to.

As research on the link between authenticity, social identification, and well-being exists only on a limited number of well-being aspects (i.e. hedonic and eudaimonic well-being, work engagement), I look at other aspects of well-being (i.e. vigour and flow), too, in this PhD research programme. Furthermore, the relationships are also explored in different job contexts. In Study 2, I gained qualitative data from two organisational groups with different job roles and work characteristics to see whether people actually speak to authenticity and social identification as antecedents of well-being when prompted on whether there is a relationship between authenticity and well-being, work group identification and well-being, and organisational identification and well-being.

Based on the identified gaps in the literature the rationale of the PhD research programme and its design are outlined in more detail in the following section.

Chapter 3: Overview of the Present Research

In this chapter, an overview of the PhD research programme is given by firstly summarising the current understanding in well-being and organisational psychology literature related to the rationale of the research before describing in detail the research aims and objectives. Then the research design is explained by outlining how the studies conducted contribute to the aim of the research programme.

The rationale of the PhD research programme was to explore components of workplace well-being and functional relationships between identity-related resources and workplace well-being. The research programme had these rationales as in the well-being and organisational psychology literature many different well-being concepts exist (see Fisher, 2010) and as research on resources of individuals that support the experience of well-being can be expanded by considering further resources (see Xanthopolou et al., 2007). Furthermore, the research aimed to create a greater appreciation of the complexity of the well-being construct by exploring the social dimension of well-being and by taking into account that context issues might influence the experience and descriptions of well-being and its functional relationships with identity-related resources.

As outlined in Section 2.3, individual workplace well-being is best viewed as an overarching term that incorporates different aspects characterised by indicators such as satisfaction and flourishing rather than negative indicators, such as distress or coping with stressors. I would argue that workplace well-being is a complex experience with many facets, as studies based on lay descriptions of the well-being experience indicate. It can

be argued that lay descriptions can give insights into components of well-being deemed important by people (in contrast to scholars) and should be explored further in research. The social dimension of well-being has also been highlighted in lay descriptions but only two definitions of well-being have been found in the well-being and organisational psychology literature that give a strong emphasis to the social dimension (Daniels, 2000; Keyes, 1998). The social dimension of well-being requires more research as others are important to us. We have an evolutionary need for connection (see Cacioppo & Patrick, 2008; Cacioppo, et al., 2006). Furthermore, one's own and others' well-being might be differently assessed with distinct indicators. Although research has shown that self-reports and observer-reports converge in their judgment of well-being (Sandvik, Diener, & Larsen, 2009), it is not known whether the same indicators are used when describing or assessing own and others well-being. An exploration into what indicators are used to assess others' well-being is important as the well-being of others' might also affect the interactions between each other and the effectiveness of work conducted collaboratively.

As also outlined in Section 2.3, in relation to antecedents of individual workplace well-being, the notion that individuals' subjective perception (e.g. Daniels, 2011; Briner, Harris, & Daniels, 2004), their personal resources (e.g. Xanthopolou et al., 2007), and how they define themselves at work (e.g. Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) have an impact on their well-being is acknowledged by scholars and has been supported by conceptual and empirical research. In line with this view are recent theoretical developments that have highlighted the importance of individuals' resources as antecedents

of workplace well-being (e.g. Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). This area of study explores personal resources, such as self-efficacy, in addition to job resources, such as autonomy, as antecedents of well-being and as aspects buffering the effects of job demands (Hobfoll, 2002; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Resources of individuals have mainly been studied for their ability to help individuals deal with stress or similar challenging situations (Hobfoll, 2002) but are increasingly also researched for in their ability to increase well-being aspects such as work engagement (e.g. Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). However, research is still needed to further explore what resources of individuals are relevant for affecting the well-being experience at work. Authenticity and social identity are worthy of empirical investigation as they have been found to be linked to well-being (Kernis & Goldman, 2006; van Dick & Haslam, 2012). Furthermore, most jobs require interacting or working together with others and groups that we belong to influence the way we think and behave and shape our sense of self (social identity approach; Tajfel, 1972). The social identity approach has been successful in explaining complexities in organisational behaviour phenomena such as stress and well-being by outlining the influence of social identification in terms of appraisals of stressors and in terms of facilitating the perception of support. When exploring aspects related to a person’s identity that might influence well-being, it was also recognised that aspects of the personal identity such as a person’s authenticity is worthwhile considering in conjunction with a person’s social identity. Doing so, one taps into the full identity of a person that shapes resources of the individual.

Authenticity, relating to the personal identity of a person, as defined by Kernis and Goldman (2006), facilitates well-being through its provision of knowledge about one's values, strengths, beliefs (accessible through self-awareness) and positive relationships (authentic orientation towards relationships which lead to positive relationships). Positive links with well-being have been found in several studies that employed correlation analyses (e.g. Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Sheldon, Ryan, Rawthorne, & Ilardi, 1997; Wood, Linley, Maltby, Baliousis, & Joseph, 2008).

Social identification, relating to the social identity of a person, is a facilitator for perceiving and assessing environmental resources such as social support (Haslam & van Dick, 2012). It is also a resource of the individual, as it provides a sense of belonging and meaning. It can be seen as a facilitator of resources that help to cope with stress (Haslam & van Dick, 2012). Through the sense of belonging, worth, and purpose that come with group membership it can lead to well-being (see van Dick & Haslam, 2012).

Current literature also highlights the importance of context in how an organisational phenomenon is understood by people who engage with it (Johns, 2006). Furthermore, context also influences how functional relationships play out in organisational behaviour (Bamberger, 2008; Rousseau & Fried, 2001). Certain characteristics within the individual (their job role or identity), their direct work environment (work characteristics of their job, characteristics of organisation they are working for), and larger environment (occupation, economical climate) can have an influence on how well-being is understood. Considering context makes it possible to create understanding and theory that might be more applicable in the workplace as it

recognizes aspects unique to a workplace setting that influence organisational behaviour. In addition, it also enables future theory building as relevant factors are assessed (Johns, 2006).

Thus, in order to shed light on what prevalent aspects of workplace well-being are and in order to expand on relevant resources of individuals that impact on well-being at work, the PhD research programme investigated what managers, consultants, and staff in different work contexts describe as relevant aspects of their experience of well-being at work (lay descriptions of own and others' workplace well-being) and how they experience and describe the functional relationship between identity-related resources of the individual, i.e. authenticity (linked to personal identity) and social identification (linked to social identity), and well-being in the workplace.

3.1 Aim and Objectives of the Research

The two research aims that result from the rationale of the PhD research programme are first, to describe relevant components of individual workplace well-being and second, to explore the relevance of a particular set of variables related to personal and social identity as antecedents of individual workplace well-being. The first research aim is explored by answering two research objectives. The first objective is to find out how workplace well-being is described by people who work. Lay descriptions of well-being that were not cued for a particular understanding of well-being would provide insight into relevant components of well-being and whether the social aspect of well-being is highlighted. The second objective is to find out whether there are differences in defining one's own and others' well-being (self- and other

perception of well-being; see Figure 3.1). Differences would highlight whether own and others' well-being is determined based on different indicators. How others' well-being is determined might have an influence on how people interact and work together.

The second research aim of this research is investigated through three research objectives. The first relates to the importance of authenticity as an identity-related resource, the second relates to social identification with the work group as an identity-related resource (i.e. work group identification), and the third relates to social identification with the organisation (i.e. organisational identification) as an identity-related resource (see Figure 3.1).

I conceptualise authenticity and social identification as resources of individuals through an identity lens as identity-related resources, incorporating the personal identity (authenticity) and the social identity (shared social identity). This identity-lens highlights that an individual's sense of ability to successfully control and impact on their environment is not only informed by personal aspects of the individual (aspects related to their personal identity) but also social aspects of their identity. Seeing authenticity and social identification as part of the identity suggests considering them together in order to fully integrate all aspects of a person's identity.

3.2 Research Design

This PhD research programme used a multi-method approach to data collection in several study contexts. Through a range of interviews and focus groups and a questionnaire survey, managers, consultants, and staff from different organisations were asked what well-being is and whether it can be

facilitated by identity-related resources. The use of multiple study contexts and samples allows for multiple perspectives on the same phenomenon. Combining the findings from qualitative questionnaires on indicators of well-being described by managers and consultants from several public and private organisations with the descriptions of managers and staff from a particular public organisation derived from interviews and focus groups can give some insight into how job roles and the work context (in terms of work characteristics and organisation characteristics) influence how well-being is experienced and consequently described. By comparing descriptions of manager and staff descriptions of the functional relationships between identity-related resources and well-being, insight can also be gained into how even within the same organisation the experiences can differ due to job role and work characteristics unique to a department or employee group.

Therefore two studies were conducted sequentially in the PhD programme by exploring the workplace well-being experience firstly with managers and consultants from several organisations (Study 1) and secondly with managers and staff from an emergency services organisation in the UK (Study 2). In particular, Study 1 explores the components of workplace well-being and the differences between perceptions of one's own experience of workplace well-being and perceptions of the experience of others through a survey which's data was analysed with thematic qualitative content analysis. This study contributes to the first research aim to determine relevant components of individual workplace well-being by answering research objective 1 (to determine how people who work define workplace well-being) and by answering research objective 2 (to determine whether perceptions of

one's own well-being differ from describing indicators of others' well-being). The research aims and objectives and how Study 1 aligns with them are shown in Figure 3.1.

In Study 2 indicators of managers' and staff 's workplace well-being experience were also explored. Study 2 aimed to triangulate the findings from Study 1 in a specific organisational context. It explored the relevance of different components of individual workplace well-being and furthermore the relevance of individual identity-related resources as antecedents in an emergency service organisation in the UK. The perspectives of two different groups in this organisation were examined: call centre staff who received a well-being intervention and well-being managers who administered it. This was done in order to investigate whether different groups within an organisation describe workplace well-being in the same way and whether they speak to the relevance of identity-related resources for well-being in a similar way. This study contributes to the research aims 1 and 2, to determine relevant components of individual workplace well-being and to determine the relevance of identity-related resources for predicting individual workplace well-being. It does so by answering research objectives 1, 3, 4, and 5 (see Figure 3.1).

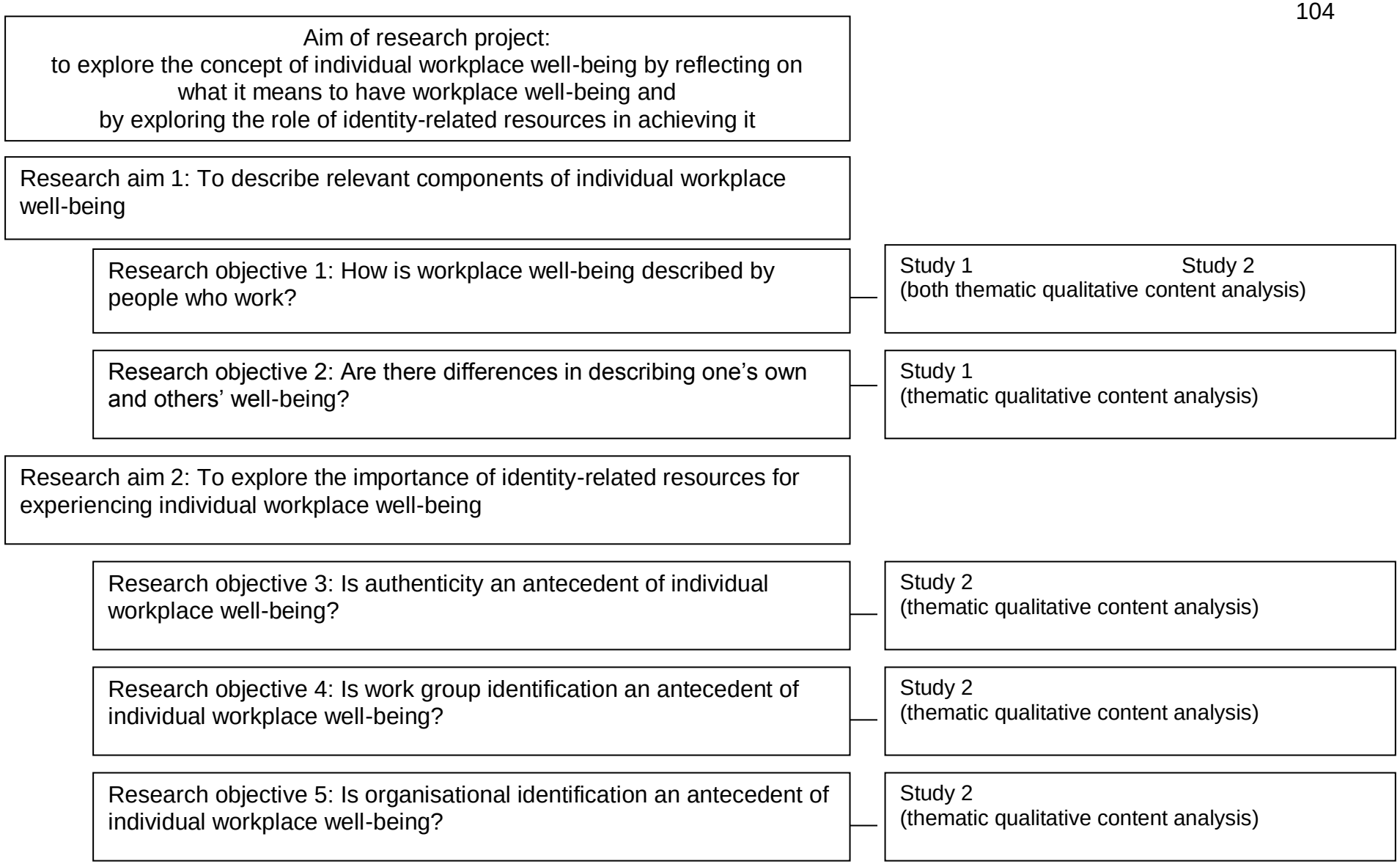

Figure 3.1 Research aims and corresponding research objectives

The studies are linked in the sense that they provide different perspectives on what is seen by managers, consultants, and staff as relevant components of individual workplace well-being. The differences between the samples across Study 1 and 2 and within Study 2 allows for reflection on how the participants' work context (in terms of their job role, their work characteristics, and wider organisational characteristics) might influence what components are highlighted and how the functional relationships between identity-related resources and well-being play out.

Qualitative data was collected with a questionnaire, interviews, and focus groups in different study contexts as it would provide detailed descriptions of participants with different perspectives on well-being. Generally quantitative organisational psychology research attempts to conceptualise work roles as 'fixed realities' that can be reliably and objectively defined and measured. Qualitative research, however, seeks to recognise the multiple perspectives on what different people perceive to belong or to be important to the work role based on their experience (Silvester, 2008). By using qualitative questionnaires with descriptions of indicators of the well-being experience and then conducting interviews and focus groups in which participants can describe and further elaborate on indicators of well-being experience different levels of the phenomenon can be researched such as indicators of the experience of well-being and the reasons behind the importance of those indicators. Furthermore, rich descriptions of the dynamics linking antecedents and well-being components can be attempted to be explored with qualitative methods (Schonfeld & Farrell, 2010).

Because qualitative methods give respondents the freedom to report on their experiences, they allow researchers to overcome preconceived ideas

about how stress or well-being are experienced at work (Schonfeld & Farrell, 2010). Asking managers, consultants, and staff for components of well-being without priming them for particular ones, one can find out what they see as involved in their well-being experience. Qualitative data also allows exploring the influence of the participant's personal and professional backgrounds in terms of how they influence perspectives on what the well-being experience involves. Different job roles also come with different general work characteristics. Managers usually have more autonomy than staff. This might be reflected in the understanding of well-being. With more autonomy, for example, eudaimonic well-being is being able to be experienced. Even within the group of managers differences in the perspective on well-being could exist due to different professional backgrounds. When asking general managers or HR managers what well-being at work means, they might answer this question also based on an economic agenda of the organisation and/or occupational health responsibilities. They might relate to well-being, in terms of a personnel development understanding as eudaimonic well-being with aspects of growth and mastery. Furthermore, they might understand it from an occupational health perspective as mental health or physical health as these are aspects already recognised in organisations whose employee assistance programmes include provision of counselling or healthy eating and fitness sessions.

Qualitative data can also illuminate the context and processes behind variables found to influence well-being. For example, does social support look different for managers than for staff viz. their specific job roles? In the following Chapters 4 and 5 the studies are described and their results are drawn together in Chapter 6 and discussed in relation to the literature in Chapter 7 where

implications for future research and practice are also drawn based on the insights created by the studies.

Chapter 4: Study 1

– Determining Components of Individual Workplace Well-Being by Exploring Lay Descriptions of Own and Others' High and Low Well-Being–

This study looks at components in reports of workplace well-being experiences from managers and consultants in order to explore what people who work and are not well-being scholars describe as indicators of workplace well-being as opposed to well-being experts. Asking people about their experience without priming them for a particular understanding of well-being enables the identification of components of workplace well-being inductively. This would allow the determination of whether they highlight aspects of individual workplace well-being that might not be reflected in theoretical definitions. The findings are a contribution to the on-going discussion on relevant parts of the well-being concept (see Ryan & Deci, 2001). Furthermore, by reflecting on the sample characteristics of the study, the findings of this study contribute to the call for contextualisation of organisational behaviour phenomena (see Johns, 2006). People's understanding of well-being can be influenced by personal and environmental characteristics such as the person's job position or the organisational climate. For example, a health and safety officer might understand well-being mainly in terms of health whereas a personnel development consultant might understand well-being mainly in terms of personal growth. An organisation in which high stress levels are prevalent might influence its members to view well-being mainly as not being stressed.

4.1. Exploring Components of Workplace Well-Being through Descriptions of Well-Being of People who Work

Lay descriptions of well-being have been studied in the past as they have implications on how one's own well-being as well as others' is judged and how attempts are made to obtain well-being (McMahan & Estes, 2011). How people try to achieve well-being has been found to have an effect on their hedonic well-being (Vella-Brodrick et al., 2009). Also, as one of the aims of well-being research is to improve individuals' work experience (Dewe & Cooper, 2012), it would therefore be consistent with the aim to explore what is experienced as important by them in terms of their well-being. As shown in section 2.1.4.1, several studies exist that explore lay descriptions of well-being. A study conducted by Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie (2011), in which employees were asked to describe important aspects of their workplace well-being experience, highlighted the centrality of the eudaimonic aspect of workplace well-being. Other studies that derived components of well-being through lay descriptions have highlighted both hedonic and eudaimonic aspects of well-being (Munoz Sastre, 1999; McMahan & Estes, 2011; Delle Fave et al., 2011). This study builds on existing research on lay descriptions of well-being by asking for descriptions of high and low well-being and of own and others' well-being. Analysing descriptions of high and low well-being would provide insight into whether different indicators are used when identifying whether one is experiencing high or low well-being and whether hedonic, eudaimonic, vigour, work engagement, and flow aspects of well-being are referred to equally in high and low well-being experience descriptions.

4.2 Exploring Components of Well-Being by comparing Self- and Other-Perceptions of Well-Being

There is research on self- and other perceptions of well-being in terms of the basis of the judgement (e.g. King & Nappa, 1998) and the accuracy of the judgement (e.g. Sandvik, Diener, & Larsen, 2009). Existing research shows that judgements of well-being made by oneself and others do converge (e.g. Sandvik, Diener, & Larsen, 2009; see Section 2.1.4.2) but it is not known whether the judgements are based on the same indicators. In this study, I explore the indicators that people use to judge own and others' well-being. Analysing descriptions of indicators of own and others' well-being would shed light on whether similar indicators are used to assess one's own well-being and that of others. Many jobs require working in teams. Finding out what indicators are used to assess others' well-being is interesting to look at as the well-being of others can affect interactions between each other and work conducted collaboratively.

It is likely that a person's understanding of well-being influences how they judge others' well-being (King & Nappa, 1998). Therefore, the aspects of well-being (such as hedonic and eudaimonic) are likely to be the same for judging own and others' well-being. However, it is also likely that the indicators differ as other people have no access to emotional and cognitive processes of another person; they have to deduct from the person's constitution and behaviour what their well-being levels are. This could influence which indicators are used to determine others' well-being. I therefore address the questions of how one knows if one has well-being and what the indicators are is used to determine others' well-being. Because many jobs require working in groups, the

evaluation of others' well-being is important as one could argue that the well-being of a person influences how one works and engages with others.

Research on what indicators are used to asses others' well-being is rare, (see Section 2.1.4.2). Only one conceptual study by Daniels (2006) has been found which discusses whether there are differences in descriptions of work characteristics when described by employees or their manager. That study does not address indicators of well-being but indicators of how job characteristics are experienced. The finding can be used, however, to some extent to see whether there are differences in assessments made for oneself and others. Daniels (2006) argues that different methods of assessing work characteristics capture diverse aspects of them. A manager's rating of an employee's decision latitude rates the enacted aspect of this work characteristic. A self-rating of this job characteristic by the employee presents his or her personal preference. The assessment for oneself versus another person of the presence of the job characteristic are based on different experiential domains (behaviour versus emotions). Thus, one can presume that when judging own and others' well-being, different experiential domains are referred to. Own well-being assessments could be based on whether positive affect is experienced (emotional domain). The assessment of others' well-being could be done on how a person communicates (behavioural domain). The present study therefore aims to compare whether indicators of well-being differ when one is describing one's own workplace well-being experience or the experience of others.

In this section I showed that lay descriptions of well-being can provide further insight into relevant components of individual workplace well-being by drawing on the description of experiences of well-being by people who work rather than descriptions based on theoretical concepts. I also outlined that self-

and others' perceptions of well-being are useful to explore as different components might be highlighted in descriptions of own well-being versus others' well-being. If different indicators are used for describing others' well-being this would be interesting to explore as the well-being of people is likely to influence how they interact and work together. In the following section, the research aim of this study is outlined in detail before the methodological approach is described. The results are then described and discussed in the final section. Conclusions are drawn on how components included in lay descriptions of well-being relate to existing well-being concepts and whether well-being research needs to explore further components in order to capture the experience of well-being fully. Conclusions are also drawn on how indicators used to assess own and others' well-being differ and what implications might follow for effectively working with others.

4.3 Research Objectives of the Study

This study explores research aim 1 (to describe relevant components of individual workplace well-being; see Figure 3.1) by asking people who work to describe indicators of having workplace well-being without priming them with a specific understanding of well-being. In particular, research objective 1 (How is workplace well-being described by people who work?) is explored by asking people to describe indicators of their high and low well-being. Insights into whether the indicators people use to describe well-being can be mapped onto existing well-being conceptualisations can inform whether there is anything new well-being research could explore further in terms of relevant components of the experience. Further enquiry into whether gradations of the same or differing indicators are used to describe high and low well-being can give insight into

whether both experiences are opposites of each other or are qualitatively different.

Furthermore, research objective 2 (Are there differences in describing one's own and others' well-being?) is explored by asking people to also describe indicators of others' high and low well-being. Enquiries into the indicators used to describe one's own and others' well-being allows insight into whether judgments of own and others' well-being are based on the same indicators. Because many jobs require working in groups, an exploration into what indicators are used to assess others' well-being is important as the well-being of others' might also affect the interactions between each other and the effectiveness of work conducted collaboratively.

4.3 Methodology

In this section, the sample and design of the study are described. Then the study procedure and used measures are outlined. At the end of the section, the data analysis procedure employed by this study is described.

4.3.1 Sample.

Fifty respondents were sampled from 69 attendees (72.46% response rate) of an academic-practitioner network leadership conference. Six respondents were not included in the study sample as they were students, academics, or administrative staff. To keep the sample coherent to managers and consultants, the decision was made to exclude them. The sample size of the study is therefore $N = 44$.

Of the study participants 54.54% worked in the private sector, 31.82% in the public sector, 2.27% (one person) for a non-governmental organisation

(NGO), and 11.36% (five people) indicated that they worked in other sectors (e.g. LLP partnership, armed forces). The positions the respondents occupied are displayed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1.

Types of positions occupied by the participants (N = 44)

Type of position	Frequency	Percentage
Managing director	7	15.91
Senior management team	9	20.45
Middle management	7	15.91
Consultants	9	20.45
Self-employed	8	18.19
Other	4	9.09

The participants' backgrounds can be described as being interested in leadership and personnel development (characteristics of the professional network). Their backgrounds are likely to influence the knowledge and understanding of well-being and would therefore influence their responses. The findings can thus not be generalised across managers and consultants in general. Furthermore, the kind of responsibilities for others would also influence how they would describe indicators of others' well-being. Being the line manager of others might cue the descriptions of others' well-being in terms of effective working practices as a line manager is responsible for their teams or departments productivity. Being a HR manager responsible for personnel development focusing on developing others based on their strengths for example might cue their description of others' well-being in terms of growth and flourishing.

Fifty per cent of the respondents stated that they did not have a direct team for which they were responsible. The sample size for the research objective investigating the description of others' well-being is therefore *N* = 22. The size of the teams for which these respondents were responsible differed (range = 1 – 400); 22.73% were responsible for teams of one to five people, 11.36% for teams of six to ten members, 9.09% were responsible for teams of 11 to 30 members, and 6.82% for teams bigger than 100 members.

Thirty-one (70.45%) participants were male and eleven (25.00%) participants were female. [Two (4.55%) participants did not provide their gender.] Ten (22.73%) participants were aged between 30 and 45, 21 (47.73%) between 46 and 55, 11 (25.00%) between 56 and 65, and two (4.54%) were over 66.

In addition to demographic data, further information about the sample was collected: In order to determine whether participants could talk about experiences of high and low well-being, they were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale (with 1 meaning 'not at all', 4 meaning 'half of the time', and 7 meaning 'all the time') their answer to the following questions: "In general, how often do you experience high/low well-being at work?" The sample can be described as having often experienced high well-being at work (*M* = 4.81, *SD* = 1.26, range = 2 – 7). Low well-being was experienced by most of the participants not very often (*M* = 2.79, *SD* = 1.09, range = 1 – 5). The results of an analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that there were no differences in the level of high well-being experienced by women and men (F [2, 43] = 2.37, p = .11) and people of different ages (F [3, 43] = .29, p = .83). In addition there were no differences in the experience of low well-being between women and men (F [2, 42] =.14, p = .87) and for people of different age (F [3, 42] = .43, p = .73).

4.3.2 Design.

This study used a self-report questionnaire with open-ended and closed questions that was given to participants attending a professional network conference in an university leadership centre. The conference attendees were practitioners and academics interested in leadership. The sampling method is therefore a convenience sample. This study setting was chosen in order to obtain respondents from several organisations rather than one to answer questions about well-being. With regard to sample size, 69 conference participants would provide a variety of responses and a big enough number to draw a sample that would provide a variety of responses and relatively fair representation of possible responses (law of diminishing returns; e.g. Virzi, 1992).

4.3.3 Procedure.

The questionnaire was distributed to the participants on 15 December 2009 at the leadership conference. The questionnaire was handed out by the researcher after a presentation (unrelated to the topic of this study) from a member of the leadership centre, who encouraged attendees to remain seated to fill in the questionnaire. In order to encourage participation, a paper pencil questionnaire was chosen over an online questionnaire, as respondents could fill it in straight away and the presence of others filling in the questionnaire would motivate participation of the individual. Furthermore, the questionnaire was designed to be short and was estimated to take 5 to 10 minutes to complete.

The questionnaire consisted of open-ended and closed questions on the relative importance of well-being at work (own and team's), high and low well-being at work (frequency of experience, indicators, and impact on work) for themselves and their team, and demographic information. It was decided to ask participants to describe high and low well-being rather than distinct well-being concepts such as hedonic or eudaimonic well-being in order not to cue them for particular components of the concept but to let them describe indicators of well-being based on their actual experience. The questionnaire document can be found in Appendix A1.

The first page of the questionnaire included a cover letter explaining the purpose and procedure of the study and assuring anonymity and confidentiality. The second page included the instruction that the questionnaire should be answered in relation to the participant's own understanding of well-being. This was done to encourage the participants to report freely on their well-being experiences rather than to think about theories in relation to well-being.

The questionnaire was divided into five sections in order to keep the participants focused on one setting (for example, high well-being versus low well-being and own well-being versus others' well-being). Section A of the questionnaire included closed questions on the participant's work (type of organisation, position and, team size). These were placed at the beginning of the questionnaire so that the following questions on workplace well-being were answered with the workplace in mind. Section B consisted of closed questions with a 7-point Likert scale in relation to the perceived importance of workplace well-being, asking to what extent attention is paid to well-being in the participant's organisation and to what extent they think it is insufficient, enough, or too much.

The purpose of sections C, D, E, and F was to collect data on how often high and low well-being is experienced (to determine whether participants are familiar with the experience), indicators of the experience, and the effects of experiencing high or low well-being on the participant's work and on their perceptions of those in their team. Section C consisted of three questions on the participant's own experience of high well-being. A closed question on a 7-point Likert scale was asked on the frequency of the high well-being experience ("In general, how often do you experience high well-being at work?"[5]). The following two questions were open-ended and asked how the participants know that they are in a state of high well-being (indicators of well-being; "How do you know you're in a period of high well-being?"[6]) and what impact high well-being has on their work ("What impact does high/low well-being have on your work?"[6]). Both questions were introduced with an instruction to imagine oneself at work when experiencing high well-being ('Imagine you are at work and you have high well-being.'). Section D consisted of the same set of questions as Section C but related to low well-being. Section E related to high well-being of the team and included four questions. The first was a closed question with a 7-point Likert scale asking how often the team experiences high well-being ("In general, how often do you think your team has high/low well-being?[6]). The second question asked to what extent the participant thinks well-being is important for his or her team ("To what extent do you think well-being is important for those in your team?"[6]). Again, after reminding participants to imagine themselves at work and their team having high well-being, the third question asked about indicators of the team's high well-being ("What are the

[5] Response scale is a 7-point Likert scale with 1 meaning 'not at all', 4 meaning 'half of the time', and 7 meaning 'all the time'.
[6] Open-ended question to collect descriptions of participants.

indicators for you that those in your team have high/low well-being?”[7]) and the fourth asked about the impact of high well-being on the team’s work (“What impact does high/low well-being have on their work?”[7]). Section F contained questions on the team’s low well-being.

Section G contained two categorical questions on demographic information (gender and age) and two open-ended questions eliciting comments on the issue and research of well-being. The purpose of this section was to collect demographic data to be able to look for possible gender or age differences within the answers. Some studies found gender (e.g. Pugliesi, 1995) and age (e.g. Charles & Piazza, 2009; Ryff, 1995) differences in experiencing well-being.

A comment section was included in the questionnaire in order to gain information about well-being that the participant sees as important to the experience but was not asked about in the questionnaire. The last section of the questionnaire included instructions on how to return the questionnaire to the researcher.

The completed questionnaire was to be put in an envelope provided and given to the researcher on the way out of the conference room. There, the researcher handed each participant a participation information sheet including contact details of the research team, information on the purpose of the study, and data protection (see Appendix A2). The conducting of the questionnaire study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Exeter Business School.

For the purpose of this thesis, only data on (1) indicators of high and low well-being at work for oneself and others was used in order to determine components of lay descriptions of well-being and (2) on demographics and

frequency of the experience of well-being in order to describe the sample (see section 4.3.1).

4.3.4 Measures.

The main data was collected in open questions on indicators of the high and low well-being experience of oneself and others. As outlined in section 4.3.3, questions on high and low well-being were introduced with an instruction to imagine oneself or respectively one's team at work when oneself or respectively the team was experiencing high/low well-being in order to enable participants to draw on their experience. Then the following question was asked: "How do you know you're in a period of high/low well-being?" and respectively for the team: "What are the indicators for you that those in your team have high/low well-being?" The phrasing "How do you know ..." and "What are indicators for you ..." was chosen in order to support the participants in answering based on their experience rather than on theoretical understandings.

4.3.5 Data analysis procedure.

The data was collated and descriptive statistical analyses were done with the quantitative data obtained from the closed questions on the frequency of the experience of high and low well-being, and the demographic data. These analyses were conducted in order to determine whether the sample might be biased in terms of gender or age or experience of only high or only low well-being (see section 4.3.1).

Content analyses were done with the qualitative data obtained from the open-ended questions on the experience of well-being in order to inductively obtain indicators of workplace well-being.

In particular, an inductive thematic qualitative content analysis approach (Mayring, 2000, 2010) was chosen in order to group the reported experiences of well-being into categories. Figure 4.1 gives a schematic overview of the process of the inductive thematic qualitative content analysis that is used in this research.

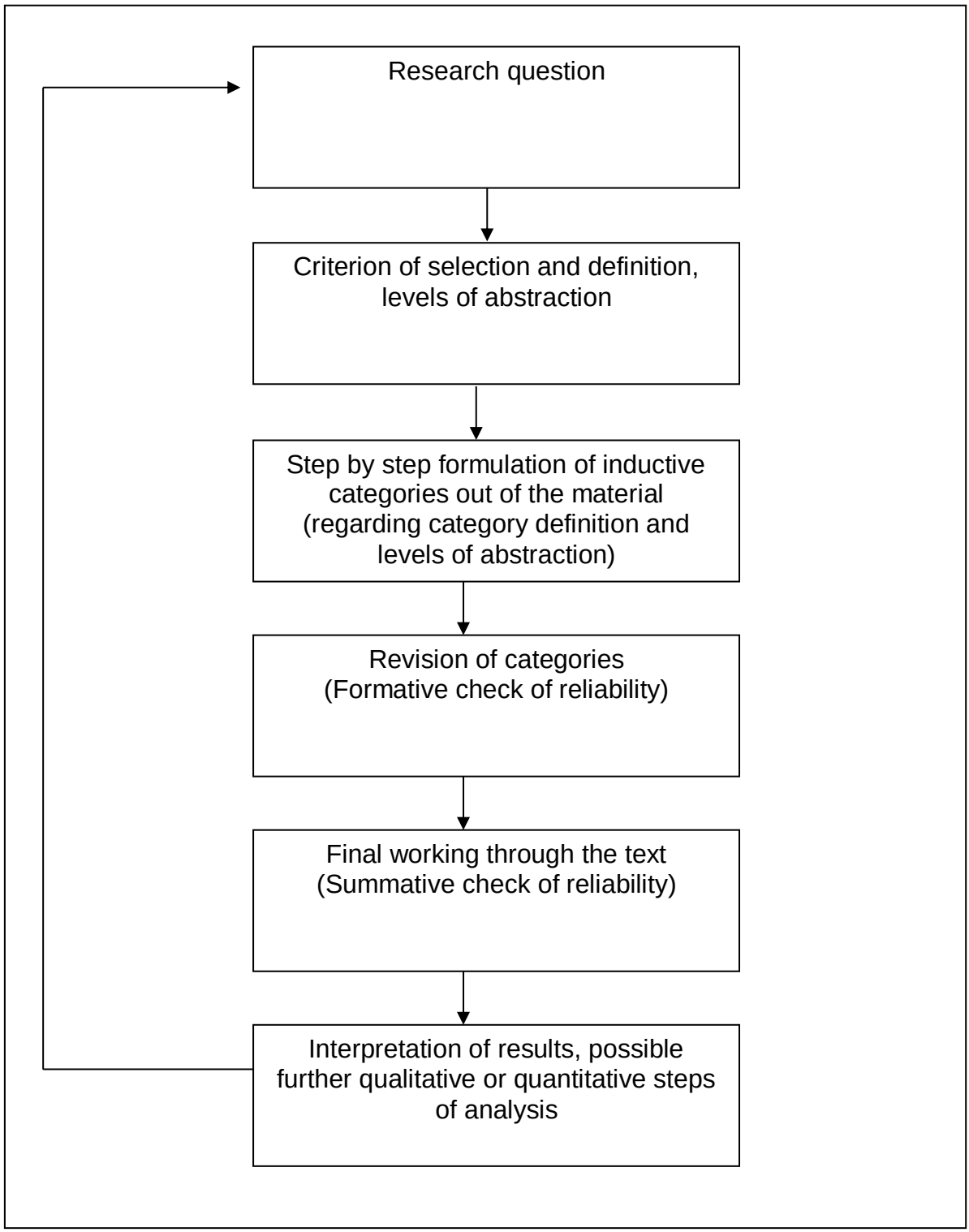

Figure 4.1. Inductive approach of thematic qualitative content analysis (adapted from Mayring, 2010, p. 84)

An inductive approach was useful for this study as the aim was for components to be established from descriptions of the participants. After the scanning of the material, it was decided to categorise the answers first in accordance to experiential domains of well-being. The experiential domains were formed based on the responses. The following experiential domains were referred to by the indicators contained in the participants' descriptions: mind and body, emotional, cognitive, social, task related, and physical. If the indicators did not refer to a specific experiential domain they were allocated to a domain called 'other'.

In a second step, the content of the domains and themes mentioned most often within the domains retrieved from the inductive thematic content analysis was mapped onto existing concepts of well-being. The steps are outlined in more detail below.

In the first step, as a coding unit, words, word groups, and sentences were used that contained sufficient information (Mayring, 2010) to retrieve inductive categories for components of high and low well-being. The analysis in the first step involved initial and focused coding. Initial coding was primarily descriptive and aimed to summarise the data according to the key themes. This stage involved a thorough reading of the transcripts of each of the answers to get a general sense of their content. This was followed by focused coding in NVivo (QSR, 2012). Here, the responses were put into the coding scheme developed inductively based on the initial coding (see code book; Appendix A3). Coding categories were formed for experiential domains. This was done in order to establish themes based on the data which would also allow to capture the full breadth of experiences. Furthermore, this initial inductive coding was conducted in order to minimise the influence of my knowledge of existing

theoretical well-being dimensions on the findings. The frequency with which indicators within the experiential domains was mentioned was noted in order to determine common aspects between participant descriptions. Then indicators that were mentioned by *more than* two people were noted down for each experiential domain for the next step of the analysis (described in the following paragraph). It was also noted how many people from the sample referred with their descriptions to an experiential domain. If a person used several components to describe well-being that would be allocated to the same domain, then the domain was only counted once. Trying to allocate the components of the different domains, it became apparent that components could sometimes fit several domains. To enable analysis between domains I decided to allocate a component to one domain rather than several.

In the second step, the most used indicators were mapped onto existing theoretical categories of well-being whose components were outlined in a prepared coding scheme (see last page of code book; Appendix A3). The aim here was to identify whether the inductively established themes and indicators would map onto theoretical well-being categories.

4.4 Results and Discussion

Miles and Huberman (1994) state that in qualitative data analysis there is no clear boundary between describing and explaining. Therefore, the results of this study are not divided into a results and a discussion section; the two sections are integrated. However, section 4.5 at the end of this chapter summarises the findings and outlines future research avenues.

First, the inductively obtained components for the experiences of high and low well-being are presented as groups based on experiential domains. It is

then suggested how the inductively generated components can be aligned with components of theoretical well-being concepts. At the end of this section the similarities and differences between perspectives on one's own and others' well-being are explored regarding what experiential domains are referred to and what subcategories are used to describe components of high and low well-being. The quantitative data (data on the extend to which high and low well-being are experienced) that was collected in the questionnaire will not be discussed here as it was collected for the purpose of describing the sample.

4.4.1 The components of lay definitions of workplace well-being. To the question of how one knows that one is in a state of high well-being, participants gave responses such as *feeling motivated, feeling energised, feeling elevated, supporting others, feeling not tired, getting things done easily*, or *work and life fit together* (for a list of all responses, see Appendix A4). The analysis indicated that participants described high well-being along seven experiential domains. Most of the entries refer to the mind and body, cognitive, and emotional domain of the experience. Table 4.2. summarises participant descriptions of the experiential domains, including the rank and percentage relating to how often each domain was mentioned by participants as an indicator of high well-being experiences.

To the question of how one knows that one is in a state of low well-being, participants gave responses such as *low energy, irritation, or not functioning well* (for a list of all responses, see Appendix A7). The analysis indicated that the low well-being experience was described along the same domains as high well-being (see Table 4.2). As for high well-being, the domains of cognitive,

mind and body, and emotional were mentioned most frequently in describing low well-being (see Table 4.2).

High and low well-being are therefore described within the same domains and are mainly described through indicators of the mind and body domain (e.g. energy), the cognitive, and the emotional domain. This similarity was to be expected as high and low well-being both refer to the same underlying understanding of what constitutes well-being. However, the emphasis on the emotional domain in high well-being and on the cognitive domain in low well-being suggest that, beyond indicators of energy, different indicators are used when identifying whether one is experiencing high or low well-being.

A substantial number of participants indicated that descriptions of high and low well-being experiences could fit at least two different experiential domains. This suggests that it is not easy to separate components of well-being in distinct categories and therefore it is likely that different well-being concepts that highlight different aspects of the experience still overlap. Furthermore, some people differed in the domains they used to describe well-being (see Appendix A5, A5). One could therefore argue that the experience and therefore understanding of well-being are subjective (see Diener, 2009). That different domains were referred to could also stem from the fact that the participants might have different kinds of jobs, work experiences, and knowledge of the topic and therefore highlight different aspects of the experience according to what is possible or predominant based on the work they have to carry out. Someone who works in isolation might not focus on the social domain of well-being as much as someone whose work requires constant interaction with others.

Table 4.2.

Ranking according to frequency of experiential domains mentioned by participants when describing how they experience high and low workplace well-being

		High well-being		Low well-being	
Domain	Definition	Components[7]	Rank[8]	Components[9]	Rank
Mind and body	Processes that include mental and physical aspects	Energy, Flow	1 50.00%	Low energy, Stress, Dysfunctionality	1 61.90%
Emotional	States that include feelings, mood, temperament, positive or negative self-evaluations, etc.	Contentment, Confidence	2 45.24%	Irritation, Frustration, Anger, Depression, Disconnection, Sadness	3 42.86%
Cognitive	Mental processes that includes attention, memory, solving problems, making decisions, etc.	Motivation, Creativity, Stimulation, Optimism	3 42.86%	Poor concentration, Lack of motivation, Tiredness, Disengagement, Lack of creativity	2 47.62%
Social	Processes that include others	Interaction, Communication, Exchange	4 30.95%	Less interaction,[10] Less tolerance, Feeling undervalued, Feeling of not belonging	4 26.19%
Task related	Processes, feelings, etc., that relate directly to work tasks	Engagement, Productivity, Contribution	5 23.81%	Poor output	6 19.04%
Other	Any processes that cannot be aligned to other categories	Work-life balance	6 19.05%	Don't sleep, Reluctant to be at work[11]	5 21.43%
Physical	Physical symptoms	Feeling fit and healthy	7 14.28%	Low libido,[12] Pain, Being ill	7 4.76%

[7] The most mentioned (mentioned by *more than* two people) components are displayed here.
[8] 1 means most components mentioned referred to this domain. Out of seven domains the mind and body domain was used by 22 people from a sample of 44. Therefore 50% of people referred to the mind and body domain in their description of high well-being. If one person related several components to one domain, the domain was only counted once.
[9] The most mentioned (mentioned by *more than* two people) components are displayed here if not mentioned otherwise.
[10] Here components that were mentioned by *at least* two people are listed, as two was the highest frequency available in this domain.
[11] Each component in this domain was mentioned only once. Two examples are displayed here.
[12] Each component in this domain was mentioned only once. All named components are displayed here.

When looking at the domains referred to, the difference between high and low well-being is that for low well-being the cognitive domain is more important than the emotional, and the task-related domain is less important (in contrast to high well-being). The second domain of high well-being referred to most often is the emotional domain. For low well-being it is the cognitive domain. So next to the dominant experience of energy, for example, high well-being is a highly emotional experience. For low well-being, next to the dominant experience of energy, cognitive symptoms such as low concentration are experienced. The mind and body, social, and physical domains are equally important for descriptions of high and low well-being.

Looking not just at the frequency of indicators but also the content of the indicators, one sees that most of the descriptors used for high and low well-being are not mere opposites of one dimension, even though there is some overlap of used indicators. For example, the opposites of motivation, creativity, stimulation, contentment, confidence, interaction, productivity, being healthy, and work-life-balance were mentioned in low well-being descriptions (see column 3 in Table 3.3). The assessment of whether one is in a state of high or low well-being is made based on different aspects of the domains of energy, emotions, and cognition. One does not find out about own low well-being only by determining whether one experiences the opposite of high motivation, creativity, etc. Different aspects of the experiential domains are referred to in order to assess one's low well-being.

However, if one looks at how many components are used to describe the experience (based on components used by more than two people), a different picture arises. A greater variety of components[13] per domain is used in the mind and body, emotional, and cognitive domains when describing low well-being than when

[13] The domains 'social', 'physical', and 'other' should not be compared with each other for high and low well-being. Components in these domains were mentioned by fewer than three people in the experience of low well-being.

describing high well-being (see Table 4.3). When describing the task-related domain, more indicators were used for high well-being than for low well-being. In addition, the task-related aspects of low well-being are phrased more generally, as low output, for example. The social and physical aspects of well-being are not talked about as much in low well-being as in high well-being. So for the dominant domains of mind and body, cognitive, and emotional, the low well-being experience was described by participants in more detail than the high well-being experience. Whereas for the task-related domain, high well-being was described in more detail than in the low well-being experience. So the participants might be more familiar or aware of what experiencing low well-being includes. However, it is interesting that for the task-related aspects high well-being is described in much more detail whereas low well-being is just referred to as a general low performance. This might indicate that low well-being is associated with a generally low performance on all levels whereas high well-being is associated with particular task-related processes. High well-being might only facilitate specific aspects of performance whereas low well-being affects the whole performance.

In summary, high and low individual workplace well-being is mostly described through experiences in cognitive, emotional, and mind and body domains. I conclude from these results that workplace well-being is experienced by people who work along several components. Furthermore, high and low workplace well-being are experienced along the same domains (see Table 4.2) but are not mere opposites of each other as domains have different prevalence in descriptions and as they are described with different components within the domains (see Table 4.3). I conclude from this that beyond the mind and body domain, different indicators are used when identifying whether one is experiencing high or low well-being. High well-being

mainly encompasses being energetic and experiencing positive emotions, whereas low well-being mainly encompasses having low energy and having poor concentration.

4.4.2 The relationship between lay descriptions and theoretical concepts of well-being.

To analyse the relationship of lay descriptions of well-being with theoretical concepts of well-being, only the lay descriptions of high well-being were mapped onto existing theoretical concepts of well-being. This was done because well-being concepts mainly focus on positive rather than negative work experiences (Dewe & Cooper, 2012). Rather than building a detailed comparative model, the aim of this exploration is to give an illustration of how components of high well-being highlighted in lay descriptions can be aligned with theoretical components of well-being.

As mentioned before, most participants included several domains of well-being in their description of their experience. The components of each domain that were most prevalent in the lay descriptions (displayed in Tables 4.2 and 4.3) were used for the comparative analysis.

Table 3.4. details how the components mentioned by participants in their description of high well-being might be related to existing theoretical concepts and their components. Concepts chosen here are hedonic, eudaimonic, vigour, work engagement, and flow aspects of well-being. (Their components are displayed in Table 4.4.) These concepts were chosen as representative of theoretical well-being definitions as they specify distinct experiential components. There are many definitions of workplace well-being (see Table 2.1, Chapter 2). Fisher (2010) outlines that concepts that belong to the cluster of individual well-being at work are: job

satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement, engagement, thriving and vigour, flow and intrinsic motivation, and affect at work. I would argue, as outlined in Section 2.2.3.2, that these concepts can be narrowed down to hedonic well-being (job satisfaction, affect at work), eudaimonic well-being (organisational commitment in the sense of sharing goal and values with organisation, thriving in terms of self-development, intrinsic motivation in terms of experiencing meaning and purpose at work), vigour, work engagement, and flow.

Table 4.3.
Components in lay descriptions of high well-being and corresponding theoretical concepts and their components

Components of well-being based on theory-derived definitions			Components of well-being derived from descriptions of lay people of the workplace well-being experience					
Well-being concept	Dimensions	Components	Cognitive	Mind & body	Emotional	Social[20]	Body	Task-related
Vigour (Shirom, 2011)	Physical vitality	Physical strength		Energy			Feeling fit and healthy	
		Vigorous						
		Vitality						
	Cognitive liveliness	Thinking rapidly		Energy				
		Innovative						
		Creative	Creativity					
	Emotional energy	Warmth to others		Energy		Interaction		
		Sensitive to others' needs				Exchange		
		Investing emotionally in others						
		Being sympathetic to others						
Work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010)	Vigour	Bursting with energy		Energy				Engagement
		Feeling capable			Confidence			
		Feeling like going to work when getting up in the morning	Motivation					
	Dedication	Enthusiastic,	Stimulated					Engagement
		Inspired by work	Creativity					
		Proud of work						
	Absorption	Being happy when working intensely/Immersed in work		Flow				Engagement
		Getting carried away in work						
Flow (Csíkszentmihályi, 1992)		Feeling of energised focus		Energy Flow				Engagement
		Feeling immersed		Flow				Engagement
		Experiencing success in the process of the activity						Productivity
Hedonic well-being (Diener, 1984; Warr, 2009)	Affect	Displeasure-pleasure			Contentment			
		Anxiety-comfort						
		Depression-enthusiasm						
	Satisfaction	Life satisfaction						
Eudaimonic well-being (Ryff, 1998; Diener, 2009)	Relationships	Having supportive and rewarding relationships				Interaction		
		Contributing to the well-being of others				Exchange		
		Having positive relations with others						
		Being respected						
	Functioning in one's environment	Optimal functioning		Flow				Contribution
		Experiencing meaning and purpose						Engagement
		Being engaged and interested	Motivation					
		Experiencing environmental mastery						
	Attitude towards oneself	Having self-acceptance						
		Having optimism	Optimistic					
	Self-development	Experiencing personal growth						

[20] Communication cannot directly be mapped onto theoretical components. Furthermore, work-life balance cannot be mapped onto the theoretical concepts as it is not a component of well-being but rather an antecedent. 'Fit and healthy' cannot be mapped onto the theoretical concepts either as it refers to health or physical well-being concepts and not psychological well-being concepts that are used in this thesis.

All theoretical concepts are referred to by the components of the lay descriptions. Most of the components refer to eudaimonic, vigour, and work engagement aspects. The components of the social domain were allocated to the eudaimonic well-being dimension of positive relations with others and the emotional energy components of vigour. However, the components of the lay descriptions go beyond the aspects covered in eudaimonic well-being and vigour. This indicates that a well-being definition like Keyes' (1998) would be useful to integrate into existing workplace well-being conceptualisations. Keyes (1998) definition of social well-being includes the components of *feeling part of the community* (integration); *understanding and caring about one's surrounding* (coherence); *feeling positive towards others* (acceptance); *feeling one has something to offer* (contribution); and *feeling confident about the future in one's society* (actualisation). By including additional components of social well-being into existing well-being concepts or expanding components of existing well-being that relate to social well-being (such as 'positive relationships' in Ryff's, 1998, definition of eudaimonic well-being), one would be able to highlight, like by Keyes, that well-being goes beyond individual aspects of positive functioning and includes appraisals of one's functioning in society. Attempts to integrate several well-being concepts and the social domain, are, for example, done by Daniels (2000) who conceptualises individual (workplace) well-being as hedonic well-being (affect and satisfaction), competence (environmental mastery, fulfilment of potential), aspiration (having goals and motivation), autonomy, and integrative functioning (social well-being). Integrative functioning relates to the social

domain in terms of social integration, coherence, acceptance, and contribution.

Table 4.4 also indicates that one well-being concept often includes several experiential domains, such as the cognitive and the emotional. As some concepts encompass several experiential domains and others focus on one, the concepts overlap. For example, vigour could be seen as referring solely to the energy domain but referring to particular realms of energy, i.e. cognitive, emotional, and social energy (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Eudaimonic well-being is a concept that covers different aspects of an individual and experiential domains such as the social, cognitive, emotional, and mind and body. Those two concepts overlap in the sense that emotional energy might also be covered in eudaimonic well-being. It could be a part of contributing to others' well-being and having supportive and rewarding relationships. One could argue that well-being concepts overlap as they tap into domains of the same workplace experience.

It is interesting that the physical aspect was mentioned by the participants in their description of well-being, as most workplace well-being concepts are psychological and focus on emotional and cognitive aspects. The physical aspect of low well-being can be related to health. The workplace well-being concept of vigour, however, acknowledges the physical aspect of well-being as it includes the dimension of physical strength in addition to cognitive and emotional energy (Shirom, 2011). However, as Danna and Griffin (1999) state, a vast amount of research exists on issues of health and well-being in the workplace that either emphasise physical, emotional, psychological, or mental perspectives, depending on the discipline in which

well-being or health are studied in. The results outline, that it might be worthwhile to consider research from those multiple perspectives in order to gain a good understanding of what the experience of well-being at work encompasses.

Drawing the connection to existing studies on lay descriptions of well-being, the results of this study are complementary to previous studies, in the sense that eudaimonic well-being plays an important part in workplace well-being (see Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2011) and that several components of different theoretical well-being concepts are part of the well-being experience (see McMahan & Estes, 2011). An overview of the components and experiential domains of well-being found in this and other studies that look at lay descriptions of well-being can be found in Table 3.5. However, the present study extends previous studies on lay perspectives by focusing on descriptions of the experience of well-being at work without being cued for particular understandings of well-being. It also uses a wider array of theoretical concepts to compare the lay components. Other studies used only hedonic and eudaimonic conceptualisations of well-being as comparable definitions but did not include an activated state of well-being, which is covered by the concepts of vigour, work engagement, and flow and which components of lay descriptions indeed refer to a great extent.

Table 4.4.

Well-being components identified in studies exploring lay descriptions of well-being

McMahan & Estes, 2011	Munoz Sastre, 1999	Delle-Fave et al., 2010	Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie, 2011	Present study
General well-being	General well-being	General well-being	Workplace well-being	Workplace well-being
1. Avoidance of negative experience	1. Acceptance	1. Psychological balance	1. Interpersonal fit	1. Hedonic well-being
2. Contribution to others	2. Important domains for experiencing well-being: family, friends, work, physical domain	2. Harmony	2. Thriving	2. Eudaimonic well-being
3. Self-development			3. Feeling of competency	3. Vigour
4. Experience of pleasure			4. Perceived recognition	4. Work engagement
			5. Desire for involvement	5. Flow

To summarise, theoretical concepts cover the components mentioned in lay descriptions of (high) well-being to a large extent, the social aspect was emphasised more in lay descriptions than in theoretical concepts however. In lay descriptions, most predominant were components of eudaimonic, vigour, and work engagement concepts. However, these might not be able to be generalised to all people who work. In this study, a particular subsample of people who work was studied, i.e. managers of public and private organisations and consultants. People in different job roles and work context might highlight different components due to the characteristics of their work environment that might influence their well-being experience. Whether similar

components would be highlighted when asking people in different job roles or different work contexts will be explored in further in Study 2.

4.4.3 Differences and similarities in indicators used when describing own well-being and that of others.

To analyse similarities and differences in describing own and others' well-being, I compared firstly experiential domains referred to and secondly, used components in descriptions of own and others' high and low well-being. To the question of how one knows that others are in a state of high well-being, participants gave responses such as *they take own responsibility, new ideas, laughter,* or *good climate* (for a list of all responses, see Appendix A8). The analysis indicated that the most prevalent domain of indicators of own and others' high well-being overlap with the emotional, cognitive, and social domains referred to in both. However, most descriptions of own high well-being related to (in descending order of frequency) the mind and body, emotional, cognitive, and social domains. For the description of indicators of others' high well-being, the descending order was the social, emotional, task-related, and cognitive domains (see Table 4.6). So the well-being of others' is mainly assessed through indicators of social interaction such as cooperation or trust. The physical domain was not mentioned even though one could argue that aspects of this domain (such as being fit) is a visible manifestation of well-being and therefore easy to observe in others.

Similar components of well-being were used when describing one's own well-being and that of others. In the perception of high well-being of others, the social domain is not only described as the process of

interconnectedness (as in one's own well-being) but is also described with positive characteristics, such as trust and good climate. In the emotional domain more indicators were used for describing others' high well-being than for one's own. For the task-related domain proactivity is referred to in describing others' high well-being rather than 'contribution', which was used in describing one's own well-being. So the activity is highlighted in other's well-being rather than the outcome; again highlighting the social interaction. For the cognitive domain only creativity is used as an indicator in others' high well-being. This is probably the only cognitive aspect that manifests outside the cognitive processes within an individual and can therefore be observed by others.

Table 4.5.

Comparison between descriptions of own and others' high well-being

	Own well-being		Others' well-being	
Domain	Components[21]	Rank[22]	Components	Rank
Mind and body	Energy, Flow	1 50.00%	Energy	5 4.28%
Emotional	Contentment, Confidence	2 45.24%	Happiness, Enjoyment, Enthusiasm	2 25.71%
Cognitive	Motivation, Creativity, Stimulation, Optimism	3 42.86%	Creativity Motivation	4 12.85%
Social	Interaction, Communication, Exchange	4 30.95%	Cooperation, Communication, Good climate, Trust	1 37.14%
Task-related	Engagement, Productivity, Contribution	5 23.81%	High performance, High productivity, Proactivity, Taking own responsibility for task	3 24.28%
Other	Work-life balance	6 19.05%	-	
Physical	Feeling fit and healthy	7 14.28%	-	

To the question of how one knows that others are in a state of low well-being, participants gave responses such as *defensiveness, lack of communication, not concentrating, sadness, don't look well,* or *unproductive*

[21] The components mentioned most (mentioned by *more than* two people) are displayed here.
[22] 1 means most components mentioned referred to this domain. Out of seven domains, mind and body was used by 21 people from a sample of 42. Therefore 50% of people referred to the mind and body domain in their description of high well-being. If several components referred to one domain in one person's description, the domain was counted only once.

(for a list of all responses, see Appendix A9). The analysis indicated that for describing others' low well-being, the social, emotional, task-related, and cognitive domains ranked highest whereas own is mainly described through mind and body, emotional, and cognitive aspects. Differences between indicators of own and others' low well-being are again, like high well-being, that for others' well-being, the social domain was referred to the most rather then the energy domain of own and low well-being (see Table 4.7). Others' well-being descriptions are therefore based on what a person expresses in their interactions with others. These aspects of well-being are overt and observable by others and are therefore suitable to be used as indicators of others' well-being. That interactions are influenced by well-being highlights that the well-being of a person has not only consequences for themselves but also for others.

The physical domain was referred to additionally in the low well-being domain when describing others' well-being. It is probably easy to determine someone's well-being if they officially show that they are ill. A similar indicator for high well-being is more difficult to find. This might be why a physical aspect was mentioned as an indicator for others' low well-being but not high well-being.

Table 4.6.

Comparison between own and others' low well-being

	Own well-being		Others' well-being	
Category	Components[23]	Rank	Components	Rank
Mind and body	Low energy, Stress, Dysfunctionality	1 61.90%	Stress	4 10.87%
Cognitive	Poor concentration, Lack of motivation, Tiredness, Disengagement, Lack of creativity	2 47.62%	Lack of concentration, Tiredness	2 15.22%
Emotional	Irritation, Frustration, Anger, Depression, Disconnectedness, Sadness	3 42.86%	Sadness[27] Anger[27]	5 8.69%
Social	Less interaction,[24] Less tolerance, Feeling undervalued, Feeling of not belonging	4 26.19%	Conflict, Lack of communication, Isolation, Misalignment	1 41.30%
Other	Don't sleep, Reluctant to be at work[25]	5 21.43%	Same as own well-being	6 6.52%
Task related	Poor output	6 19.04%	Person does only necessary work, Unproductivity	3 13.04%
Physical	Low libido[26], Pain, Being ill	7 4.76%	More sickness absence[19]	7 4.35%

[23] The components mentioned most often (by *more than* two people) are displayed here if not mentioned otherwise.
[24] Here components that were mentioned by *at least* two people are listed as two was the highest frequency available in this domain.
[25] Each component in this domain was mentioned only once. Two examples are displayed here.
[26] Each component in this domain was mentioned only once.

To summarise, the same domains were referred to when describing own and others' well-being. This indicates that one's understanding of well-being guides the description of both. However, there was a difference in the extent to which each domain was used for the descriptions of own and others' well-being. One's own well-being was mostly described through mind and body, cognitive, and emotional aspects of the experience. When describing others' well-being, the social, emotional, cognitive, and task-related domains were used most often. We cannot know how other individuals think or have insight into their cognitive processes. But we base their evaluation of others' well-being on how we engage with them and how they work and deduce emotional and cognitive domains based on this behaviour.

The social aspect was referred to the most as indicators of others' well-being. So based on how others interact with oneself is used as a main indicator to assess their well-being. The well-being of oneself has therefore not just implication for oneself but for a whole group of people that have to interact and/or work together. The well-being of others is perceived on the basis of how they affect our own work and interactions. Well-being is therefore a resource that affects the environment in which people work and interact.

The observations here are made and implications are drawn based on managers' descriptions of their teams. It is a top-down view of others' well-being. The descriptions of well-being might have been different if team members had been asked to describe how they know their colleagues experience high and low well-being. They might have a better insight into their peers' emotional and cognitive work experience, as they interact with each other on a more regular or personal basis. Line managers might only interact

with their subordinates on the basis of their performance. Therefore, depending on who is being asked about others' well-being different descriptions of well-being might be gained. As the social aspect was also brought up in descriptions of own well-being, this social aspect seems important to be paid attention to when wanting to capture experiences of well-being of others.

4.5 Limitations of the Study

The statements made in the discussion of the results are reflections based on explorative rather than inferential research. One of the limitations of the study is that it has a small sample size in addition to being limited to descriptions of managers and consultants with a particular background in terms of their affiliation to a professional network of a leadership centre. In the following subsections, the limitations of the study are discussed in detail. Despite the high number of conference attendees (N = 69), a study sample of only N = 44 could be obtained. Of those only 22 participants lead a team and could provide observer perceptions of well-being. Due to the small sample size the interpretations of the results of Study 1 should therefore be seen as implications of exploratory research that highlight future research avenues. The findings, however, complement other studies of lay descriptions of well-being. Furthermore, Study 2 also explored components of well-being and also complemented the findings of Study 1.

In terms of the data analysis method, one challenge of this study was that the found components would fit several experiential domains. However, decisions were made to put the components in one domain to make

frequency analysis and comparisons between domains based on frequencies and named components possible.

4.6 Summary and Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore components of lay descriptions of workplace well-being. In relation to this aim, this study looked at how managers and consultants describe indicators of their own and others' high and low well-being in order to shed light on (1) how their definitions align with theoretical ones; (2) whether high and low well-being are described by opposites of the same indicators; and (3) whether similar indicators are used to assess one's own well-being and that of others.

The findings of this study suggest that lay descriptions of high well-being include indicators that map onto existing well-being concepts of hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow. The majority of indicators map onto the well-being measures of eudaimonic well-being, vigour, and work engagement. The eudaimonic and energy (vigour and work engagement) components therefore seem to be important aspects of the workplace well-being experience of this sample of managers and consultants.

Several indicators belonging to different well-being concepts were used by most participants to describe their well-being experience. Like previous research, this study therefore suggests that a narrow concept of workplace well-being might not be useful. A broad concept, capturing multiple aspects of well-being, is preferable if one wants to capture the full experience of well-being. Furthermore, there were differences between participants in what range of indicators they used to describe their well-being. The differences in

descriptions of the well-being experience could be due to the positions and organisations the managers and consultants of this sample were coming from. Certain job role and work characteristics might influence the understanding of what relevant components of workplace well-being are. Study 2 therefore explores well-being descriptions with a different sample. In particular, two different organisational groups – call centre staff and wellness managers of an emergency service organisation – were asked to describe indicators of their workplace well-being in order to be able to make comparisons of well-being descriptions of two groups with different job roles and work characteristics.

The present study also suggests that next to a broad measurement of well-being, the inclusion of the social dimension in workplace well-being concepts is fruitful particularly as indicators of others' well-being are based on social interactions. The importance of social interactions as part of the well-being might need to be addressed beyond the social dimension of eudaimonic well-being (having positive and rewarding relationships, contributing to well-being of others) and vigour (emotional energy). The social identity approach (e.g. Tajfel & Turner, 1979) is a suitable concept to enable an exploration of the role of social relations for experiencing workplace well-being further. Social identification research in the workplace highlights that identification with one's work team, for example, influences interactions with another. When a person identifies highly with his or her team, the team members' support becomes overt (Haslam et al., 2005). Through social support provided by the team members, well-being is facilitated by being able to cope with stressors for example (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In Study 2 it will be explored whether

the level of identification with the team and identification with the organisation have an impact on the level of experienced well-being.

High and low well-being were described by the sample in this study with indicators stemming from the same experiential domains. Both were mainly described through indicators of the mind and body domain (e.g. energy), the cognitive, and the emotional domain. However, the emotional domain was emphasised in high well-being (e.g. contentment) and the cognitive domain in low well-being (e.g. poor concentration). Therefore, it is likely that beyond the assessment based on the mind and body domain, different indicators are used when identifying whether one is experiencing high or low well-being.

Looking at own and others' well-being, similar indicators were used to describe high and low well-being. However, for own well-being, indicators of the mind and body domain were mostly used to describe high and low well-being, compared to the social indicators which pertained to descriptions of others' high and low well-being. Own well-being is mainly judged through aspects of energy and flow whilst others' well-being is mainly judged by how well they engage socially. From these findings, I conclude that the social aspect of well-being, particularly when judging others' well-being, has implications not just for the individual's behaviour and performance at work but also for how a group of people works and performs together. If we judge others' low well-being based on low interaction and exchange, it also means that we are less likely to work well together.

Chapter 5: Study 2

– Exploring Well-Being Descriptions of People who Work in a Specific Organisational Context –

A large body of research is dedicated to creating well-being models that determine antecedents, components, and outcomes of well-being. However, there are specific sets of stressors impacting certain occupations or job roles in particular (Langan-Fox & Cooper, 2011). The emergency service sector, for example, has been recognised as having higher prevalence in specific stressors than other occupations, such as experiencing traumatic events on a regular basis coupled with shift work (Regehr & LeBlanc, 2011). In terms of job roles, call centre work has been found to have specific stressors as it is physically and emotionally intensive with performance pressure, little control, and close supervision (Bohle, Willaby, Quinlan, & McNamara, 2011). Emotional exhaustion is therefore a prevalent experience in terms of stress and well-being levels of this population (Zapf, Isic, Bechtoldt, & Blau, 2003). Therefore, in the emergency services call centre staff not only suffer from occupational stressors but they also suffer from specific job stressors that can lead to low well-being and stress. Recognizing the influence of features unique to particular occupations, organizations, and job roles on the experience and functional relationships of organizational behaviour phenomena, some scholars call for contextualization of research (Johns, 2006; Rousseau & Fried, 2001). By specifying actors, their roles and their work setting characteristics, research can acknowledge if not explore the influence of those situational features on the research outcomes.

As the discussions of the results of Study 1 has outlined, the job role and the work context are likely to influence people's descriptions of relevant components of well-being and how identity-related resources are linked to well-being. This study aims to explore components of individual workplace well-being and the relevance of identity-related resources for maintaining and enhancing well-being based on lay descriptions of the experience of workplace well-being by managers and staff in an emergency service organisation in order to explore how their specific setting influences their descriptions of components and antecedents of workplace well-being.

5.1 Exploring Workplace Well-Being Descriptions of People who Work in the Specific Context of Emergency Services

Descriptions of people who work of their well-being and its antecedents are informative as these descriptions highlight what aspects of well-being are relevant for people in their job role and work context. As outlined in Section 2.1.4.2, it is important to understand people's understanding of their well-being also for another reason: People judge their levels of well-being based on their definition of well-being and consequently engage in behaviour to maintain or improve their well-being informed by these definitions (Munoz Sastre, 1999).

As outlined, there is recognition that particular occupations face particular challenges at work that influence their experience of well-being. The emergency service sector has been recognised as having stressors that lead to increased stress levels and often post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms. These stressors can be traumatic events, shift work, and also

dealing with the public (Regehr & LeBlanc, 2011). A shared understanding of what well-being is should be present to some extent amongst emergency service workers within an organisation due to the organisational culture which constitutes a system of shared cognitions and beliefs (Schein, 1992).

It was also outlined that not only particular occupations face particular challenges at work that influence their experience of well-being but also that job roles and their characteristics are likely to influence the well-being experience. Call centre staff in emergency services often suffer from abusive calls and shift work in addition to experiencing strain of staying with a caller during an incident and stress contagion from operational staff (Brunsden, Hill, & Maguire, 2012). Call centre work in general is stressful. It is physically and emotionally intensive with performance pressure, little control, and close supervision (Bohle, Willaby, Quinlan, & McNamara, 2011). It has more psychosomatic complaints and a higher rate of emotional exhaustion than care or hotel service work (Zapf et al., 2003).

Therefore, depending on the job role within the organisation, it is likely that different groups within one organisation experience well-being in a different way. Referring to one subset of the emergency services, Brown and Campbell (1990) found that police senior management's main stressor is criticism from the media, a constable's main stressors are time pressure, long work hours, encounters with the public, and organisational politics. A sergeant's main stressors are management duties, working in isolation, and lack of consultation. Even in the same job role, differences in experienced stress can be observed. For example, in a study with nurses of one hospital it was observed that internal medical ward nurses and external medical ward

nurses perceived greater stress than nurses in accidents and emergency wards and dialysis centers (Chiang & Chang, 2012). In addition, a study with firefighters revealed that junior staff (new recruits) received higher support from family and friends and had lower levels of depression and trauma symptoms than senior staff (Regehr, Hill, Knott, & Sault, 2003).

As outlined, there are studies set in the emergency services that explore particular stressors and resources to cope with stressors for different groups within the organisation. However, no studies were found that explored whether different groups within an organisation have similar understandings of what well-being constitutes and that explore resources that not only help to cope with stress but aid to achieve well-being. In this study, two different groups in the organisation were asked the same questions in order to see whether there were differences in how organisational groups conceptualise and experience well-being and how they see the role of identity-related resources in achieving workplace well-being. The two samples in this study have unique characteristics in terms of their job role and job setting that are likely to determine how workplace well-being is engaged with.

Furthermore, current challenges that organisations of the emergency services sector in the UK face, are extensive budget cuts and job losses. The external environment (economic climate) and the organisational context in terms of the organisational climate (negative climate as staff feel negatively affected in their work by the budget cuts) are study setting characteristics that are likely to shape the meaning of well-being described by study participants.

5.2 Research Objectives of the Study

In order to explore research aim 1 (describing relevant components of individual workplace well-being) further, this study explores what indicators are used in lay descriptions of workplace well-being. Whereas in Study 1, only managers and consultants from different organisations that experienced relatively high well-being were asked to describe indicators of their workplace well-being, in this study members of a particular organisation that faces major cuts and where staff have relatively low well-being were asked to describe indicators of their workplace well-being. Furthermore, two different groups of the same organisation took part in this study. Comparing well-being descriptions of two groups provides insight into how their job role and particular work characteristics might influence their understanding of relevant components and antecedents of workplace well-being. The first group is comprised of call centre staff whose work is characterised by low autonomy, relatively low task variety, a large workload, and who are facing possible job loss. The perspective on well-being of this group is likely to focus on maintenance of well-being in challenging work circumstances. The second group consists of well-being managers whose work is characterised by relatively high autonomy, task variety, and who are not facing job losses. Their job role implies that they have good knowledge of the concept of well-being and measures for maintaining and improving it. It is likely that the descriptions mirror current well-being theories or a particular well-being framework that has been put together by the well-being managers for their work. Furthermore, it is likely that they describe well-being in in terms of growth and flourishing as their work characteristics and the nature of their job

positions allows them autonomy and development of personal skills. Due to the organizational context, both groups are likely to describe aspects of well-being also in terms of dealing with traumatic incidents or stressful situations as this is a part of the day to day work of the organisation. The financial situation of the organisation is also likely to influence both groups similarly in terms of dealing with well-being issues associated with uncertainty and organizational change.

In order to explore research aim 2 (exploring the importance of identity-related resources for experiencing individual workplace well-being; see Figure 3.1) further, this study explores how participants speak to the link between identity-related resources and workplace well-being: Whether and how they experience authenticity, identification with their team, and identification with the organisation as antecedents of their workplace well-being.

5.3 Methodology

In this study, a qualitative research approach was chosen to explore, based on participant narratives, components of workplace well-being and to gain insight into whether identity-related resources are linked to workplace well-being. As outlined in Chapter 3 (Study 2), a qualitative methodology has advantages for well-being research. A qualitative approach to data collection allows the narrative of participants about their daily work experience to be captured and enables to ask questions without priming them for certain, fixed-choice answers. Interviews and focus groups were conducted with different groups in an organisation and analysed with inductive thematic qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2010, 2000) in order to categorise answers in

themes of well-being components and described relationships between identity-related resources and well-being. First, the study sample is described, subsequently the research design and data collection procedure. Then the materials used in this study, namely interview and focus group guidelines, and the analytical procedure, are explained.

5.3.1 Sample.

There are two subsamples, well-being managers and call centre staff of an emergency service organisation in the UK; both took part in this study as I was interested in seeing whether there were differences in the responses of those two groups towards the research objectives. These samples and their unique perspective on workplace well-being are described below.

5.3.1.1 Description of interview sample.

The participants were members of the organisation's wellness team.[34] This team manages a well-being intervention and liaises with senior management and line managers to promote well-being in the organisation. Their work is characterised by relatively high autonomy, task variety, and they are not facing job losses.

The wellness team has three members. *Wellness manager 1* has been part of the organisation for many years. He worked in occupational health, learning and development, and human resources before becoming a wellness manager in 2009. He introduced the concept of *wellness* to the organisation. *Wellness manager 2* had been working in the team for only a few months at

[34] Within the organisation, well-being is referred to as wellness.

the time of the interview. Beforehand, she had been working as an operational staff member and later in the leadership strategy department. Wellness manager 2's responsibilities in the wellness team are to keep the resources for the well-being intervention up-to-date, run engagement sessions with supervisors, and train *wellness reviewers.*[35] *Wellness manager 3* is a human resources (HR) business partner who had joined the organisation only a few months before the interview took place. In her previous work, also in HR with a public organisation, she had been involved in conducting workplace well-being interventions. The HR business partner supports the team in all aspects of their work.

The role of the wellness team in the organisation is to provide a proactive approach to employee welfare in addition to the reactive approach of occupational health. The well-being programme they are delivering across the organisation is seen by themselves, the senior management team, and the HR department as a 'tool' to create resilience and persistent employee well-being. Resilience and well-being are necessary in order to cope with the ongoing organizational changes such as being able to cope with uncertainty in relation to changes in work practices and employee turnover. In the well-being programme, 'wellness' is defined as a positive state of health and well-being in physical, mental, social, spiritual, occupational, and personal life aspects.

5.3.1.2 Description of focus group sample.

The participants of the focus groups were call centre staff. In contrast to the wellness team, their work is characterised by relatively low autonomy and task

[35] Wellness reviewers are members of the organisation who are trained to read well-being profiles generated for each participant during the well-being intervention and to give advice on how to change behaviours, attitudes, and life style to achieve higher well-being.

variety, a large workload, and they face changes in the tasks they have to fulfil, as well as possible job loss.

A convenience sampling approach was taken as the call centre staff have a high workload. It was possible to hold five focus groups with differing subsamples (n = 4–6) and to gain a total sample size of N = 23. Call centre staff were asked to take part in this study by a senior line manager on the basis that they either had a break between shifts or were attending a training day and had time before the start of the session. There are different opinions about how big a focus group should be; ranging from six to ten (Morgan, 2004), fewer than seven (Krueger, 1994), and two to 12 (Wilkinson, 2003).

Schensul (1999) recommends quota sampling for focus groups. Major sources of diversity in the population to be studied should be identified. He also recommends holding some characteristics, such as gender, constant in order to compare the data of different focus groups. In this study, the selection process aimed to gather responses from different call centre teams. As the organisation has offices in two locations, the aim was also to hold three focus groups in each. It was possible to organise three focus groups in location 1 and two in location 2. There are differences between locations that might have an impact on how well-being issues are discussed. Indeed, as displayed in Table 5.2, the mood (as I observed myself) and complaints of the focus groups differed somewhat.

Judgements of the representativeness of the sample have to be based on the make-up of the focus groups rather than the sample size (Morgan, 2004; Schensul, 1999). Different teams were questioned and the focus groups included employees who had been with the organisation all their working lives

and employees who had been with the organisation for much shorter amounts of time. The call centre workforce is divided into 42.05% men and 57.95% women (this includes supervisors). The present sample has a similar distribution and consists of 43.48% men and 56.52% women. Table 5.2 also gives an overview of the focus group's make-up including participants' codes (which substitutes their name to provide anonymity), their tenure, and location of the focus group.

Table 5.1.

Demographic information on the focus group participants

Code	Tenure	Location	Mood
Female 1, FG[36]1	7 years	1	The mood is complacent but unhappy with the working environment and how people are treated by senior and line management.
Female 2, FG1	12 years		
Female 3, FG1	2.5 years		
Female 4, FG1	2 years		
Male 1, FG1	7 years		
Male 2, FG1	4 years		
Female 1, FG2	N/A	1	The mood is negative about the work environment and how the staff are treated by the management. 'Team spirit' is high, however.
Female 2, FG2	9 years		
Female 3, FG2	11 years		
Female 4, FG2	11 years		
Female 5, FG2	6 years		
Female 1, FG3	13 years	1	The mood is more positive than in FG 1 and FG 2.
Male 1, FG3	6 years		
Male 2, FG3	31 years		
Male 3, FG3	30 years		
Female 1, FG4	9 years	2	The mood is much more positive than in the other groups.
Female 2, FG4	13 years		
Male 1, FG4	2.5 years		
Male 2, FG4	34 years		
Female 1, FG5	2 years	2	The mood in the group could be described as almost neutral. Emotions were not expressed as such by the participants.
Male 1, FG5	4 years		
Male 2, FG5	23 years		
Male 3, FG5	3 years		

[36] FG = focus group.

5.3.2 Design.

In order to explore the research objectives of this study, I conducted three interviews with the wellness team and five focus groups with members of the call centre staff. I decided to conduct interviews with the wellness managers in order to explore their individual perspectives on well-being as they have different backgrounds (personnel development and health, wellness manager 1; operational work experience and leadership development, wellness manager 2; human resources management, wellness manager 3) and tasks in the team. The background and job role could influence their perspective on well-being which would be interesting to explore. I decided to conduct focus groups with the call centre staff in order to explore how different work groups within the same department experience well-being and whether that has an influence on the perspective on well-being of the individual group member.

Banister, Burman, Parker, and Taylor (1994) identify several reasons for conducting interviews to research a topic, of which several are relevant to this research. One is that interviews particularly suit research that explores the subjective meaning of concepts. In contrast to a standardised format, such as a quantitative questionnaire, where responses are elicited, in an interview participants can express and describe their understanding of certain topics. This was important for this study as components of well-being were sought on the basis of the descriptions of managers and staff, without providing them with a definition of well-being beforehand. Another reason is that interviews can explore complex issues that are not so easily researched using quantitative methods. The influence of the work context (in terms of

characteristics particular to the job role or working environment) on reports of what constitutes well-being and what relevant resources can be explored.

Focus groups are similar to interviews (Morgan, 2004). According to Fischer (2006) focus group research is underused in psychology research. But focus groups as a data collection method are useful for psychological research as they are used to gain in-depth understanding of perceptions and opinions in order to explore how people make sense of particular aspects in their lives (Fischer, 2006).

In contrast to an interview, a focus group includes the synergistic effects of group dynamics. This kind of group interaction is seen as unique to focus groups and distinguishes them from group interviews (Wilkinson, 2003). As the participants question and stimulate ideas in each other, deeper information can be gathered (Fischer, 2006). Exploring themes raised in discussions facilitates an inductive approach to determining the relevant themes. In this research teams are asked to exchange and discuss opinions on shared work experiences. It is interesting to find out whether members of the same organisational team make sense of their work experience in the same way.

Furthermore, responses can be triggered by comments or interactions with other participants (Krueger, 1994). Therefore, the internal consistency of participants' answers may not always be a given as they might change their views after hearing what others have to say or interacting with them. This has implications for how focus group data should be analysed (Krueger, 1994, p. 150):

> Some topics are discussed by more participants (extensiveness) and some comments are made more often (frequency) than others. These topics could be more important or of special interest to participants. It is risky to assume that either frequency or extensiveness is equivalent to importance without additional evidence.

Krueger (1994, pp.154–5) further warns:

> Numbers and percentages ought to be used with caution in the focus group report. Numbers sometimes convey the impression that results can be projected to a population, and this is not within the capabilities of qualitative research procedures. Instead, the researcher might consider the use of qualifiers such as: 'the prevalent feeling was that . . .' or 'several participants strongly felt that . . .' or even 'most participants agreed that . . .'.

Therefore, the results of the study are subject to thematic rather than frequency analysis. The analytical procedure is explained in more detail after the description of the procedure of conducting the interviews and focus groups below.

5.3.3 Procedure.

5.3.3.1 The procedure of conducting the interviews.

The interviews were conducted with each of the three members of the wellness team respectively on 17 and 23 February and 1 March 2012 in their office. The interviews were audio-taped with the permission of the participants. Each interview lasted one hour. The interview guideline was not

piloted in a trial study but was checked several times by the supervisors of the PhD research programme.

I read out questions from the interview guidelines (see Appendix B1). If it was not clear to me what the participants said, I would ask them to elaborate further. The answers to questions on components of workplace well-being, antecedents of workplace well-being, and antecedents related to current workplace well-being were written by myself on a computer-generated print out (see Figure 5.2).

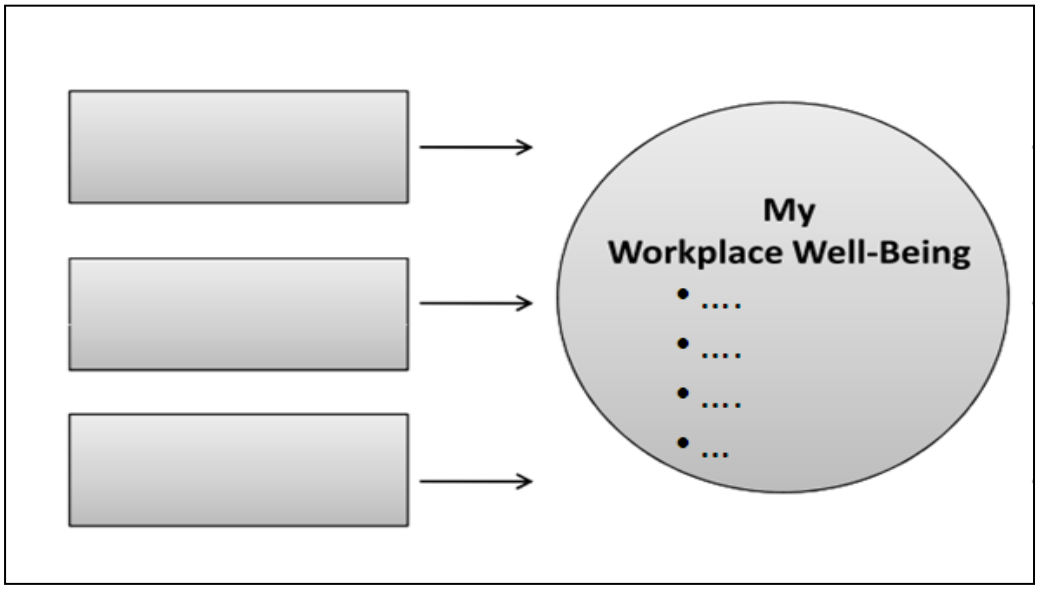

Figure 5.1 Sheet for interviews

5.3.3.2 The procedure of conducting the focus groups.

The three focus groups in location 1 were held respectively on 24 and 25 January and 1 February 2012 in the training rooms of the organisation. The two focus groups in location 2 were held respectively on 28 February and 15 March 2012, also in the organisation's training rooms. Between January and March the organisational context remained the same. No changes took place

within the organisation or within the specific work environment of the participants. Before the focus groups were conducted with the call centre staff, the questions were checked multiple times by the supervisors of the PhD research programme and a pilot trial of the focus group guideline was done with a group of PhD students.

There were several occasions when not all of the allocated individuals attended the focus group due to their workload. In location 1, the participants took part in the study because they were taking part in a training day. They were told to arrive an hour early for their training session. In location 2, the participants took part in the study as they had a shift break. Once the participants had arrived I explained the purpose of the focus group and asked participants whether they would be happy to participate in it. Then I handed a consent-to-participation sheet to each participant, explaining the purpose of the study, confidentiality, anonymity, and the procedure of the focus group session (see Appendix B2). The focus groups were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants. Each focus group session lasted 45 minutes. Focus group 5, however, lasted 55 minutes.[37] At the end of the session the participants were given an information sheet providing details on the purpose of the study and assurances of anonymity and confidentiality (see Appendix B3).

I read out questions from the focus group guidelines (see Appendix B4). If the participants did not answer I rephrased the question. When only one participant expressed an opinion and no one else responded or showed

[37] The longer duration was due to participants making a lot of comments at the end of the session. The time in location 1 was restricted due to the training that followed, whereas in location 2 there were no time constraints and it was possible to add more time for comments to the session.

non-verbal signs of agreement or disagreement I asked whether the rest of the group agreed. During the conversations I would repeat or rephrase a participant's answer if I was not clear about what the participant had said. The participants were also asked to elaborate on a point if I thought the statement was too generic to enable understanding. The responses used for the data analysis therefore do not represent categories associated with well-being that were mentioned by the participants as top of mind. They are rather categories that were elaborated on in the discussion between participants. The answers to the questions referring to the components of workplace well-being and antecedents of workplace well-being were written down on a sheet of paper (using a flipchart) by the facilitator, so that participants could refer back to those answers when discussing the question on antecedents relating to current workplace well-being.

For focus groups 1–4, a scheme was drawn on a flip chart with a pen upon the arrival of the participants. An illustration of the scheme is displayed in Figure 5.2. For focus group 5, a sheet containing a computer-generated figure (which I kept as back-up) was used as no flipcharts or paper were provided in the room. This was the same figure I used for the interviews (see Figure 5.1).

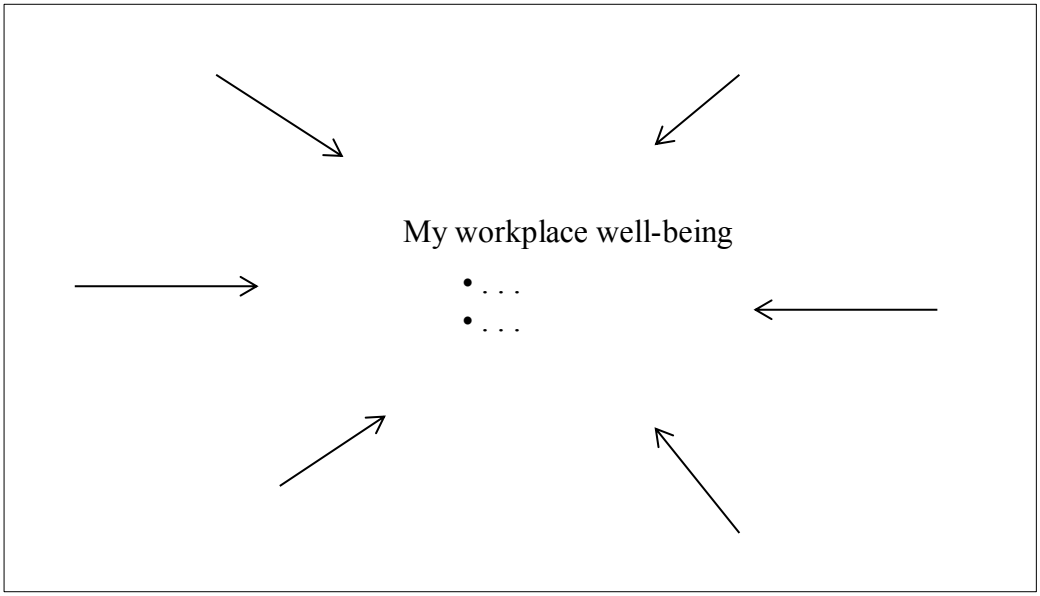

Figure 5.2 Scheme drawn on flipchart for focus groups 1–4

5.3.4 Material – Questions asked in interviews and focus groups. In the interviews and focus groups the questions covered the same areas in order to be able to compare the answers from both sub-samples. The questions in the interviews and focus groups were used to determine components of individual workplace well-being and the role of identity-related resources as antecedents of workplace well-being. Questions were asked on the meaning of workplace well-being for the participants, antecedents of workplace well-being, perceptions of specific antecedents of well-being (authenticity, work group identification, and organisational identification), perceived levels of well-being in the organisation, and antecedents of current workplace well-being in the organisation. Additional questions on the

perceptions of the well-being intervention and practices were asked as they were of interest to the organisation.[38] These are not used in this study.

At the beginning of the interview the participants were asked to describe their role and tenure. In the focus groups, the participants were asked to mention their role in their team and how long they had been working for the organisation. In the following paragraphs each guideline question will be outlined in its relationship with the research aims and objectives of the study.

First, the question 'What does the term well-being mean for you?' was asked in the interviews and focus groups. It relates to research objective 1: How is workplace well-being described by people who work? (see Figure 3.1). It aims to determine components of well-being by asking an open question without prompting a particular definition. By using the word *mean* participants have the chance to talk about their experiences of well-being and define and therefore name components of well-being. The word *mean* also allows for the possibility that participants might answer, for example, 'The term means nothing to me as I only experience stress.' The responses give an indication of whether components of well-being used in the descriptions of the participants correspond with components of well-being concepts.

After establishing what well-being means to the participants, the next question asked was, 'What would facilitate your well-being at work?' This relates to research aim 2 (to explore the importance of identity-related resources for experiencing individual workplace well-being; see Figure 3.1). This question aims to determine what people who work see as crucial

[38] The study was also used by the organisation that was researched. It wanted feedback from the staff on the success of a well-being intervention that had taken place a year before the study was conducted.

antecedents of individual well-being and whether identity-related resources are among them. The open question, without cues on general antecedents of well-being or the specific identity-related resources, was posed to see whether identity-related resources would be brought up by the participants as relevant well-being antecedents. The word *facilitate* was used, rather than *antecedents* or *influence*, to create an open mindset about what those antecedents could include. The word *antecedent* could be associated with discrete traits or behaviours that influence well-being. The responses give an indication of whether authenticity and social identification are seen as important antecedents of workplace well-being by people who work.

After establishing what concepts participants see as antecedents of well-being, I cued for specific identity-related resources as antecedents of well-being. The question 'Identification with your team – do you see this as important for your well-being at work?' relates to research objective 4: Is work group identification an antecedent of individual workplace well-being? (see Figure 3.1). The responses give insight into whether social identification is seen as a relevant antecedent of workplace well-being. It provides further information about which aspects of social identification influence well-being. For example, social support might be an important facet that contributes to the experience of well-being. The question about social identification with the team (i.e. work group identification) was asked before the question on organisational identification, as work group identity is more proximal than organisational identity to an individual's identity (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001).

The responses to the question 'Identification with your organisation – do you see any importance in this for your well-being at work?' gives further

insight into whether social identification is seen as a relevant antecedent of workplace well-being (research objective 5: Is organisational identification an antecedent of individual workplace well-being?; see Figure 3.1). It sheds light on whether and how organisational identification influences well-being in a way that might be different from how work group identification relates to an individual's workplace well-being. For example, a feeling of belonging to the organisation rather than receiving support from organisational members might play a significant role in achieving well-being here.

The question on the relevance of authenticity as an identity-related resource for well-being was left as the last question on specific antecedents of well-being, as I assumed that participants would be least familiar with this concept. I did not want to alienate the participants with an unfamiliar concept but 'warm them up' first with questions on antecedents they could relate to, such as their interaction with their work team. The question 'Authenticity – can you see any relationship to your well-being at work?' relates to research objective 3: Is authenticity an antecedent of individual workplace well-being? (see Figure 3.1). The responses give further insight into whether and how authenticity influences well-being. Different facets of authenticity might be seen to have different links to workplace well-being.

Then in order to focus participants on current well-being related issues in their own workplace, the question was asked: 'On a scale from 1 to 7, with 1 meaning 'very low' and 7 meaning 'very high', how high are well-being levels at [your organisation][39]?' This question relates to perceived well-being in the organisation. It is also used to contextualise the other data. The focus

[39] To provide anonymity the name of the organisation is here substituted with *your organisation*.

group participants answered this question by reporting well-being levels of their respective teams rather than then the organisation. They stated that they could only judge what their team felt like.

The final question was: 'What are the key issues that have an impact on the well-being levels at [your organisation]?' This question was used to see what most prevalent well-being antecedents are in the specific work context of the participants. This question relates to research aim 2 (to explore the importance of identity-related resources for experiencing individual workplace well-being; see Figure 3.1). This question indicates whether authenticity, work group identification, and organisational identification are seen as relevant predictors for current well-being in their work context. It is of interest here whether the same aspects are highlighted as in the question relation to general antecedents of well-being. The answers to this question would show that the aspects of well-being models might not apply in all work contexts or that some aspects are more important than others for different organisational teams. This question was followed by questions about experiences of the well-being intervention, which were used as information gathering for the organisation.

5.3.5 Data analysis procedure.

Before thematic qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2010, 2000) was conducted in this study, audiotapes were transcribed by an external transcription service using the intelligent verbatim method.[40] Each transcript was then read several times by myself while listening to the recordings. This

[40] In this method, elements such as 'erm' or 'hmm' are omitted if the transcriber thinks that they do not add meaning to the script (UK Transcription, 2012).

was done to ensure that the transcriptions were accurate and so that I could familiarise myself with the raw data. Furthermore, codes were created for the participants to ensure anonymity (see Table 5.1).

Meaning condensation, followed by meaning interpretation, takes place in a thematic content analysis (Kvale & Brinkman, 2008). Therefore, an a priori coding scheme was developed associated with the themes/questions covered in the focus groups and interviews. Then, for research objective 1 (How is workplace well-being described by people who work?) deductive thematic qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2010) was carried out by creating codes based on the well-being components that were identified in Study 1 (hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow). As a second step, inductive coding was used to add codes if the participants verbalised aspects that were not part of the original coding scheme. Meaningful words and phrases were then allocated a code based on the developed coding scheme for each interview and focus group question (see Appendix B6). As a last step, the coding was double-checked.

For research objectives 3, 4, and 5 (linked to research aim 2 to explore the importance of identity-related resources for experiencing individual workplace well-being) deductive thematic qualitative content analysis was also conducted. First, deductive coding was carried out using a theory-derived[41] hierarchical coding scheme (see Code Book, Appendix B5).

[41] Deductive codes for defintions of well-being were derived for hedonic well-being from Diener (2009) and Warr (2008), for eudaimonic well-being from Ryff (1998) and Diener (2009), for vigour from Shirom (2005), for work engagement from Schaufeli and Bakker (2001), for stress from Karrasek and Theorell (1990), for flow from Cszikzentmihalyi (1998), for mental health from Huppert (2009), and for coping from Folkman and Lazarus (1990). Deductive codes for antecedents of well-being were derived for person-related antecedents from Fisher (2010), Diener (2009), and Ryff (1998) and for work-related antecedents from Warr (2007), Hackman and Oldham (1975), and Morgeson and Humphrey (2006). Deductive

Additional themes raised by the participants were added to the coding scheme in a second step, as it was found that the initial coding scheme was not detailed enough and missed out aspects of participants' experiences (inductive coding). Meaningful words and phrases were then allocated a code based on the developed coding scheme for each interview and focus group question (see Appendix B6).

In the analysis and interpretation process, matrices were used to display within-case comparisons between focus groups and between interviews (Miles & Huberman, 1994; see Appendix B6). For each research objective, the matrix showed which codes had been mentioned in each focus group and in each interview. This gave an overview of the themes that were mentioned or seen as important by call centre staff and by wellness managers and enabled me to check whether both groups talked about similar issues. This process did not allow me to see how often each code was referred to. However, a frequency analysis would have shown a skewed picture particularly in focus groups, as it is in the nature of focus groups for participants to repeat what has been said while agreeing or discussing the issue mentioned in more detail (Krueger, 1994; see Section 5.3.2).

Thematic qualitative content analysis investigates text in relation to its communication context rather than just the content of the text (Mayring, 2010). Therefore, I noted observations from the transcripts such as whether participants in one group agreed with each other or had different opinions if it became apparent that there were stark differences between individuals and

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codes for elements of social identification were derived from Haslam (2004) and for elements of authenticity from Kernis and Goldman (2006). See also Appendix C5.

focus groups. I included how the question was discussed in the results and discussion section, if this was useful for answering the research objective.

There are two sets of data. One set is the data from the interviews with the wellness team. The other set is the data from focus groups whose participants belong to call centre staff. Due to the nature of interviews and focus groups as data collection methods, the methodology of the data collection differed between the two groups. In an interview only one person is talking and sharing ideas, whereas in a focus group a number of people talk. Individuals' ideas, opinions, and beliefs lead to reactions from other group members, and vice versa (see Section 5.3.2). This has implications for comparing the two different data sets with each other. Comparisons of frequencies (of themes mentioned, for example) cannot be made freely, as described in the previous paragraph. However, the two data sets can be compared in terms of the themes and issues that were covered in the answers, as the same questions were asked in both the interviews and the focus groups.

The results will first be presented for the focus groups and then the interviews separately. The conversations of the call centre staff in the different focus groups will be compared, as will the responses of the members of the wellness team. This is useful to do to highlight differences between groups and individuals that might stem from characteristics unique to their individual job role or work environment. However, for the next step of interpreting result, where the data gained from the focus groups and the data gained from the interviews are compared, all five focus groups are treated together as a whole conversation; the same is done with the interviews. This is done to compare

the accounts on well-being of the distinct organisational groups and their general work characteristics that distinguish the two groups from another.

5.4 Results and Discussion

As Miles and Huberman (1994) state, in qualitative data analysis there is no clear boundary between describing and explaining. Therefore, in this study the results and discussion sections are integrated. The structure of this section reflects the research aims and objectives of the research programme. I compare the perspectives of call centre staff and wellness managers in terms of what they see as relevant components of individual workplace well-being (research aim 1) and whether they see identity-related resources as relevant for individual workplace well-being (research aim 2). A comparison enables explorations into how the organisational context that is similar for both groups and the work and job characteristics that are different for both groups might influence their perspective on well-being. After the results are described, the narratives are then interpreted with the help of existing research on components and identity-related resources as antecedents of well-being.

5.4.1 Components of workplace well-being.

In order to answer research objective 1 (How is workplace well-being described by people who work?; see Figure 3.1), the descriptions of workplace well-being by the call centre staff and wellness managers are described and compared. The participants were asked: ‘What does the term well-being mean for you?’

I outline the results regarding this research objective by first summarising the content of the participant responses in focus groups and interviews (Table 5.2). This content is then mapped onto existing well-being concepts (displayed in Table 5.3). Then I explore how the call centre staff and wellness managers differed in terms of what components they referred to.

Table 5.2.

Participant responses about the indicators of the workplace well-being experience

Participant subsample	Content of responses (prompting interview questions are displayed in italics.)
Focus group 1	Satisfaction, atmosphere, comfort, good air conditioning, good noise levels, colleagues, equipment (computer systems that work), decent supervisor, good management levels, good work, decent pay, know what you're doing, confidence, being kept up to date, enough staff for the calls for the amount of work *(…) What does it feel like when you have high well-being or what does it feel like if you have low well-being?* Enjoying yourself, feeling valued, being healthy, being not tired, not stressed, frame of mind
Focus group 2	Healthy environment, comfortable environment (temperature, draught), decent work station, look of surroundings (e.g. dirty carpets), whether you are happy with your work, getting on well with supervisors, regular breaks, supervisor looks after staff *(…) What does it feel like when you have high well-being? What is that experience like? Or what is it like when you have low well-being?* Feel healthy, positive, productive, less stressed, how you are supported through sickness, [opposite of well-being is] going in to work when you are not feeling 100%, it's draining to battle against how you are feeling and carrying on through the work
Focus group 3	Stress-free, time off, good health, exercise, peace of mind, good work-life balance *(…) What does it feel like to have high well-being? What do you experience then?* Never experienced it in the job, that is why we are all stuck for words *What does low well-being feel like then?* Last working day – I start to feel less stressed and happier, sense of calm, shift system where there is enough time for yourself, time to get things done, work-life balance, routine is good for well-being as well
Focus group 4	Contentment, happiness, support at work and at home, good quality of mental health, satisfaction in what you do, valued by managers, freedom and the tools to do the job, healthy (e.g. correct temperature) environment This is what we would, this is what we perceive we would like? It's not what we've got, is that, yes this is what we're . . . ? . . . *What does it feel like when you have high well-being or what does it feel like, maybe it's easier to think about that if you have low well-being?* Work is easier, it's easier to manage if the logistics and the circumstances are at the right level, you enjoy the work, you enjoy the company of your colleagues, you don't mind coming to work, I think the callers also get a better service, you do the job better if you're happier, confidence, trust (in ability), trusted by management to do job
Focus group 5	Happy, healthy, fit, energy, vitality, contentment, satisfaction, your life in balance
Wellness manager 1	Being grounded, content with what you've got, quality of life, health, energy levels, it's about you as a whole person (work, rest and play), being productive, sense of purpose, feeling like you're achieving things, progressing, keeping it sustainable (recognising when you need to recharge your batteries), knowing your limits and how you operate best, creating an environment that suits you in your sort of rhythm of getting work done, balance between your work life, your home life, social life, recognising when something's not quite right, confidence, happiness, keeping your skills, professional development up, trying to stay ahead of things really
Wellness manager 2	Physical and mental health, happiness, feeling valued, feeling empowered, feeling in control (internal locus of control)
Wellness manager 3	Well-being at work, is almost a contradiction, well-being is more holistic than that, need to include the whole of one's life because what impacts at work sometimes comes from home and what impacts at home sometimes comes from work, physical health, mental health, coping strategies, work environment

To draw implications from the responses on what components of workplace well-being were mentioned by managers and staff in this organisation, the answers on components of workplace experience were grouped according to theoretical well-being concepts that were identified in Study 1 (hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow). Additional categories were introduced in the grouping process when the theoretical concepts did not cover the aspects mentioned by the participants.[43] The components of individual workplace well-being mentioned by the call centre staff and the wellness team are displayed in Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 and described thereafter by drawing links to the research literature on the components of workplace well-being definitions.

[43] The coding scheme can be found in Appendix C5.

Table 5.3.

Components of individual workplace well-being named by call centre staff

Hedonic well-being	Eudaimonic well-being	Vigour	Engagement	Flow	Physical well-being	Other concepts related to well-being	Antecedents of well-being	Outcomes of well-being
1. Enjoyment 2. Happiness 3. Pleasure 4. Sense of calm 5. Contentment 6. Satisfaction 7. Feeling positive	1. Feeling valued 2. Being confident	1. Not tired 2. Not feeling drained 3. Energy 4. Vitality	1. Don't mind going to work	1. Work is easier	1. Being healthy 2. Physical health 3. Being fit	1. Not stressed 2. Low stress 3. Mental health	1. Time affluence 2. Time for oneself 3. Know what one is doing 4. Know what will happen in the next year 5. Support from others when ill 6. Going to work when one feels 100% 7. Happy when right staffing levels are present 8. Easier to manage work when staffing levels are right (i.e. control, support, workload) 9. Life balance	1. Work is more tolerable in a difficult job 2. Do better job (i.e. good work performance) 3. Customers are served more quickly and they are happier

Table 5.4.

Components of individual workplace well-being named by wellness team

Hedonic well-being	Eudaimonic well-being	Vigour	Engagement	Flow	Physical well-being	Other concepts related to well-being	Antecedents of well-being	Outcomes of well-being
1. Happiness 2. Feeling grounded 3. Contentment	1. Feeling valued 2. Feeling in control (i.e. environmental mastery) 3. Confidence 4. Empowerment 5. Sense of purpose and achievement	1. Energy	1. “Engagement is closely aligned with well-being”.	-	1. Physical health 2. Health	1. Mental health 2. Quality of life 3. “Workplace well-being is a contra-diction; work and life cannot be separated”.	1. Work-life balance 2. Balance between work, rest and play 3. Recognise when one needs to rest (i.e. sustainable behaviour, pacing oneself) 4. Know the environment one works best in 5. Time management 6. Coping strategies 7. Work environment	1. Productive at work

Table 5.3 and Table 5.4. indicate that the participants did not distinguish between components, antecedents, and outcomes of workplace well-being. However, they agreed when I pointed out that antecedents and outcomes were also named rather than just components. Components, antecedents, and outcomes are also not always distinguished in the conceptual literature on well-being. Ryff (1995), as outlined previously, defines her concept of eudaimonic well-being through antecedents of the eudaimonic well-being experience (e.g. environmental mastery) rather than components of the experience. The participants gave more specific answers on components when asked what it felt like to have high or low well-being at work.

Call centre staff referred mostly to hedonic well-being and vigour. The latter was referred to as *not being tired*, *not exhausted*, and *having physical vitality*. These descriptions could also be allocated to physical health indicators. In comparison to the call centre staff, the wellness team referred to more aspects of eudaimonic than hedonic well-being. Among the different categories health was mentioned by both call centre staff and wellness team: the wellness team referred mainly to physical health whereas the call centre staff referred mainly to mental health. In addition to common psychological well-being components, health seemed to be an important well-being component for the participants. A relation to other well-being concepts, such as quality of life and stress, was also drawn.

To conclude, a wide range of well-being aspects and related concepts was mentioned; while call centre staff and the wellness team talked about different aspects of workplace well-being. This suggests that workplace well-being might best be described as a multi-dimensional construct. As the different groups in the organisation highlighted different aspects, we should question whether general claims about what constitutes workplace well-being can be applied to all

occupational groups or even all groups within one organisation. The reason for those differences could be that the job context of each group is different. The call centre staff have a large workload, face changes in the tasks they have to fulfil, and possible job loss. They used terms such as *not being stressed*, *not feeling drained, being confident, having a sense of calm,* and *feeling positive* to describe well-being. The call centre staff seem to equate low well-being with stress. So even when participants were asked directly what well-being is, they drew the link to stress. The wellness team mentioned coping but did not mention the term stress once when asked to describe components of well-being. The call centre staff might perceive well-being as being the opposite of stress because the current conditions do not provide the opportunity to experience well-being in the sense of positive affect and thriving. They only experience their work in terms of stress and coping with stress; they think about minimising bad feelings and stress and about coping in the current harmful environment. As for the wellness team, who do not work in the same environment and who have been thinking about well-being and learning and development[44] as part of their job description, they describe well-being in terms of thriving and self-development (eudaimonic well-being). They may not simply perceive well-being this way because of their professional background. Their current working conditions provide the opportunity to experience high well-being. The wellness team is not facing job losses. Even though their workload is high, they have autonomy over their work tasks, for example. Thus, I would argue, well-being is understood differently by both organisational groups because of the different work environments they are working in.

[44] All wellness team members are currently working in learning and development or held a past job that involved elements of it.

Physical components of well-being (e.g. feeling fit) were mentioned by both groups. The organisation of the participants belongs to the emergency services where physical fitness is required for most staff in order to be able to perform their job effectively. So the organizational context can also influence what aspects of well-being are emphasized in descriptions of the experience.

5.4.2 Antecedents of well-being.

In order to explore research aim 2 (to explore the importance of identity-related resources for experiencing individual workplace well-being; see Figure 3.1), the descriptions of workplace well-being by the call centre staff and wellness managers are described and compared. The participants were first asked about antecedents of well-being in general and then they were asked in turn about the relevance of each identity-related resource for individual workplace well-being.

I outline the results regarding this research aim by first summarising the content of the participant responses to the general question on antecedents of workplace well-being in focus groups and interviews. Then, I describe and compare their responses for the relevance of authenticity (Section 5.4.2.1), team identification, and organisational identification (Section 5.4.2.2) for individual workplace well-being.

When asked ‘What would facilitate your well-being at work?’ the call centre staff and the wellness team named an array of antecedents of workplace well-being. These were related to context factors (e.g. work-life balance, behaviour that supports health, social support outside work); contact with others (e.g. being part of a team, receiving support from management, abuse from clients); environmental clarity (e.g. organisational change processes, too much supervision, lack of management, task clarity); externally generated goals (e.g. workload); physical security (e.g. clean environment, functioning equipment, shift patterns); and valued social position (e.g.

valued role). The wellness managers also mentioned person factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation). Call centre staff talked in more depth about physical security factors (see Appendix B6).

When asked for antecedents that influence current individual workplace well-being in the organisation, a subset of aspects that had previously been mentioned were highlighted by the call centre staff. These are displayed in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5.

Overview of antecedents of current workplace well-being as perceived by call centre staff

Work characteristic	Issue	Examples of participant verbatim transcript
Physical security	Noise	"Noise, temperature. Temperature is a big issue in there, that can be very frustrating." (Female 5, FG 2)
	Hygiene	"Detoxify the room that we're in. It's a bit unkept and unclean." (Female 1. FG 5)
	Air conditioning	"I think we can only speak for our office but we have had a few problems with the actual office. Things like the air conditioning is rubbish, people suffer a lot of nasal complaints or bronchial complaints. I swear it is because of the room in there. I guess if they moved us somewhere else that was a better office. . ." (Male 3, FG 3)
	Equipment	"Yes the comfort and the noise levels and the equipment I think all go together, don't they?" (Female 4, FG 1)
	Space	"We have been described as the battery hens, battery chickens." (Male 3, FG 3)
	Furniture	"And the kitchen as well, it's all falling apart and it's not in a very nice state." (Female 1, FG 5)
Management behaviour	Pettiness of line management	"And when you've been told to [straighten up your uniform] and you've been dealing with something very stressful and you just don't want to be sat there with your [tight uniform] on. You don't come into contact with the people who are calling at all and it's so annoying. It's the one thing that gets me, it's pettiness." (Male 3, FG 5)
	Over-management by line management	"Going back to that trust thing, though, the sections that I see working best, are the most efficient, are the sections that I've trusted just to get on with what they do. You know everyone is experienced in what they're doing and those that are left to do it, you know, generally from my perspective do a far better job because they're not, you know, thinking someone's sat on their shoulder, or, you know, they're being monitored constantly, or, you know, what are you up to and why aren't you ready? . . ." (Male 2, FG 4)
	Detachment of senior management	"I don't think the high-up senior managers will know or understand what people do at a lower level really." (Male 2, FG 1)
Environmental clarity	Organisational change	"I think at the moment we have had a lot of changes, haven't we? I think that is very difficult. Unsettling, yes." (Female 3, FG 2) " . . . they're looking at our jobs, aren't they, this year?" (Female 2, FG 1) ". . . they are talking changing our shift pattern . . . . But in general I think most people want to stay on the shift pattern that we are on. In that situation you feel that the organisation are perhaps wanting to change it for whatever reasons they have for ease of whatever and maybe in that situation they are not thinking about people's well-being, they are just changing it for whatever reason they have got to change it for." (Female 4, FG 2) " . . . But that makes life in our room a lot more difficult because it seems that they don't seem to understand that by making one decision one week and then changing it again the next week becomes very stressful and very difficult for us in the room. And it seems that that's what is happening all the time." (Male 1, FG 1)
Valued social position	Not feeling valued	"Yes I think what they do, they never really thank, they never really concentrate on the good stuff that people do. . . . But say, for example, if I was sat there and obviously like now I haven't got a [straight uniform] on, I would have someone come over and chastise me for not [having straightened up the uniform]. But in the same instance if I did a really good job on something no one would come over and say, you know, "I just listened to that call you did a minute ago, that's a really well, that's a really job well done". . . . They always concentrate on the negative and never the positive in here and I think if they put a lot more effort in, as much effort into that as they do for picking up on negatives, then people would be a lot happier." (Male 2, FG 1)

As outlined in Table 5.5, highlighted antecedents of well-being were physical security, management behaviour, environmental clarity, and valued social position. In none of the descriptions were identity-related resources named as antecedents of well-being. However, the call centre staff mainly described demands rather than resources of well-being, which might be a reflection of their work setting. They experience stress, low well-being, and job demands that threaten workplace well-being. If they were to be asked in a neutral setting or positive working environment, they might outline job characteristics that contribute to a positive working environment and high well-being.

The wellness team highlighted similar issues that were influencing the current well-being of employees in the organisation. These were organisational change, challenging aspects of the work environment, such as the change of shift patterns, supervisors caring less about the individual and more about meeting productivity targets, and the challenges of an even work-life balance.

As neither the call centre staff nor the wellness team mentioned identity-related resources when describing antecedents of workplace well-being, specific questions were asked in the focus groups and interviews on the influence of authenticity and social identification on well-being. In the following sections the participant responses on the role of the two identity-related resources for well-being are outlined for each resource separately.

5.4.2.1 The role of the identity-related resource of authenticity for experiencing workplace well-being.

There are marked differences between the call centre staff's perspective and the wellness team's perspective on authenticity. Authenticity was an unfamiliar concept

for the call centre staff. They struggled to answer the question, ‘Authenticity – can you see any relationship to your well-being at work?’ For the wellness team, authenticity was regarded as being important for a positive organisational culture and for attaining workplace well-being. Each perspective is outlined in the following sections in more detail and relations are drawn to literature on authenticity and well-being.

In each of the sections, I firstly summarise the content of discussions of each focus group or interview in order to provide an overview of the issues that were discussed. I also describe the way the discussions took place as this can provide some insight into how participants relate to the identity-related resources. Then the themes that were identified in the analysis are discussed in more detail in relation to current literature. Participant verbatim is used to illustrate the findings. At the end of this section I compare the perspectives of both groups on the role of the identity-related resource of authenticity for experiencing workplace well-being.

Call centre staff perspectives on authenticity in the workplace.

In focus group 1 only two participants gave an answer and one participant nodded in agreement with what was being said. Others did not respond even after I asked for other thoughts. Authenticity was described in this group as behavioural congruency in terms of living in accordance with one’s own values. The respondents did relate authenticity in the workplace to workplace well-being. They talked about the link in the sense that being able to be authentic at work leads to a feeling of ease. They outlined that if an individual has to act very differently inside and outside work he or she would have a dual personality that would create feelings of tension. One respondent gave an example for this statement: not agreeing with procedures at

work but having to behave according to them and therefore not behaving in a way one would normally do, would have a negative impact on well-being.

In focus group 2, the participants did not know how to respond to the question. I had to explain it and ask them to elaborate after each answer to receive more than general statements detached from personal experience from the respondents. They stated they would determine the authenticity of another person by being able to understand that person through knowing them well. They also understood authenticity in terms of being able to express personal opinions and being able to deal with work tasks in a personal way, i.e. giving a personal touch to a phone call. This could have been an answer that was based on the phrasing of the question that defined authenticity as firstly, knowing oneself in terms of strengths and weaknesses for example and secondly, being oneself at work (see Appendix B1). In relation to the link between authenticity and well-being they talked about the importance of role separation. They stated that it can be frustrating at times to be unable to act authentically at work by having to differentiate between personal and professional values and norms and only act in accordance to the latter. However, they state that role separation is natural: At work one has a certain role with assigned behaviours. Personal opinion might differ from the professional standpoint. But the personal opinion relates to the identity of the person outside of work. Work and the professional standpoint is part of one's professional identity.

In focus group 3 I had to prompt participants as to whether or not they felt authentic at work and also to prompt for the relevance of authenticity to well-being. The participants in this group said that authenticity was not relevant as they had to act in a professional manner and wear a uniform. Personal self-expression at work

was said to be only possible through conversations with colleagues. Furthermore, they saw self-expression as not necessary for this type of job and even not allowed.

In focus group 4 two participants asked for clarification after the question was posed and I had to prompt for the relevance of authenticity for well-being during the conversation. However, the participants always referred to the importance of professional behaviour and to role separation: one does the job one is employed to do and that is all one does at work, i.e. behaving as the role requires which does not necessarily mirror personal preferences for behaviour.

In focus group 5 I had to ask whether the participants felt authentic at work and also had to prompt for the relevance of authenticity to well-being. The participants of this group understood authenticity as bounded by professional behaviour. This means that one can be oneself at work but has to be professional about it and know where to draw the line. Again this might mean that they are not authentic: The behaviour due to role requirements does not necessarily match personal preferences for behaviour. Participants stated that authenticity would only be something worth thinking about for someone who does not recognise that different roles require different behaviour. Some participants stated that it is actually important to be inauthentic, in terms of not showing the person behind the uniform, in order to protect oneself. One participant, however, also stated that for him there is no role separation and that he feels never off duty, as work might call him to request his help and because of the strength of his occupational identity.

To summarise, the majority of the call centre staff stated to a great extent that they were not able to and did not feel a need to express their personal identity at work. They did acknowledge that there are situations where there is misalignment between personal and professional actions that would lead to tension. However, the

majority of the conversations concentrated on people feeling that they did not have to fundamentally change who they are when at work. What would change is that their identity salience would shift to the professional identity. They highlighted the notion that there are different selves or identities. Their professional identity, their identity as an emergency services worker, was expressed and important to them. So they were authentic in the sense that they thought and behaved in accordance with what they thought a good, professional emergency services worker did; but they did not express their personal identity at work. Thus, role separation takes place for the majority of the call centre staff. Therefore, authenticity in terms of expressing personal identity at work was relevant only to a limited extent.

In the following paragraphs the themes around authenticity that emerged in discussions with the participants are explored in more detail in relation to the literature. Supporting statements from the focus group narratives are provided to illustrate the discussion.

Multiple true selves.

In the literature there is an assumption that there is one true core self that is carried through all identities (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). What emerged clearly from the discussions was that there seemed to be no single true self for the call centre staff: There were multiple true selves. Male 1 (FG 5), for example, saw himself as a dedicated emergency services worker and a dedicated father but did not let the two identities interact with each other. He enacted each identity in its relevant context.

> *"There's a professional front when I put the uniform on but at home I'm different with my kids and that. I don't want any interest in the [organisation] at all at home. I'm not interested in the [organisation] at all. When I come to*

work, I do my job professionally and I go home, and that's the end of it." (Male 2, FG 5)

Others saw themselves as dedicated emergency services workers but thought that self-expression or expressions of personal opinions were not appropriate at work.

"I think we only really need to express ourselves so much. With the job we do which is answering calls, dealing with whatever people come in about. It is the same for everyone who answers a call, it is the same situation. It is another corporate culture etc. When it comes to expressing your opinions, I don't have a great need to do that in work anyway, I can do that in the pub." (Male 1, FG3)

"Whilst I'm me at work and I say I don't adopt a persona, I probably do because I'd really like to say something to some people but I wouldn't because of the role that I actually undertake on behalf of the organisation." (Male 1, FG 4)

"We're employed on a condition that we're expected to deliver a service and if that service involves us voicing our own personal opinions then there's no real place for that within the service that we're trying to provide. So I think it comes as part of the job description if you will, applied to be, you know to provide this level of service and you're obligated really to do that at the level that's required." (Male 2, FG 4)

The participants highlighted the notion of multiple selves that is in alignment with social identity and self-categorization theories (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987). These theories state that there is a range of situations where individuals' sense of self is informed by their group membership and that each person has

multiple social selves as they belong to multiple groups. Also from a personality theory perspective, it can be stated that multiple selves exist. In a social-contextual perspective on personality, Sheldon and colleagues (1997) outline that people vary in the personality traits they show in different roles. For example, it has been found that people are generally more extrovert with friends and more conscientious as employees. So the question here is what part of the identity of a person authenticity refers to. The call centre staff did not feel inauthentic because they did not express their personal selves. However, some participants (in focus group 1) did acknowledge that there are times when personal and professional values and norms clash and that this creates tension. Mainly, the participants felt authentic in their role as emergency services workers. Thus interpersonal authenticity was shown in terms of enacting their social identity as an emergency service worker. A strong occupational identity can usually be found in this occupation (Brunsden et al., 2010). So authenticity in terms of their social identity would be relevant for their well-being at work.

Work and job role characteristics as constraints of authenticity.

Another aspect that was mentioned in terms of being true to the professional identity was that one adheres to the professional standards but also can still add a 'personal touch' to the call. Adding their personal style to a call was seen as appropriate as it made the call genuine.

> *"I don't feel I have to come in here and be a different person, I don't feel that I leave the real me outside the door and I have to come in and become a robot, I don't feel that at all. I feel like we can all bring our own personalities to the job and I think within the office we are, I think we are very much the sort of*

people we are I tend to feel. But also on the phone with people it is only what we have to do that toes a set line and I think that is just the way it had to be because of the job we do. I think you could still bring your own personality to calls you take I personally think." (Female 1, FG 3)

Being professional and giving a personal note to a call are aspects that have been researched in service-based occupations under the label of emotional labour (Hochschild, 1983). Workers who perform intensive emotional labour (expressing emotions expected from them by their role) can distance themselves from their true emotions (emotional dissonance) and might result in feelings of self-alienation or inauthenticity (Hochschild, 1983). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) however highlight that identification with the role moderates the effects of emotional labour. Social identification with one's work and therefore salience of values and norms can mean that emotional labour is actually experienced as enjoyable. Also Sloan (2007) draws attention to the fact that when exploring the effects of emotional labour on employee well-being, one should consider whether the self-concept of the employee is anchored in the personal or the professional identity.

Another possible reason why authenticity did not emerge as an aspect of working life to which participants related very much might be the nature of the job. According to some participants, their job does not facilitate self-expression because it is guided by standard procedures and policies.

"You are very policy driven, particularly in our department. I suppose that free reign of doing what you think would be the right thing in certain circumstances is quite rarely able to be shown. I think you have to follow a set procedure, well we are supposed to." (Female 1, FG 3)

Like in other call centre work, the task behaviour of the call centre staff of the study is strongly regulated (Bohle et al., 2011). In addition, the demand for professional behaviour also limits call centre staff acting according to their personal identity. For the participants it was important to act professionally, as a good emergency service worker (strong occupational identity). Therefore, they were only authentic to one's professional and not their personal identity.

Some call centre staff saw the uniform as an important aspect of their professional identity. While their role was expressed and made visible through the uniform, they also saw it as a form of protection for their personal identity. Thus the uniform was understood as a symbol of the irrelevance of authenticity in relation to the personal identity in the work experience.

> *"In my job, as an [emergency worker], you put that uniform on you're an [emergency worker], you're not a person. People don't see the person, they see an [emergency worker] don't they. So you are responsible for all their woes or whatever."* (Male 2, FG 5)

The distinction between personal and social identity here, is also illustrated by the fact that the participants referred mostly to interpersonal aspects of authenticity (authentic relationships and authentic behaviour), in terms of voicing opinions and acting on values, rather than intrapersonal aspects of authenticity. How they would have talked about intrapersonal authenticity at work was not possible to determine as they did not mention in their descriptions.

The potential negative effect of authenticity on well-being.

The uniform was seen by some not only as a protection of their personal identity but also concretely of their well-being.

"In my job, you put that uniform on you're an [emergency worker], you're not a person. . . . But I don't tell them what I really am, and I'm not going to. It's like a shield, isn't it? If you let down all your guards you're going to have a hard time . . . ." (Male 2, FG 5)

"I think putting like a shield up, a front, having a different, acting differently at work and being professional you have to do that and then like you say you can come away from it, but you need to put up a front, because that's how you kind of deal with a lot of the things that we deal with. And so I think you act professionally and then come away from it and then, then you can be a bit more yourself and relax." (Female 1, FG 5)

To summarise, from the discussion around authenticity with the call centre staff it emerged that authenticity was not something participants thought about much in relation to their work experience. The regulated work procedures and strong occupational identity (signified also by the uniform) are likely constraining to being authentic to the personal identity. Not only did the content of their responses lead to this conclusion, the way the call centre staff responded to the question also revealed that this is a concept that might be to a large extent irrelevant to their working life. Participants in all focus groups usually went off-topic when discussing the question. For example, they discussed in greater detail what it meant to be professional or discussed their identification with the occupation. The participants talked about authenticity in a general sense and had to be prompted for their own specific experience. The fact that I had to ask multiple questions about whether the participants felt authentic at work and whether authenticity was important for attaining well-being showed that authenticity might not be something that forms a

central part of their work experience. Call centre staff did not discuss authenticity as a factor that impacts positively on their workplace well-being without prompting. Some even highlighted that authenticity might be threatening to their well-being in some work situations.

Wellness team perspectives on authenticity in the workplace.

The wellness team discussed authenticity in different ways from the call centre staff. The wellness team understood authenticity as not having to adapt to a certain culture in a department and as being able to show strengths and weaknesses. They referred to being able to align accepted behaviours from the personal and social identity. Each wellness manager described expressions of authenticity in different domains of working life. The different perspectives will be outlined in the following paragraphs and relations are drawn to literature on authenticity and well-being.

The multifaceted experience of authenticity.

Wellness manager 1 understood authenticity in the sense of equality and diversity, being able to express one's identity as a minority group member and not having to converge with the majority.

> "*If you can't be authentic then you can't be yourself. And our [senior manager] has the portfolio for equality and diversity for the whole of the country and so consequently there is a lot around the equality of opportunity."* (Wellness manager 1)

Wellness manager 2, described authenticity in terms of being a woman in a department that is male dominated.

> "*But certainly over the last five years there's been a lot of development around the women's network and they very much talk about being free and able to be yourself, rather than trying to mould yourself into what. . . you know, a typical [emergency services worker] would be like type thing.*" (Wellness manager 2)

This notion of authenticity around converging with the majority or moulding oneself into behaviours expected or condoned by others converges with Harter's (2002) concept of false self-behaviour where a person acts in a way that is not true to themselves. People take on preferences and behaviours that (dominant) others support and show themselves.

Wellness manager 3, elaborates on authenticity as being oneself in terms of showing personal strengths and weaknesses in one's work. Working with one's strengths and weaknesses is seen by her as important for enabling a person to thrive at work.

> "*I think if you've got to try and hide who you are, or if somebody is trying to hide who they are, I just feel that it would have a negative impact. I don't think you would flourish in that environment. I think, to a large extent, we should value people for who and what they are and, as I say, let them play to their strengths. Be aware of their strengths, be aware of their weaknesses, and … do that combination of allowing them to perform to the best of their ability*." (Wellness manager 3)

This view of authenticity is illustrative of Kernis and Goldman's (2006) definition of authenticity, which draws on self-development and healthy functioning. Knowing and expressing one's strengths and weaknesses means that one can work with and on them. From this self-understanding a healthy sense of self-confidence is developed, which enables growth by working confidently on strengths and weaknesses.

Like the call centre staff, wellness manager 3 acknowledged that certain personality traits are not seen as very professional and should therefore not be shown at work.

> "*But I do think it's important to know yourself, I think that helps, and it helps to be able to be yourself in the workplace, within limits. Well, within limits, what I mean by that is there are some people that are quite gregarious, play the fool perhaps. Obviously in a work environment that's not always appropriate and so that's what I mean by "within limits"; you've got to realise you are at work and you have to work appropriately – language that you use, actions that you take – have to be appropriate to where you are.*" (Wellness manager 3)

Self-regulation in terms of adapting one's authenticity to the situation should be shown in order to be successful. The authenticity and authentic leadership literature acknowledges this notion in terms of people having to adapt their behaviour to the requirements of the situation. Adapting authentic behaviour is necessary to interact and behave successfully (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Goffee & Jones, 2005).

The positive effect of authenticity on well-being.

The wellness team did describe authenticity as important for experiencing well-being at work.

> *"But if you can't be authentic at work then it will definitely put you into an introspective type of environment where you don't feel as though you can be yourself. So yes, that is really, really important."* (Wellness manager 1)

"Yes I do. I think it does play a role. I think it puts an enormous strain on somebody if they can't be themselves, if they can't be natural." (Wellness manager 3)

Furthermore, authenticity was also described as important to create a positive culture by being able to challenge the leadership. Staff lower in the hierarchy should feel that they could be authentic in the sense of openly communicating their feedback or criticism to staff higher up the hierarchy.

"*But if people don't feel as though they can come in an authentic way then as an organisation we're never going to move our culture. Our culture will always be authoritative. It will be formal. It will be formal leadership all the time. And [our senior manager] wanted the informal leadership. Now he saw wellness management as a great route in order to be able to get people in the right place to be authentic. Because if you don't feel valued and empowered, if you don't feel as though you're in the right place physically and mentally, then how are you ever going to challenge the organisation?*" (Wellness manager 1)

Comparing perspectives *on authenticity in the workplace.*

To summarise the accounts of both groups, from the discussion of the call centre staff it emerged that authenticity does not seem to play a role in their general work experience. The participants tried to make sense of the concept in relation to their work but most pointed out that they were not authentic at work because of role separation, professional behaviour, or personal protection and because their job is heavily determined by procedure. The wellness team talked about authenticity in more detail and described it as relevant to well-being and organisational culture. Each wellness team member made sense of authenticity in a different way, however.

It would have been necessary here to interview a bigger sample of wellness managers in order to achieve saturation of findings. However, in the organisation only three wellness managers existed.

To conclude, the context in which authenticity was experienced by the call centre staff is different to the one in which the wellness staff work. While the wellness staff certainly recognise constraints of authenticity, they did not describe as a constrain as the call centre staff did. The call centre staff also highlight that for them, authenticity is not relevant for their well-being in their work contest or even sometimes negative whereas the wellness team talked about positive effects of authenticity on well-being. These insights suggest that authenticity can be a positive or negative resource for well-being or not relevant at all, depending on the context.

5.4.2.2 The role of the identity-related resource of social identification for experiencing workplace well-being.

There are differences between the call centre staff's and the wellness team's perspectives regarding the role of social identification in the workplace plays for well-being. In each of the sections, I firstly summarise the content of discussions of each focus group or interview in order to provide an overview of the issues that were discussed. I also describe the way the discussions took place as this can provide some insight into how participants relate to the identity-related resources. Then the themes that were identified in the analysis are discussed in more detail in relation to current literature. Participant verbatim is used to illustrate the findings. At the end of this section I compare the perspectives of both groups on the role of the identity-related resource of social identification for experiencing workplace well-being.

Call centre staff perspectives on the relevance of work group identification for experiencing workplace well-being.

All call centre staff agreed that identification with their team played a role in their well-being at work. A record of how the participants in each focus group responded to the question *'Identification with your team – Do you see this as important for your well-being at work?'* is given in Table 5.6. In the paragraphs that follow the table, the themes around work group identification that emerged in the discussions with the participants are explored in more detail in relation to the social identity literature. Illustrative statements from the focus group narratives are provided to illustrate the discussion.

Table 5.6.

Responses by the call centre staff on the relevance of work group identification (i.e. social identification with the team) for experiencing workplace well-being

Participant subsample	Summary of content of responses
Focus group 1	Makes life a lot easier, makes the workplace a better place, work as a team, bounce off each other for ideas and help, go to each other for help, do not feel so isolated, support each other if you had a bad call
Focus group 2	You feel that you can go to them, for personal reasons as well as support, you don't feel isolated, working all together as a team, passing information which you might not be aware of
Focus group 3	Would lead to stress if one did not get on with your work colleagues, it is quite often the people that keep you going, feeling of all being in it together that builds support, musketeer mentality, camaraderie
Focus group 4	Bonding, team spirit, each team has a different culture and works more or less work well together, each team has a different identity, leadership determines how well team works together, team with freedom works better together
Focus group 5	To have someone you can bounce off sometimes, you've got to speak to people about something you're not happy about, have someone you can air your views to, have colleagues you can have a bit of a laugh with sometimes, helping each other, different colleagues that offer different solutions and their different experience, support for each other, you do support each other a lot, some of the teams are badly affected by lack of resources – lack of staff, suffer particularly from sickness at work, encourages you to come to work really, nice to work with people that you get on with – it is a better working environment

In terms of why work group identification is relevant to workplace well-being, all call centre staff mentioned social support.

Informational support facilitates well-being.

Most call centre staff highlighted informational support as crucial for their well-being.

> "*It's good that there's a real nice culture of like if you're stuck with something there's always somebody who can assist you with it and there's no like great big issue. But they'll say someone will always stop and assist you, to help and it is that, for me, makes a nice working environment. And I think to fit into a team like that it does make it a nicer place to work."* (Male 1, FG1)
>
> "*Go to each other for help.*" (Female 3, FG 1)

Emotional support facilitates well-being.

Emotional support also emerged as an important aspect of social support, which contributes to workplace well-being.

> "*If you get on well with colleagues you feel that you can go to them, not just work-wise but personal reasons as well as support*." (Female 2, FG 2)
>
> "*Musketeer mentality, all for one, one for all. /Yes, they just don't give us swords. I think that is the kind of thing and a lot of us, whether we have worked together very long or not, I think that camaraderie is the word I was looking for*." (Male 4 & Female 1, FG 3)

To summarise, the team seemed to be important for the workplace well-being experience of call centre staff. It was important not just because of having pleasant

interactions and a better working environment but also for informational and emotional support.

In the social identity literature, informational and emotional support are seen as mediators of social identification and well-being (Haslam et al., 2004). So through its capacity to influence the secondary appraisal of a stressor, social identification has an influence on the level of well-being experienced. Team members are more inclined to cooperate and therefore help each other. Social support has not only been found to be a resource to cope with stress but also to lead directly to work engagement (Freeney & Fellenz, 2013). The shared identity also means that the individuals perceive a stressor as less challenging as they have the sense that they do not have to deal with it themselves but are ‘in it together’ (Haslam & Reicher, 2006). The shared sense of identity is also the basis for positive interactions between team members. Due to the shared identity, there is an alignment of perspectives and team members work with rather against or independently from each other (van Dick & Haslam, 2012). The shared perspective was shown by the fact that each team had a certain mood or narrative about its well-being and working environment (see Table 5.1).

Wellness team perspectives on the relevance of work group identification for experiencing workplace well-being.

The wellness team highlighted different issues from the call centre staff relating to why work group identification is important for workplace well-being. A record of the responses of the wellness team is given in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7.

Responses by the wellness team on the relevance of work group identification for experiencing workplace well-being

Participant	Content of responses
Wellness manager 1	Social capital, fit with others in team, need people with different experiences and different skills to be able to deliver the whole product, create that team environment where everyone feels they've got their role, feel a valued part of that team, leader's role is to create team were everyone feels valued
Wellness manager 2	Links in to purpose, has an impact on your identity, if good rapport you are probably going to be a lot happier in the work environment, feeling ostracised makes you unhappy, camaraderie, goal, that draws team together and gives a team identity, if you have to change locations the team make up and norms can differ heavily
Wellness manager 3	Huge impact on wellbeing, because most people like to feel part of a bigger unit

A sense of belonging and purpose aids well-being.

The wellness team referred to the importance of the team in the sense of a good working relationship but emphasised more than the call centre staff the role of providing a sense of belonging and providing purpose.

> "*I think for the majority of people that would have a huge impact on well-being because most people like to feel part of a bigger unit. There are some individuals, who I am aware of, work better on their own, but I think they're more rare. And certainly for me and my well-being, yes I like to feel part of a team; I like to be part of a bigger objective than just what my little aspect is."* (Wellness manager 3)

Comparing perspectives **on team identification in the workplace.**

The wellness team did not emphasise emotional and informational support as the primary importance of the team as the call centre staff did. For the wellness team rather rapport and a feeling of belonging aid well-being. These differences might stem from the differing working experiences of both groups. The call centre staff might get a sense of belonging more through identification with their occupation through the work they are doing (they are in direct contact with the raison d'être of the organisation) and they are in an environment where more support is needed because of organisational changes and workload. The wellness team probably derives its sense of belonging more from the aims of the team. There might be less need for support from the team members in terms of informational support as each team member has his or her own area of expertise. Furthermore, as the call centre staff have the same work tasks and are therefore likely to have the same work experiences, they know what their colleagues are going through. The wellness team members' tasks differ for each person. This could be another reason why emotional and informational support is a valued resource available to the call centre staff but not the wellness team.

Call centre staff perspectives on the relevance of organisational identification for experiencing workplace well-being.

The discussion with the call centre staff around their identification with the organisation was a difficult one. In focus groups 1 and 2, the initial answer to the question 'Does identification with the organisation play a role in well-being at work?' was 'It should do.' In focus group 5 there was a long silence after the question was posed. Also from the initial responses from the other focus groups, it seemed to be a

topic participants did not like talking about. The content of discussions are summarised in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8.

Summary of narrative of the call centre staff on the relevance of organisational identification for experiencing workplace well-being

Participant subsample	Summary of content of responses
FG 1	Identification should contribute to well-being, don't feel integrated in the organisation, divide between staff and managers, managers care about operational staff but not call staff, detachment from management, managers change work of call centre staff but don't know what their work is really like
FG 2	Identification should contribute to well-being, managers don't understand our work, feel some connection but dissatisfaction with management (they change work but don't know what work is like)
FG 3	It plays a negative role, would like to be proud of who they work for but proud of the job they do, job is just a job for them, they don't trust anyone in the organisation, not a good environment to work in at the moment, job security, changes, focus on hitting targets, negative image of the organisation in the public
FG 4	It plays a negative role, enjoying the job but not being treated well by the organisation, cultural shift in the organisation, it is less personal now
FG 5	Being important part of organisation, not always treated well by organisation, negative perception of occupation in the public

The discussion revealed that the call centre staff had a negative identification with the organisation. The reasons given for this were detached management, job insecurity, not feeling valued, and a focus on performance. Illustrative quotes for each reason are displayed in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9.

Reasons for negative organisational identification among call centre staff

Reason	Participant verbatim transcript
Detached management	*"It should do but. . . I think sometimes the hierarchy are miles and miles away from us. Knowing what we do, I don't think they do really."* (Female 1, FG 2)
Job insecurity	*"And a lot of redundancies, regardless of the relationship you have with the organisation or your length of service (…) So there's been, it's been a bit clinical over recent years I think and personally I enjoy doing what I do but I don't see myself as part of a big organisation. I see myself as part of this organisation here, which is my workaday existence because this is what I enjoy on a daily basis. I don't feel that the organisation is very much bigger than what I do on a day-to-day basis."* (Male 2, FG 4)
Not feeling valued	*"I think there's less of an identity with the organisation and that's been a cultural shift over maybe the last five or eight years with the organisation has become I think less personal. And I think those that come into the organisation later on have maybe not enjoyed the same relationship with the organisation as those who've been there for 14 or so years, you know, because that long ago it was, you know you weren't just a number. You weren't just an employee. You were more valued than perhaps you feel you are now."* (Female 2, FG 2)
Sole focus on performance	*"I think probably just as times have changed within the whole, not just within, not the organisation but just how times have changed financially. I just think there's so much focus on finance now and that's perhaps taken away some of the focus on individuals in the staff because everything is not about individual needs, it's about the bank balance at the end of the day, you know."* (Female 1, FG 4)

No organisational identification but a strong occupational identification. Some call centre staff did not identify with the organisation at all. Identification with their occupation, however, was evident.

> "*I don't say, "I work for [organisation X]", you know. I'm just a, you know, I work for [the occupation X], you know. And if they then ask, I say, "Well, I work in the call centre and I deal with emergency calls" and broaden it if there is an enquiry but generally I'm just a low-level employee for the [occupation X]."* (Male 2, FG 4)

> *"I think it is more a case that I would like to be proud of who I work for but I am probably more proud of, because I do feel, not always, but I do feel that I help people through the role that we do and I get more pride from doing that. Even if somebody was to think in a derogatory manner about the [organisation] in general I would still feel proud of what I did on a day-to-day basis regardless really of how the organisation is, what the organisation is particularly doing at that time."* (Female 1, FG 3)

All call centre staff said that they enjoyed their work and stated that this was important to them. All the groups talked directly or indirectly about the on-going organisational change and how that led to their negative identification or disengagement with the organisation. The difference between the groups was how they described the way the change processes were impacting on them. For some groups it was the management who did not understand the work (focus group 1, focus group 2, and focus group 5) and changed their work regardless of the effects due to the ongoing changes. For one group (focus group 4) it was the cultural shift in the organisation. One group (focus group 3) talked about multiple reasons such as the management, the cultural shift, and a negative image among the public.

However, the participants seemed to have a strong dedication to and identification with their occupation and saw their work as meaningful.

Dynamics of organisational identification.

Focus group 5 conceptualised identification with the organisation in a different way from the other focus groups. They asserted that identification is only possible if the organisation treated them well. However, there seemed to be dissonance in the relationship with the organisation. Thus they would say they identified with the organisation because they did an important job but at the same time they did not feel positive about the organisation. As the description by focus group 5 shows a unique perspective, their conversation is described in more detail. Three members of the group (Female 1, Male 2, Male 3) saw identification as following the organisation's guidelines, knowing what was going on in the organisation, and doing a good job.

> "*Well we've got no option because we work for them so we have to identify with them. We have to follow the rules, otherwise we will be in trouble, so we follow the rules, and that's it.*" (Male 1, FG 5)
>
> "*You have to have an understanding of what the organisation is about to be able to do your job or to do your specific job role. But you also have to have an understanding of what goes off all around you as well. So you do have to identify. It would be pretty pointless coming in on a daily basis and you haven't a clue what you're doing.*" (Male 2, FG 5)

Another statement by Male 2, FG 5, however, called into question whether the organisation as such was actually salient to them or whether their work was the only domain that was salient and could therefore be identified with.

> " *I see myself as part of this organisation here which is my work day existence because this is what I enjoy on a daily basis. I don't feel that the organisation is very much bigger than what I do on a day-to-day basis."* (Male 2, FG 5)

The organisation was talked about but not in terms of identifying with it. Even when prompted by being asked whether the organisation was part of their own identity, Female 1 turned the question around to their understanding of being part of the organisation: "*I would say we are an important part of the organisation, yes.*" (Female 1, FG 5)

Interestingly, Male 1, FG 5 did not contribute to this conversation but referred to it later when talking about authenticity. He had been an operational emergency service worker for most of his working life (31 years) and felt a strong occupational identification. He felt that call centre workers were not treated nicely but tried to keep up his occupational dedication at the same time. This goes along with the theoretical notion that identities can be multiple but also revisable (Kenny, Whittle, & Willmott, 2011).

> ". . . *you know I do my job at work, I do it as best I can and I am as loyal as I can be. And I do feel still the same vocational strength that I did when I joined the emergency services many years ago. However there have been a lot of changes in recent years. Certainly in the volume of work, the sort of things I deal with. And I'm able to draw on the strengths that I did in the past, when I deal with the public and any advice I give. But I do feel differently, but I still try to deal with things as best I can*." (Male 1, FG 5)

Crafting one's work identity.

It was interesting that people did not want to disclose to the public or to neighbours and acquaintances that they worked for the emergency services at all (focus group 5; because of reactions of the public); or if they did disclose this, they would not say that they worked for this organisation. This could be interpreted as follows: even though the job and occupation seemed to be very important and there was also strong identification with the team, the participants did not let the organisation into their identity, as they and the public had a negative perception of the organisation. One measure of organisational identification is whether or not people are proud of the organisation they work for. Because the call centre workers did not disclose what organisation they work for, they are likely not to be proud of the organisation. All participants had a 'focused' identity, they only identified with certain aspect of the organisation (Kenny, Whittle, & Willmott, 2011), i.e. their daily work. They cognitively changed their work identity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) in relation to the organisation so that it fitted a positive image of them. In addition, the call centre workers identified strongly with the occupation. This is due to the kind of occupation they are in. This strong occupational identity is typical for emergency service workers (Brunsden et al., 2012). This population is seen to have a *helper personality* and to derive a lot of meaning and purpose from their work. Furthermore, in the emergency services sector, the team is considered as a second family that provides support (Brunsden et al., 2012), as the workers spend a lot of time away from home and experience severe or traumatic incidents.

The interplay of social identification and authenticity in relation to maintaining well-being.

There is an interesting contrast between the fact that emergency service workers supposedly derive meaning and purpose from their work and that these aspects are not mentioned in relation to well-being. Eudaimonic well-being, which is signified amongst other by experiencing meaning and purpose, was only referred to once in the focus groups. But it could be that the call centre staff did not see the meaning and purpose they derive from work as connected to their workplace well-being. Furthermore, authenticity is also an element of the experience of eudaimonic well-being (in terms of being aware of purpose, values, having close relationships, for example). However, authenticity is not demonstrated by the call centre staff. Meaning and purpose are elements stemming from personal authenticity. But the call centre staff mainly talked about interpersonal authenticity. The question is here, what is the experience of meaning at work for the call centre staff? The meaning of work could come from their social identity as an emergency service worker and they described being authentic to this social identity. They show their occupational authenticity at work, and this is where they might derive meaning and purpose from it:

> *"I suppose yes when you think about it that is the bit of the job that I do enjoy, you know me always moaning about it. But that is the part, if I think on the phone that I have helped somebody or I have done what they wanted me to do and solved the problem for them that is the part of the job that I like. Everything else is just. . ."* (Male 3, FG 3).
>
> *"I worked for a bank for 12 years and I never really had that. It was all about selling and I think that is what I love about this job more than anything. It is the*

fact that it has not got sales targets, it is not about anything like that and you don't always get it. You can go some days where you feel like everything you do and everything you say is wrong but there are some times when you actually come away thinking, even if you haven't been able to make their life better you have been there for them and helped them at that particular moment in time." (Female 1, FG 3).

So experiencing meaning and purpose and authenticity are restricted to their occupational identity. One reason for this might be, as outlined, the strong occupational identity but also that fact that staff seemed to share identity with their team but not with their managers. They related strongly to the team, seeing it as an important part of their working life, while they saw the management as detached and not caring. An intergroup relationship is present between these two organisational groups. The dynamic of this relationship determines that the call centre staff do not feel they belong to the same social identity as the managers; they belong to different groups. The wellness team stated, however, that authentic communication is needed across the whole organisation. However, the call centre staff might not want to express themselves in the organisation as they feel that they do not share the same social identity with other groups in the organisation or they do not belong and are not safe in the organisation.

Perspectives of the wellness team on the relevance of organisational identification for experiencing workplace well-being.

The content of the wellness team's narratives on the relevance of organisational identification are summarised in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10.

Responses of the wellness team on the relevance of organisational identification for experiencing workplace well-being

Participant	Content of responses
Wellness manager 1	Means working as one team, the organisation is one team, highly important to feel as though there is one team that they're working towards, everyone should have ownership of what the main strategic lines are, make everyone feel that they are part of it
Wellness manager 2	Organisation was always sort of the most smart, well equipped, well known at a national level, rated quite highly, got a reputation for being one of the best in the country, when you do actually get in, you do feel a sense of achievement, you're there to help people, help people in emergencies, relating really to the brand over the years
Wellness manager 3	Linked with wellbeing is having a pride in what you do, having a pride in the organisation, prior to [long-term contract] I was here to do a job, didn't consider myself, really, as part of the organisation

The whole wellness team saw organisational identification as important for well-being as it provided *meaning and purpose* and because the *organisation had a good reputation*.

> *Obviously you're there to help people, help people in emergencies, so there's a big sort of draw there, you know, in terms of public service and it's not about making money or profit, it's actually knowing that if you didn't come to work today then . . . And certainly I know in the early days when I joined, they'd be saying, 'Oh you're from [organisation x]' . . . and so over the decades [organisation x] had really sort of got a reputation for being one of the best in the country.*" (Wellness manager 2)

For themselves, they did not see that organisational identification can play a negative role, even in relation to the situation the organisation was in or in relation to

the fact that some members of the public did not perceive the organisation favourably, as described by call centre staff.

***Comparing perspectives* on organisational identification in the workplace.**

The wellness team talked about positive organisational identification whereas the call centre staff outlined their negative organisational identification. The two organisational groups seem to have a different image of the organisation due to their differing roles within the organisation. The call centre staff are likely to be more in contact with the public and therefore more likely to be in touch with of the public perception of the organisation and how the public reacts to the on-going changes in the organisation, which might be reflected in its services. The wellness team interacts mainly with other emergency service organisations and governmental bodies where the organisation has a very good reputation (see above comment by wellness manager 2). The audiences of the two organisational groups are different and therefore a different image of the organisation might result.

In the academic literature, different levels of identification are acknowledged alongside the different resources identification provides for the individual's well-being. That the call centre staff identified negatively or not at all with the organisation could also be a result of their professional identity being threatened by the changes taking place in the organisation (Kenny et al., 2011). The call centre staff did identify negatively with the organisation primarily because the organisation cared about hitting targets, while the employees cared more about their service to the public, and because the on-going changes in equipment, procedures, and policies disrupted their work. But there were also reasons for their lack of identification with the

organisation. The organisation did not lead to self-enhancement or positive distinctiveness but rather a negative image of the individual employee (Abrams & Hogg, 2001) because of its current possibly negative image in the general population. They could not claim membership of a ‘high-status’ organisation because of the negative perception of the organisation among themselves and the public. Being a member of a low status organisation is likely to lead to low well-being (see Peters, Tevichapong, Haslam, & Postmes, 2010; van Dick & Wagner, 2002; Veenstra, Haslam, & Reynolds, 2004) and low job satisfaction (Riketta & van Dick, 2005). Identification with the organisation did not satisfy other important human needs that are usually satisfied by group membership, such as the need for safety, belonging, and meaning (Pratt, 2001), as the call centre staff were experiencing job insecurity. The failure to satisfy the need for safety, belonging, and meaning is also likely to contribute to low well-being (van Dick & Haslam, 2012).

Particularly stressful call centre work can have a more negative impact on staff if their identification with the organisation is low. Knight and Haslam (2010) found that low organisational identification led employees to find their work environment stressful if organisational identification was associated with a lack of control over their work space. This would also apply in the present study, where call centre staff were dissatisfied with their work environment and felt that the management was not listening to their requests to improve the work space (noise, hygiene, functioning furniture, equipment, and air conditioning). Furthermore, the call centre staff in the present study felt that the organisation treated them ‘badly’, which might also lead to low well-being. The mere fact that the call centre workers did not share their identity with their line managers and felt that they were not supported by them means that their complaints are more pronounced (see Macfarlane, Hunt, &

Silman, 2000). Wegge, Schuh, and van Dick (2012) found that call centre workers with high organisational identification experienced lower levels of stress when encountering abusive customers than call centre workers who had lower organisational identification. So, one cannot say that high or low social identification with the work group or organisation is negative for well-being. It is the work context of the work group and the organisation that determine whether a high identification is beneficial for the well-being of the worker or not. But workers can also actively shape their work experience (job crafting; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) in order to maintain their well-being. In this study, as a result of the organisational circumstances, the participants retreated to seeing the job as just a job or trying to maintain an occupational identity beyond the organisation – 'I work for the emergency services'.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study can be related to the data collection method that was employed. The responses of the focus group participants and the conclusions drawn from the results might have been influenced by the group make-up. It has been found that groups play a role in the severity of stress or health-related problems. For example, the sick building syndrome highlights that shared group membership has a significant influence on health complaints rather than the objective physical work environment. Pronounced complaints can be found between workers who could validate their issues through interaction with team members (Haslam, 2004). In the context of this study, the different understanding of well-being by some call centre teams could have been due initially to a different organisational culture at each

location in terms of staff voicing complaints. Indeed wellness manager 1 reported[45] that staff in location 1 (where focus groups 1, 2, and 3 were held) are characterised by expressing many complaints and having a low sickness absence rate. He further outlined that staff in location 2 (where focus groups 4 and 5 were held) are characterised by having few complaints but a high sickness absence rate. Internalising complaints instead of voicing them can lead to sickness (Hyde, Jappinen, Theorell, & Oxenstierna, 2006).

Second, not only the location at which each team was based but also the make-up of each individual group might have influenced their responses. When people are categorised as group members, they see the world in terms of the implications for their in-group, not for them personally. One can therefore argue that in focus groups 1–3 the intragroup identity was salient as only members of the same team were present. In the other focus groups the intergroup[46] (FG 4) and interpersonal[47] (FG 5) identities were salient as members of different teams were present. Comparisons between opinions were based on experiences in different groups and between different people rather than on the shared group experiences. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and self-categorization theory (Turner et al., 1987) suggest that people sometimes perceive themselves as individuals and therefore draw on their personal values and experiences, while at other times they regard themselves as part of a group and act and report according to the group values and experiences. The assertion of self-categorization theory is that the shared social identity is a basis for social influence that leads to a shared

[45] He reported this during a conversation when I discussed the results of the study with the wellness team.
[46] The identity of the focus group participants were based on the team they belonged to. They distinguished themselves from other focus group participants based on this group membership.
[47] For the focus group participants the team they belong to was not salient, however the their personal identities was salient as each participant belonged to a different team. No participant shared group membership with another.

understanding of the world. The different group dynamics of the focus group make-up might have influenced the response patterns. Future research using focus groups might find it fruitful to focus not just on conversational dynamics within the group but also on the group make-up and resulting dynamic in terms of salient identities of interpersonal, intragroup, and intergroup relationships.

Another limitation of this study is that the distinction between intrapersonal and interpersonal authenticity highlighted in Study 2 was not investigated in this study. However, this study took an inductive approach and aimed to see what authenticity issues participants were raising without being prompted for particular conceptualisations of authenticity.

5.6. Summary and conclusion

The call centre staff and the wellness team named an array of well-being components relating to multiple well-being concepts like those shown in Study 1. The components most referred to differed between the two groups however. The call centre staff described their workplace well-being mainly in terms of hedonic well-being and interlinked low well-being with stress. The wellness managers referred to aspects of hedonic well-being and eudaimonic well-being. Both groups also included physical well-being in their descriptions. The work setting of the call centre staff that could be described as stressful (low autonomy, relatively low task variety, large workload, possible job loss) is likely to have influenced their understanding of well-being in terms of absence of stress. The work setting of the wellness managers and their background in well-being work and therefore knowledge of well-being concepts enables eudaimonic well-being experiences (through having autonomy for example) is likely to have influenced them to conceptualise well-being in terms of hedonic and

eudaimonic well-being. Physical components of well-being (e.g. feeling fit) were mentioned by both groups. The organisation of the participants belongs to the emergency services where physical fitness is required for most staff in order to be able to perform their job effectively.

These results suggest that the understanding of well-being is likely to be influenced by the work context in terms of job role and work characteristics. A general conceptualisation of well-being is therefore not useful due to its contextual dependency. This notion will be explored further in Chapter 6 by adding the comparison with descriptions of managers and consultants who participated in Study 1.

Like in Study 1, the data leads also to the interpretation that low well-being is the same as stress if well-being was only referred to in its hedonic conceptualisation (as done by the call centre staff). If well-being is referred to also in its eudaimonic conceptualisation (as done by the wellness managers) then stress is not similar to well-being. Therefore, one cannot give a general answer to whether stress and well-being are different from another as it depends on how well-being is understood.

The call centre staff saw their authenticity constrained due to the nature of their work. They also stated that whether one's personal or social identity is salient determines which aspects of one's identity one is authentic to. They saw themselves as acting authentically towards their social identity as emergency service workers but not towards their personal identity. They also outlined that being authentic towards one's personal identity at work, particularly when interacting with abusive clients, can be threatening to well-being.

The results of this study also highlight that it is important to explore the identity-related resources in a linked fashion as they interact with one another. The

link between the two identity-related resources is particularly important for how authenticity relates to well-being as social identification determines what aspect of the identity one is authentic to.

In addition, there were differences in the understanding of the wellness managers of how authenticity is enacted at work. Two wellness managers described their authenticity experience at work in terms of constraints their workplace is putting on the enactment of their personal authenticity (i.e. being a woman in a male dominated department). Another wellness manager's description referred to being authentic in terms of being able to show and work on one's strengths and weaknesses. Overall, being able to act authentically was seen as beneficial to well-being by all wellness managers. Whether being authentic might mean different things to different people in organisations and whether these different understandings impact the relationship between authenticity and well-being would need to be explored further in future research with a variety of respondents.

Identification with the team was seen by both groups as beneficial and important for well-being at work. Informational and emotional support were highlighted by the call centre staff as contributing to their well-being. Sense of belonging was highlighted by the managers in relation to their well-being. Organisational identification was seen by the call centre staff, within their work context, as negative for their well-being as the organisation does not have a good public image and as they themselves do not feel treated well by the organisation. The wellness managers however, within their work context, saw organisational identification as positive for their well-being. The organisation, according to them, has a good image amongst other organisations in the same sector and they felt that by belonging to the organisation they were part of a greater purpose.

These results outline that social identification, just like the other identity-related resource of authenticity, can have a varying impact on well-being depending on the context. As the call centre staff do not see their organisation in a positive light, their identification with the organisation would have a negative influence on their well-being (social identification as a negative resource). As the wellness managers see the organisation in a positive light, their identification with the organisation would have a positive influence on their well-being (social identification as a positive resource).

To conclude, what people who work describe as relevant components of workplace well-being and whether identity-related resources are relevant positive or negative resources for workplace well-being depend on who (job role), in which context (in terms of work characteristics) is asked about their workplace well-being experience.

In order to further explore influences of work context on functional relationships between antecedents and workplace well-being, another study was conducted as part of the PhD research programme. The aim of that study was to test empirically with regression analysis of questionnaire data whether the identity-related resources of authenticity and social identification are linked to well-being in an environment where both resources are enabled and developed. As energy aspects of well-being have a dynamic or fluctuating quality (e.g. Ceja & Navarro, 2012), utilising multiple measurement methods and perspectives of people in different work settings seemed beneficial to explore the functional relationships between well-being and identity-related resources. I therefore aimed to capture the development of well-being by looking at whether well-being changes over 12 weeks and whether the development of identity-related resources over time would influence levels of well-

being. A quantitative questionnaire was distributed five times across this time frame to students of an undergraduate business management module. However, as the sample size dropped with each additional measurement point (the students' attendance of the modules varied), the sample size of the study was too low to make any reliable statements about the relationship between identity-related resources and a multi-component well-being concept. Additional limitations of the study were that the time between each measurement point (two weeks between each) was probably too short in order for authenticity and social identification levels to change significantly. This meant that the potentially varying influence on well-being (depending on the strengths of authenticity and social identification) could not be tracked. Also well-being levels did not change significantly which indicates that the measurement tools might not be appropriate to capture the dynamic aspects of well-being. The measurement scales used were furthermore shortened in lengths by including only one item per sub-dimension of authenticity, social identification, and well-being. In addition, the phrasing of the items of the authenticity scale was altered from the original scale. These changes in the measurement tools were done in order to avoid a lengthy questionnaire with hard to understand items. It was aimed to avoid questionnaire fatigue. However, this also meant that these scales were not validated. Results gained based on these measurement scales would therefore have limited reliability.

All these limitations resulted in a diminished confidence in the findings of the study. However, the limitations highlight that future longitudinal research has challenges firstly, in relation to achieving a large enough sample size and secondly, in determining an intervention that impacts identity-related resources sufficiently to measure different levels of these variables. Different measurement methodologies

and time frames should also be explored in order to be able to capture the dynamic nature of well-being.

The omitted study measured a broad spectrum of well-being aspects based on the findings of Study 1 (hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow) in order to explore whether there is a differentiated influence of the resources depending on what aspect of well-being is measured. The study would therefore have contributed to the second research aim of this thesis, which is to explore the importance of identity-related resources for obtaining individual workplace well-being (see Figure 3.1). My intention was to compare the study which took place in a setting where both identity-related resources were enabled and supported with Study 2 which took place in a setting were both identity-related resources were not necessarily enabled and supported. For example, the work procedures of the call centre staff are heavily regulated and they have a negative identification with the organisation.

Drawing together the results from these different studies, I could have shed more light on an array of work context issues that influence whether identity-related resources are positive, negative, or irrelevant for different aspects of well-being. A triangulation of results would further have been possible due to different quantitative and qualitative research methods and different participant perspectives.

The omitted study, including its methodology, results, and discussion of findings, can be found in Appendix C. The studies findings suggest that identity-related resources have differing relationships with several components of workplace well-being. The results also highlight that in a context where authenticity is enabled and advantageous for the task outcome it is a positive resource. However, in a context where authenticity is not enabled or not required to fulfil a work task it is an

irrelevant resource for well-being. As noted above, these results cannot be seen as reliable due to the limitations of the study. However, they complement the findings of Study 2 in terms of suggesting that the work context does influence how, for example, authenticity is linked to workplace well-being.

Chapter 6: Summary of the Research Programme Findings

The PhD research programme explored components of workplace well-being and the functional relationship between identity-related resources and well-being. The views of consultants, managers, and staff on what well-being is and whether it can be facilitated by authenticity and social identification were retrieved through questionnaires, interviews, and focus groups in two studies. Thematic qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2000, 2010) was used to analyse the data. In this chapter, the results of the two studies are drawn together for each research aim. In the next chapter they are discussed in relation to current research literature. Implications and questions for future research and practice created by the research programme are also outlined in the chapter that follows the present one.

Study 1 explored components of workplace well-being. Managers and consultants were asked without priming them for particular well-being concepts about the indicators of their own and others' high and low well-being. These lay descriptions of well-being were explored in order to shed light on (1) how lay descriptions of well-being are aligned with theoretical well-being concepts; (2) whether high and low well-being are described by opposites of the same indicators; and (3) whether similar indicators are used to assess one's own well-being and that of others.

In order to retrieve the descriptions of well-being, a questionnaire with open questions was distributed to managers and consultants (N = 44) from multiple organisations. Inductive thematic qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2010, 2003) was conducted with the gained data.

This study suggests that lay descriptions of high well-being include indicators that map onto existing well-being concepts of hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow. Indicators of high and low well-being were similar in terms of referring mostly to energy aspects (e.g. vigour) of well-being. However, the second most used indicators to describe high well-being referred to emotional aspects (e.g. contentment) and for low well-being to cognitive aspects (e.g. lack of concentration). In terms of indicators used to assess own and others' well-being, differences were found: Own well-being was mainly judged through aspects of energy whilst others' well-being was mainly judged by how well they engage socially.

Study 2 continued the exploration of components of workplace well-being and additionally explored the relationship between identity-related resources and workplace well-being with two organisational groups of an emergency service organisation: call centre staff (n = 23) and well-being managers (n = 3). Study 2 built on Study 1 by considering accounts of people who differ in their job roles and the work characteristics they face. The first group of people was comprised of call centre staff whose work is characterised by low autonomy, relatively low task variety, a large workload, and who are facing possible job loss. The second group consisted of well-being managers whose work is characterised by relatively high autonomy, task variety, and who were not facing job losses. Particularly the call centre staff participants differed to the ones in Study 1, where managers and consultants experienced relatively high well-being. The well-being of the call centre staff was relatively low.

In this study, narratives from the participants were retrieved through interviews and focus groups. Deductive thematic qualitative content analysis was conducted with the gained data.

The results show that the two subsamples have varying perspectives on workplace well-being in terms of relevant components and antecedents. Differences in the descriptions of indicators of well-being are also shown in comparison to Study 1. In the next section, the results from the two research studies are integrated and described in relation to the aims of the research programme.

There are different conceptualisations of well-being that highlight different components of the concept. An abundance of well-being definitions exists (see Section 2.1.3). Therefore, the first aim of this research programme was to describe relevant components of workplace well-being based on the experience of people who work. In both studies people were asked for indicators of their workplace well-being experience at work. The following research objectives were explored in the studies:

- Research objective 1: How is workplace well-being described by people who work?
- Research objective 2: Are there differences in describing one's own and others' workplace well-being?

When asked to describe indicators of the workplace well-being, participants in Studies 1 and 2 gave multifaceted accounts of components of the experience. In Study 1, all five theoretical well-being concepts (hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow) that were used to compare lay descriptions with were referred to. Eudaimonic well-being, vigour, and work engagement aspects were referred to most often. Also indicators linked to well-

being, such as health, were named and the social aspect of well-being was highlighted. In Study 2, the wellness team referred mostly to aspects of eudaimonic and hedonic well-being. Call centre staff referred mostly to hedonic well-being and vigour. Both groups also mentioned physical well-being/health. A link between well-being and stress was drawn by some participants in Study 1 when describing low well-being and in Study 2 by call centre staff when describing their well-being. Study 1 also gave insight into differences in the use of indicators of well-being by exploring descriptions of own and others' well-being. The social aspect of well-being was particularly highlighted here as others' well-being was described mainly with components stemming from the social domain.

In relation to antecedents of well-being, some current well-being models (e.g. JD-R model; Xanthopolou et al., 2007) aim to extend well-being antecedents from job demands and resources by adding personal resources. Theoretical accounts and some empirical evidence indicate the importance of two concepts that can be conceptualised as identity-related resources of individuals for attaining well-being: Authenticity is seen as important for eudaimonic well-being (Ilies et al., 2005) and has been found to correlate with hedonic well-being and vitality (Kernis & Goldman, 2005). Social identification is seen as important for facilitating social support to cope with stressors in order to maintain well-being and for contributing directly to well-being through fulfilling needs for belonging and social relationships (van Dick & Haslam, 2012).

Therefore, the second research aim of this research programme was to explore the importance of identity-related resources for achieving individual workplace well-being. This research aim was obtained by exploring the following three research objectives:

- Research objective 3: Is authenticity an antecedent of individual workplace well-being?
- Research objective 4: Is work group identification an antecedent of individual workplace well-being?
- Research objective 5: Is organisational identification an antecedent of individual workplace well-being?

Study 2 found that authenticity, work group identification, and organisational identification were described to have an impact on individual workplace well-being. However, in the descriptions of the participants of their work experience authenticity does not always seem to be advantageous when enacted in the workplace. In certain work situations, i.e. contact with clients, being authentic towards their personal identity was seen by the staff as potentially threatening to their well-being. Furthermore, narrative accounts of call centre staff and wellness managers suggested that different social identities could influence workplace well-being in different ways. Identification with the team (i.e. work group identification) had a major influence on well-being in terms of social support but also fulfilled the need to belong. Organisational identification played a role in well-being, mostly in terms of purpose and belonging for the wellness management team. For the call centre staff, organisational identification was seen as influencing their well-being negatively if they would identify with the organisation highly. The findings suggest that, only if the organisation is seen as ‘positive’ then people identify with it and see it as impacting positively on their well-being.

Chapter 7: Discussion

In this chapter, the results of the two presented studies are drawn together for each research aim and are discussed in relation to current research literature. Implications and questions for future research and practice are outlined at the end of the section.

7.1 Discussion of Findings for Research Aim 1 – Describing Relevant Components of Individual Workplace Well-Being

In the following sections, the results of both studies will be discussed in more detail based on their key findings – that is, in terms of the heterogeneity, the context dependency, and the social aspect of the well-being concept.

7.1.1 The heterogeneity of the understanding and assessments of well-being.

In Studies 1 and 2, participants named an array of well-being components relating to multiple well-being concepts. In both studies, an individual would usually refer to multiple well-being components when describing their well-being experience and different people mentioned different components. A diverse and rich template was needed in both studies to code participants' data adequately. This suggests that there is a potential heterogeneity in participants' experiences and that the experience of workplace well-being is multifaceted. The multifaceted nature of well-being is already recognized and mirrored in some workplace well-being definitions that adhere to Page and Vella-Brodrick's (2008), Ryan and Deci's (2001), and Huppert's (2009) argument that hedonic and eudaimonic well-being should be combined in a well-being definition in order to capture the complete experience of well-being (see Section 2.1.3). However, Study 1 and 2 additionally highlighted that a multi-

component measure of well-being should go beyond including hedonic and eudaimonic aspects by including an energy component related to the experiences of work engagement, vigour, and flow. Fisher (2010) states that work engagement, vigour, and flow are concepts related to well-being that are part of the well-being 'family'. One could argue that the constructs described capture different aspects of the well-being experience as they focus on either cognition or affect and have a broad or distinct target, such as work in general or a particular work event. There are many aspects that are part of or related to well-being: When individuals are asked to evaluate their well-being, they might come to different evaluations depending on which life facet they rate (see Diener, 1999) and whether they base their evaluation on hedonic, eudaimonic, or energy aspects. Nevertheless, all evaluations relate to either positive experience or positive functioning, i.e. feeling and being well.

The multi-faceted nature of the well-being construct and the heterogeneity of understanding and assessments of well-being have a number of important implications for researchers. First, in order to accurately interpret the empirical findings, researchers need to draw attention to which aspects of well-being are assessed in studies. Paying attention to this would also make it easier to create a synthesis of the literature and to conduct meta-analyses. In addition, in order to capture the complete well-being experience at work, a multi-component approach to the measurement of well-being should be taken (see also Deci & Ryan, 2001). Moreover, assessing well-being with several distinct components as compared to using a broad scale would help provide more clarity in linking well-being with outcomes such as work performance (see also Daniels & Harris, 2000).

Some scholars argue that it might be more useful seeing well-being as an umbrella term (Xanthopolou et al., 2012) or as an area of study (Daniels, 2011)

rather than a distinct concept. I would argue that it is useful to conceptualise the experience of well-being as a multi-faceted phenomenon that can be conceptualised through including several theoretical concepts. Therefore, the term well-being can be used as an umbrella term as it refers to several theoretical concepts but also as an area of study if all aspect involved in the experience of well-being (functional relationships in addition to experiential components) are of study interest. But even more importantly, well-being should be viewed as an experience that is understood and therefore conceptualised differently depending on the context in which it is experienced and described. This key finding will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

7.1.2 The context embeddedness of the well-being concept.

In this research programme several perspectives were compared that highlight the importance of recognizing the influence of context. The findings of Study 1 and 2 suggest that well-being is differently understood if one refers to own or others' well-being (influence of understanding well-being in a personal versus a social dimension; see Section 4.4.3), whether manager's or employee's well-being is explored (influence of job role and work characteristics; see Section 5.4.1), or whether perspectives on well-being of well-being experts/scholars versus people in the workplace with no academic well-being expertise are explored (influence of theoretical 'schools' of well-being; see Section 5.4.1).

The stated heterogeneity of the reports between Study 1 and 2 and between the subsamples in Study 2 highlight that it depends on the work context in which well-being is described, what components of the concept are mentioned, i.e. how well-being is understood. As different participants in Study 1 described different

aspects of the components it could be assumed that these results call for recognition of the subjectivity of each individual in terms of what they see as important to well-being influence personal perceptions. Indeed, Seligman (2002) argues that there are three orientations to well-being that determine how well-being and its achievment are understood – pleasure (the pleasant life), engagement (the good life), and meaning (the meaningful life; see also Vella-Brodrick et al., 2009).

However, the comparisons of the data collected in a specific organisational context (Study 2) in contrast to the data collected in a general context (Study 1) also raises the importance of recognising occupational context, job context, and job role. It is likely that the context influences what is seen as components of well-being. In terms of occupational context, the physical aspect of well-being was mentioned alongside components of well-being concepts from the field of psychology by the participants in Study 2. In Study 1, the social aspect was highlighted. In relation to the findings of Study 2, physical well-being is a requirement for operational staff in order for them to be able to perform their job well. Therefore, in an organisation where the physical fitness of many employees is necessary to conduct their job, this aspect might be highlighted in conceptualisations of workplace well-being. One could argue that in Study 1, social rather than physical aspects were highlighted as the participants included managers that are responsible for teams and personnel and leadership consultants whose work is likely to evolve around how to make a team work better together and how to make collaborations between leaders and their subordinates better.

This embeddedness of well-being in the occupational context has been addressed in the well-being literature in terms of antecedents of well-being but not in terms of components of well-being. In terms of stress, it is recognised that certain

occupations have specific stressors (see Langan-Fox & Cooper, 2011). In terms of well-being, Juniper and colleagues (2011) surveyed several public service sector organisations on what are seen as central aspects to their workplace well-being. They surveyed employees about what impacts on their well-being the most. Each organisation (a library, a hospital, and a police service) highlighted different work characteristics.

Looking at the subgroups in Study 2, the call centre staff described their workplace well-being mainly in terms of hedonic well-being and interlinked low well-being with stress. The wellness managers referred to aspects of hedonic well-being and eudaimonic well-being. The work setting of the call centre staff that could be described as stressful (low autonomy, relatively low task variety, large workload, possible job loss) is likely to have influenced their understanding of well-being in terms of absence of stress. The work setting of the wellness managers that enables eudaimonic well-being experiences (through having high autonomy for example) is likely to have influenced them to conceptualise well-being in terms of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. So the work context in terms of work characteristics can have an influence on in what sense well-being is experienced and therefore understood. Within a job context where high stress levels are experienced and no basis for thriving is given, well-being is probably not understood as eudaimonic well-being but rather as hedonic well-being. If people have to cope with stressors such as work overload but cannot draw on job resources such as autonomy or personal resources such as self-efficacy, they are likely to experience symptoms such as negative affect, anxiety, exhaustion etc. Their efforts for well-being maintenance probably evolve around restoring levels of positive affect and relieve of exhaustion. Flourishing in

terms of wanting to achieve further self-development and growth is unlikely to be salient at that stage.

Not only the job characteristics, but also the job role might play a role for how well-being is understood. Different employee groups might have different understandings of well-being as different employee groups use work for their identity in a different manner. Whereas one could suspect that white-collar workers, for example knowledge workers, tend to identify themselves through their work (live to work; work centrality; e.g. Mannheim, Baruch, & Tal, 1997; Doherty, 2009), they might see workplace well-being more in terms of eudaimonic well-being. To assess their well-being experience at work they determine how much they experience meaning and purpose at work. The wellness managers did refer to eudaimonic well-being with several well-being indicators in their descriptions. Some blue collar workers might see work mainly in terms of earning a living (work to live) and derive meaning and purpose outside of work. Therefore, their definition of well-being might relate more to the hedonic conceptualisation of well-being, being satisfied at work and experience more positive than negative affect at work. Different job roles also come with different general work characteristics. Managers usually have more autonomy than staff. This might be reflected in the understanding of well-being. With more autonomy, for example, eudaimonic well-being is being able to be experienced. Indeed, this aspect of well-being was most referred to by the wellness managers.

The role of context in understanding well-being is recognised particularly in recent research on stress and well-being interventions (see Karanika-Murray, Biron, & Cooper, 2012). The characteristics of people and work and organisation boundaries within which stress and well-being interventions take place are context factors that influence whether an intervention is successful. Karanika-Murray, Biron,

and Cooper (2012) outline that research should not solely focus on ‘what’ works but why and under what circumstances. As previously outlined in the thesis, multiple scholars call for recognition of context in exploring phenomena of organisational behaviour (e.g. Bamberger, 2008; Johns, 2006; Rousseau & Fried, 2001). Richer descriptions of the study setting and the study sample would allow an understanding of these aspects that influence the observation. The study of these aspects can be used in order to make simple models more accurate as these models would then fit the complexities of working life somewhat better (Rousseau & Fried, 2001).

In this research, the findings suggest that the context embeddedness of the understanding of the well-being concept is anchored in several aspects: Firstly, the occupation (e.g. emergency service might emphasise the physical aspects of well-being), secondly, the particular job or work context (department with high stress vs. low stress), and thirdly, the job role in terms of the profession (blue vs. white collar workers) and the job resources and demands dependent on the job role (managers vs. staff usually have different degrees of autonomy). As the results suggest that the understanding of well-being is likely to be influenced by the work context in terms of job role and work characteristics, a general conceptualisation of well-being is therefore not useful due to its contextual dependency.

7.1.3 The social aspect of the well-being concept.

The social aspect of well-being was highlighted in this research. The social aspect was referred to the most as indicators of others’ well-being. So based on how others interact with oneself is used as a main indicator to assess their well-being. However, also in descriptions of own well-being the social aspect was mentioned in Study 1. The components of the social aspect were allocated to the eudaimonic well-being

dimension of positive relations with others and the emotional energy components of vigour. Eudaimonic well-being relates to the social aspects of well-being in terms of warm, satisfying, trusting relationships with others (Ryff & Keyes, 1995) and being concerned about and contributing to others' well-being (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2009; as cited in Diener et al., 2009, p. 263). Vigour relates to the social aspect of well-being in terms of emotional energy which encompasses being able to show warmth to others, and being sensitive to needs of others, investing emotionally in others (Shirom, 2003). However, the components of the lay descriptions go beyond the aspects covered in eudaimonic well-being and vigour. This indicates that a well-being definition like Keyes' (1998; see Section 2.1.3), that highlights social aspects such as feeling a belonging, contributing to one's surrounding, would be useful to integrate into existing workplace well-being conceptualisations. Attempts to integrate several well-being concepts and the social domain are made by Daniels (2000), for example, who conceptualises individual (workplace) well-being as hedonic well-being (affect and satisfaction), competence (environmental mastery, fulfilment of potential), aspiration (having goals and motivation), autonomy, and integrative functioning. Integrative functioning relates to the social domain in terms of social integration, coherence, acceptance, and contribution (Daniels, 2000).

That the social aspect was prominent as an indicator of others' well-being highlights that the well-being of oneself has therefore not just implication for oneself but for a whole group of people that have to interact and/or work together. The well-being of a person can be assessed based on how he or she interacts with others. A person's well-being is therefore likely to influence how well people can work together.

The social aspect in the well-being experience is commonly acknowledged in the literature mainly in terms of influencing the appraisal of stressors or facilitator of coping (see Section 2.2.2.4). However, the results of Study 1 highlight the social aspect of the well-being experience itself. The social aspect of well-being is mirrored in the descriptions of well-being indicators as the need for connection (see Cacioppo & Patrick, 2008; Cacioppo, et al., 2006) that is satisfied through experiencing interactions and feelings of belongingness. Also, the social aspect of the well-being experience can in fact impact upon social support behavior. A social loss is happening when low well-being is experienced through the person retreating into an introverted state, rather than communicating and collaborating with others.

The social aspect of well-being is also mirrored in the findings that were discussed in relation to context. In the previous section it is outlined how individuals with different job roles experienced and described well-being in different ways. The influence of social identification on the understanding of well-being is also likely. It is possible that one's social identity determines how well-being is understood based on one's groups norms and values. The social identity as a manager or as a call centre worker was salient when participants were responding to questions about their workplace well-being experience and therefore this social identity influenced their descriptions. The influence of social identification has been shown in empirical research to influence stress and well-being in terms of whether a stressor is perceived as relevant (see Haslam et al., 2004; Levine & Reicher, 1996; Section 2.2.2.4). The influence of the social dimension of well-being in terms of functional relationships with antecedents has also been shown in this research programme. The findings related to this are discussed in the next section.

7.2 Discussion of Findings for Research Aim 2 - The Relevance of Identity-Related Resources for Experiencing Well-Being

In the following sections the results of Study 2 will be discussed in more detail based on its key findings, that is in terms of the context embeddedness of the functional relationship between identity-related resources and well-being; the usefulness of the identity-lens on resources of individuals; the multiplicity of the authenticity experience; and group norms and situational constraints as moderators of authenticity enactment.

7.2.1 The context dependency of resources - Authenticity and social identification as positive, negative, and irrelevant resources for experiencing well-being.

It is recognized in the organizational psychology and well-being literature that the very same work characteristic can be a resource (supporting well-being) or a demand (detrimental for well-being) depending on the work context in which other work characteristics are present (see Section 2.2). Karasek (1979) highlighted in early occupational stress research that work demands are detrimental when the individual has no control over their work environment. However, if they do have control over their work environment (e.g. decision latitude) then these demands are less likely to lead to stress. Also Warr (2008) outlines in his vitamin-model of work characteristics that some work characteristics that are generally viewed as resources can turn into demands (e.g. decision latitude is a resource but can turn into a demand if too much decision latitude is given but no guidance on how to conduct a job task). A similar dynamic was found for the influence of identity-related resources on workplace well-being. Whereas the levels of identity-related resources seem not

to play a role whether they pose as demands or resources for well-being, the work context in which these resources are enacted determines whether they are at all relevant or indeed negative for an individual's well-being.

In terms of authenticity, the participants from the call centre staff in Study 2 pointed out that interpersonal authenticity can be a threat to well-being when interacting with clients. Exercising personal authenticity with clients would mean that abuse might be experienced on a personal level. Authenticity would therefore be a negative resource. Interpretations from the study findings also suggest that authenticity might not be relevant in certain situations as the call centre staff outlined that their work is heavily regulated and does not allow for personal variations in how the work is carried out. However, the call centre staff and the wellness managers also highlighted that authenticity is a positive resource. On the one hand, as outlined by the wellness managers, intrapersonal authenticity allows to be aware of and to develop one's strengths and weaknesses in order to grow as a person and to perform well in one's job. On the other hand, interpersonal authenticity allows for trusting and supporting relationships. As outlined by the call centre staff, knowing each other well would allow to determining whether a colleague needs support.

That resources can be positive and negative is already recognised by some research. For example, McNulty and Fincham (2012) caution not to label resources as positive and negative as they have found that certain resources have a positive or negative influence on a person's well-being. For example, forgiveness is a positive resource for an individual who is in a healthy intimate relationship. However, forgiveness enacted by an individual that gets continuously abused by their partner will lead to the individual's low well-being.

Most research emphasises that authenticity is a positive resource however and states that workplaces should enable authenticity (e.g. Roberts et al., 2009), although some philosophical and critical management scholars have also explored negative connotations of authenticity. Varga (2012), for example, outlines in a philosophical exploration of authenticity, that it is not necessarily putting strain on someone not being able to be authentic but having to constantly be authentic. He sees the demand to be constantly authentic contraindicative of well-being. Varga argues that "…authenticity has become an institutionalized demand in subjects, but also that problematic and possibly pathological conditions no longer arise from the social barriers that inhibit authenticity, but from the pursuit of authenticity and self-realization itself" (p.127).

Authenticity can not only act as a negative resource for well-being of employees but can also be seen as negative in terms of how it is used by the management of an organisation. There are researchers who see the managerial approach to authenticity as false positivity and state that it is an instrumental discourse (Fleming, 2009) used to make laborious work more interesting (Fleming & Sturdy, 2011). From a managerial perspective, it is hoped that employees will act in the best interests of the organisation because they are motivated by a strong identification with the organisation, which stems from being allowed to be oneself, i.e. being authentic at work. In this sense, organisations use a "bastardized notion of authenticity" (Moore, 2011, p. 78) for their gain. Authenticity is welcome only insofar as it converges with the interests of the company. Other aspects that underlie this managerial control based on the authenticity of the employee are those of the outside life of employees and their whole identity. The outside life is seen as a reservoir for self-expression particular in the creative industry, which is valuable for

the organisation. Also, one's life outside work is what makes an employee a good employee, as this life revitalises or develops the employee (Pedersen, 2011).

Social identification was also found in this research to be able to act as a positive and negative resource for well-being. Existing research usually outlines social identification as a positive resource for well-being as it facilitates coping, for example (see 2.2.3.3). However, existing research (Britt, Dickinson, Greene-Shortridge, & McKibben, 2007) also acknowledges that high social identification with the organisation or work group can act as a negative resource for well-being if a task cannot be fulfilled: High identification would lead to the desire to fulfil a task and high work engagement . If this task cannot be successfully completed, the employee experiences frustration and exhaustion.

Explorations of the narratives of the call centre staff suggest that an identification with their organisation could be negative for their well-being. The call centre staff did identify negatively or not at all with the organisation primarily because the organisation cared about hitting targets, while the employees cared more about their service to the public, and because the on-going changes in equipment, procedures, and policies disrupted their work. In addition, the organisation did not lead to self-enhancement or positive distinctiveness but rather a negative image of the individual employee (Abrams & Hogg, 2001) because of the organisation's negative image in the general population at this time (as observed by call centre staff). Being a member of a low status organisation is likely to lead to low well-being (see Peters, Tevichapong, Haslam, & Postmes, 2010; van Dick & Wagner, 2002; Veenstra, Haslam, & Reynolds, 2004) and low job satisfaction (Riketta & van Dick, 2005). In addition, the organisation did not satisfy other important human needs that are usually satisfied by group membership, such as the need for safety, belonging,

and meaning (Pratt, 2001), as members of the call centre staff were experiencing job insecurity. The failure of the organisation to satisfy the need of the call centre staff for safety, belonging, and meaning meant that identifying with the organisation would not act as a resource for their well-being.

7.2.2 The usefulness of the identity lens for resources of individuals – The link between authenticity and social identity.

Resources of individuals have focused on the personal dimension of resources and are therefore often referred to as personal resources (see Hobfoll, 2000; Xanthopolou et al., 2007). However, the social identity approach (Tajfel, 1972, Turner et al., 1987) shows that it is important to recognize the social dimension of a person's experience and identity. Rather than dividing resources into resources situated within the individual and within the environment (see Hobfoll, 2000) the findings of Study 2 showed that resources of the individual should include personal and social aspects in order to tap into the complete identity of a person. The social identity of a person determines how they experience themselves in an environment and therefore influences perceptions of own resources and of resources available in the environment such as the social support by the work team.

The identity lens was particularly useful in order to make sense of how authenticity, linked to the personal identity, impacts on well-being depending on what aspects of a person's social identity was salient. The importance of considering social identity when conceptualising authenticity has been recognised by some. Erickson (1995), for example, states: "…the self implied by the concept of authenticity is shaped by the social roles we play and have played…" (p. 126). This was also illustrated by the results from Study 2, where the participants from the call

centre staff stated that they acted authentically in relation to their professional identity as an emergency service worker but not necessarily to their personal identity. Some call centre staff saw the uniform as an important aspect of their professional identity. While their professional identity was expressed and made visible through the uniform, they also saw it as a form of protection for their personal identity in terms of well-being. They saw the abuse they received from clients as directed towards the professional body they represented rather than towards them personally, i.e. their personal identity.

Study 2 also showed another possible link between authenticity and social identification. The call centre staff had a negative social identification with the organisation, or even lack thereof, as the organisational changes affected their work practices and service to the public negatively and as they did not feel that they belonged to the same social identity as the managers (management detached). Therefore, they might not care about the future of the organisation and thus be unwilling to engage in personal authenticity within the organisation. They do their job and are authentic towards their occupational identity but not the organisational identity as this was negative or absent.

Therefore, one could argue that the identity-lens to personal resources is also linked to the job crafting literature which states that individuals are not passive actors influenced by work characteristics present in their work environment. Indeed, people physically or cognitively change the design and social environment they work in by altering tasks and relationships. They do so in order to maintain a positive work identity and meaningful work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). As the organizational identity was negative for call centre staff, they crafted the perceptions of their work so that it would fit their identity informed by their authenticity as an emergency

service worker. The staff conceptualised their work in terms of doing a good job as an emergency service worker, not as a member of organisation x.

So job crafting and revising one's work identity might be a way to be able to be authentic at work. However for call centre staff, 'physical' job crafting is more difficult as their work is heavily regulated. Cognitively, however, they can do job crafting by detaching themselves from delivering a service as part of the organisation and instead doing a good job an emergency service worker not as a member of organisation x, delivering a service in their function in the occupation. A study by Kira, Balkin, and San (2012) outlined that organisational change has the potential to create misalignment between a person's professional identity and the work they have to conduct. They argue that well-being and learning and/or development might be impaired if a person is not able to apply their own resources (which are consequences of being authentic) due to the misalignment of identity and work. Connected with this notion is also personal engagement at work (Kahn, 1990), i.e. how much a person brings himself or herself to a task behaviour. When disengaged, a person uncouples themselves from their role physically, cognitively, and emotionally while working on a task (see also work engagement; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Depending on group dynamics, management behaviours, or organisational norms, people feel safe "to invest their selves" or "in employing and expressing their selves" (Kahn, 1990, p. 712) into their work. When people feel unsafe, they guard themselves and create internal boundaries, their cognitive, physical and emotional presence is limited then and less performance and possibly well-being is the result.

Feelings of inauthenticity can of course also arise if the social identity of the emergency worker has values or norms that are not in alignment with the personal identity of the person. So the job-person fit (Jansen, Kristof-Brown, 2006) could also

have an influence on how authentic one can and wants to be at work. Therefore, a sense of inauthenticity does not only come from a mismatch between one's work identity and the work having to be conducted but also a mismatch between one's personal identity and work identity; whether one is in the 'right profession'. Some call centre staff referred to this. However, for emergency service workers, this mismatch is unlikely to be found often as emergency service workers are thought to have a helper personality that draws them to this occupation. They have a strong occupational identity (Brunsden et al., 2012).

7.2.3 The multi-faceted concept of authenticity.

The definition of authenticity covers an array of abstract aspects such as values, goals, etc., but how is it experienced and understood by people who work? Are some aspects more crucial than others in the workplace? Study 2 suggests that different people emphasise different aspects of authenticity in their description of the concept and their experience of authenticity at work – voicing personal opinions, being a woman in a male dominated environment, and being able to show strengths and weaknesses at work. So when thinking about the effects of being authentic at work on well-being, these might differ depending on what aspect of authenticity is enacted at work. Whereas being authentic to one's strengths and weaknesses might be advantageous for experiencing well-being at work – and also advantageous as management encouraged it in order to develop an individual further to increase their work abilities – other aspects might not be encouraged and might consequently lead to low well-being. Voicing personal opinions that are contrary to those of other organisational members might lead to negative social encounters, for example.

So in order to be able to make conclusions about the role of authenticity in the workplace and its link to well-being, one has to clarify how employees and managers understand authenticity. Their understanding is, like well-being, likely to be influenced by the characteristics, opportunities, and constraints their job role and work tasks pose. A heavily regulated job like call centre work does not provide the opportunity to be authentic and furthermore some groups of employees might not feel the need to be authentic at work as they use their personal life for self-expression. They therefore might engage with authenticity for example only in terms of when professional standards would infringe on personal standards. In contrast, managers and knowledge workers might see their work as a core part of their identity. They therefore value authenticity at work and their relatively autonomous jobs give them the freedom to enact it. Therefore, they might understand authenticity in terms of intra- and interpersonal aspects of authenticity that are linked to growth and healthy functioning. Managers might also be inclined to conceptualise authenticity in terms of a bounded authenticity, i.e. authenticity that is only shown within marked boundaries and that only encompasses positive aspects beneficial for behaviour and performance at work (see Section 5.4.2.1). Employees might not be encouraged to be authentic in the way that all of their personal aspects are expressed at work. However, not being able to enact the personal identity at work does not necessarily have to be negative for well-being if the staff see being authentic at work as being authentic to their occupational identity and not their personal identity (see Section 5.4.2.1). Furthermore, as the findings of Study 2 suggest, not all aspects of authenticity might be relevant as a well-being resource, i.e. are needed to improve well-being.

7.2.4 Group norms and situational constraints as moderators of authenticity enactment.

It is not only important to consider how people in different the work environments understand authenticity but also what norms exist for being authentic in a work group or department. The group and its norms can have an influence on individual authenticity levels. Authenticity is unlikely to be detached from environment; this has been acknowledged by some of the authenticity literature, which states that people adapt their (authentic) behaviour to the environment (Kernis & Goldman, 2006; authentic leadership literature; e.g. Avolio et al., 2009; Goffee & Jones, 2005). In Study 2 call centre staff were authentic in terms of their professional identity that was salient and supported in their work environment. From the group literature (social identity literature), we know that norms play a role in what kind of behaviour is shown, as the norms and values of in-groups are taken on as one's own (Sherif, 1936; Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999). Also person-group fit in terms of goals and values influence experienced satisfaction (person-environment fit literature, e.g. Kristof-Brown & Stevens, 2001). This could be applied to authenticity by considering the constraints on acting authentically and restrictions for authenticity as being experienced positively in certain contexts (see also Section 5.4.2.1). In Study 2, expressing certain personality traits ('being a joker') was not seen as professional and therefore not seen as appropriate to express in a work context. Furthermore, it is not only the norms the managers and the colleagues impose, but also the normative work practices have an influence. In heavily regulated work environments that do not allow autonomy, authenticity might not be enabled to be expressed and experienced. This was described by the call centre staff when discussing how authentic they could be when dealing with an emergency phone call. The procedure and script dictated

how the conversation had to be conducted and therefore very little room for authenticity was given.

Therefore, future research could investigate not only whether all aspects of authenticity are encouraged by the work environment (constraining work characteristics) and management (facilitating work practices to be authentic and their understanding of authenticity) but what the role of one's colleagues is in one's authenticity behaviour. Do they facilitate, encourage or hinder authentic interactions at work and what is the result of this for people's workplace well-being? What happens when authenticity content clashes between group members?

7.3 Recommendations for Future Research

By engaging with lay descriptions of well-being in two studies, an explorative approach allowed me a greater appreciation of the complexity of the well-being construct and of the dependency of well-being and its antecedents on the context in which they are experienced. However, this approach also means that the statements made in this discussion chapter are reflections based on explorative rather than inferential research. Furthermore, the limitations of the studies are that they have relatively small sample sizes and are limited to specific work settings. Empirical investigations with structural equation models, for example, could determine how much postulated components contribute to the experience of workplace well-being and the relevance of identity-related resources for attaining workplace well-being. However, an explorative approach allowed to reveal several future research avenues that would enable a better understanding of what workplace well-being encompasses and how it can be enhanced. Two major research avenues highlighted in this research are firstly, the context dependency of the understanding of well-being

and of its functional relationships with identity-related resources, and secondly, the social aspect of the well-being experience. How future research can further knowledge regarding individual workplace well-being within these two research avenues is outlined in more detail in the following sections.

7.3.1 Recognising the importance of context.

For future research, this thesis suggests that an awareness of the context in which well-being is experienced might enable to find appropriate well-being strategies for different work contexts. Definitions of well-being could be explored in different occupations and job roles. Furthermore, regarding functional relationships between antecedents and workplace well-being, explanatory reductionism could be minimised with collecting more rich data (Johns, 2006) in terms of what other variables are present in the work environment that influence the nature of the relationship between well-being and its antecedents (Fried & Rousseau, 2001). In this research, several aspects of the work environment were suggested to influence the understanding of well-being and how identity-related resources influence well-being: the occupation, the particular job or work context, the job role in terms of the profession, and the job resources and demands dependent on the job role. Considering these aspects in future research on concepts and functional relationships of the workplace well-being would make it possible to create understanding and theory that might be more applicable to workplaces. Complexities of the workplace could be recognized by amending general theory for particular work environments. Furthermore, exploring these context aspects would also enable future theory building as new relevant factors would be assessed (Johns, 2006).

Outlining that resources can be positive, negative, or irrelevant for well-being, this research suggests that future research could also explore contexts which determine whether resources support or hinder well-being. Some research has concentrated predominantly on the positive effects of authenticity and social identification for well-being. However, particularly authenticity needs to be researched further in the context of work as the current research suggests the following: firstly, authenticity might mean different things to different people; secondly, aspects of authenticity are related differently to multiple well-being aspects; and thirdly, authenticity in terms of one's personal identity might not be relevant to achieving well-being in all work environments; fourth, situational constraints including group norms are likely to shape authenticity enactment and its relationship with well-being. This calls for further research into what authenticity means in different workplace settings and into a differentiated approach to measuring the link between authenticity and workplace well-being.

Beyond the importance of clarifying what authenticity means for individuals within an organisation, one should also explore what authenticity means in different cultures in light of an increasingly globalised business and working world. The setting of most studies on authenticity has been in the United States of America. Whereas conclusions from these studies on intrapersonal authenticity might be able to be generalised across cultures with some limitations as the understanding of the self might differ in individualistic and collective cultures (Hofstede, 1984), certainly the enactment of authenticity (interpersonal authenticity) is likely to be context and culture dependent. Whereas transparency and honesty might be valued very highly in an American or Western context, saving face is an important aspect in Asian

cultures and would moderate how authenticity is enacted (see Zhang, Everett, Elkin, & Cone, 2012).

7.3.2 Recognising the social aspect of well-being.

This research suggests that it is important to explore the social dimension of well-being. Human beings are social beings and at work people often have to interact with others or work in groups. Thus, the social dimension of the well-being experience and its antecedents seems to have an influence on the understanding of well-being and how it is linked to identity-related resources. This research suggests firstly, that the social dimension of well-being is a prevalent aspect of people's experience of well-being at work (see Section 4.4.1); secondly that social identification influences how one makes sense of their environment and consequently how one understands well-being (see Section 5.4.2.2) and how one accesses not only resources from the environment but also resources related to the own identity such as authenticity (see Sections 5.4.2.1).

The impact of social identification processes on a person's positive functioning at work has already been explored in empirical studies outlining how social identification influences primary and secondary appraisal of stressors and how it serves a resource itself (see Section 2.2.3.4 and Haslam et al., 2009). However, research is still needed to explore social components of individual workplace well-being further. Daniels (2000) and Keyes (1998) already outlined aspects of the social dimension of well-being. That is, Keyes (1998) suggested that social well-being consists of *feeling part of the community* (integration); *understanding and caring about one's surrounding* (coherence); *feeling positive towards others* (acceptance); *feeling one has something to offer* (contribution); and *feeling confident about the*

future in one's society (actualisation). Daniels (2000) suggested that social integration, coherence, acceptance, and contribution are part of the social dimension of well-being. Future research could explore to what extent their postulated components of the social dimension are prevalent in the well-being experience and how they are linked to antecedents and outcomes of well-being. As suggested by the findings of Study 1, a social loss takes place when an individual has low well-being. Social aspects of the well-being such as feeling positive towards others or feeling part of the group decline and therefore less interaction and joint efforts to perform well are shown.

Furthermore, future well-being research can learn from stress research by recognizing and empirically exploring the influence of social identification processes on perceiving and facilitating resources for well-being. As outlined previously, stress research recognises social identification as a moderator for the stress appraisal process, as a basis for social support, and as a coping resource. This research has shown that social identification influences whether resources of the individual that are thought to be positively linked to well-being, such as authenticity, are indeed a positive, negative, or irrelevant resource for workplace well-being. Future research could expand this exploration on the impact of social identification processes on well-being.

7.4 Recommendations for Future Practice

The areas in which this thesis can make recommendations for future well-being practice are: recognising the importance of context and being aware of how stress and well-being are interlinked when aiming to understand and improve a population's well-being; and recognising and harnessing the social aspects of well-being and

drawing on identity-related related resources to improve well-being might be useful particularly in work contexts where working in groups is required. Each recommendation is outlined in more detail in the following.

7.4.1 Recognising the importance of context – What are important aspects of the well-being experience of the target intervention population?

The findings highlight that, depending on whose well-being under which circumstances is explored, different results are gained regarding relevant well-being components. If an organisation aims to implement an intervention to address a certain group's well-being, the intervention needs to fit the understanding of well-being of this group. It needs to be fitted to what they perceive as relevant for their well-being and to the sources of their low well-being. The intervention needs to fit the target population (Randall & Nielsen, 2012). Interventions might fail if they do not take into account context factors in terms of characteristics of people involved and the boundaries of their work context (Karanika-Murray, Biron, & Cooper, 2012). It is the characteristics of the people in their job role and their work environment and group dynamics, norms and, expectations that influence the understanding of well-being and what resources need to be invested in to improve their well-being. A general well-being interventions that does not take the job role and work characteristics of a person into account is unlikely to capture and address the well-being experience fully. This research highlights that the understanding of well-being is crucial for creating acceptance of well-being interventions. A general well-being intervention that follows a trend of investing in authenticity, for example, that does not consider how the work setting could influence whether this specific resource is indeed relevant for the target population or might even be negative for well-being.

Well-being measures and well-being interventions should therefore be adapted to the particular job role and work setting of the population they are targeting in terms of understanding of well-being and whether resources that might want to be increased with the intervention fit with this understanding.

Due to this described context dependency of the experience of well-being, a general statement of what appropriate well-being measures are and which well-being improvement approaches would be successful cannot be made. This has already been acknowledged by for example Juniper and colleagues (2011) and Karanika-Murray and colleagues (2012) as already outlined. A "'one size fits all' approach" (Karanika-Murray & Weyman, 2013, p. 106) and a lack of data driven designs of well-being interventions commonly utilised in organisation will not improve employee well-being. Juniper and colleagues (2011) argue that generic scales would not be sufficiently sensitive to well-being issues that are important to people in a specific occupational sector in terms of antecedents of well-being (see Section 7.1.1). In addition, I would argue that one should also pay attention to what aspects of well-being in terms of components needs to be paid attention to. Overlooking important aspects in terms of antecedents of well-being might lead to an unsuccessful well-being intervention. But using interventions that tackle certain aspects of well-being that are not seen by employees as being part of their workplace well-being experience will also be unsuccessful. If interventions on eudaimonic well-being are done but employees do not see these aspects of well-being as part of their well-being experience then the intervention might be seen as irrelevant for their well-being. Assessing and then addressing subjective perceptions in terms of components (see Section 7.1.1) and antecedent (e.g. Juniper et al., 2011) of the employees on what impacts on their well-being the most are key.

As many different conceptualisations and operationalisations of well-being exist not only due to the context and person specificity but also due to different theoretical approaches to well-being, the time scope of measurement, the domain scope of well-being, and the emphasis on positive or negative aspects of well-being, future practice (and research) would benefit from creating precise understandings of what aspects of the holistic notion of well-being they are referring to. Research already acknowledges in relation to well-being the general multiplicity of the concept and outlines that a narrow well-being measure is not useful if one wants to capture the well-being experience fully. For well-being practice this means that, solely using sickness absence reduction as an indicator of whether a well-being intervention was successful might not capture fully what aspects of well-being the intervention has changed.

Therefore it might be advantageous to include individual employees in the design of the intervention not only in terms of their ‘content’ expertise and to ensure an intervention-person fit (Randall & Nielsen, 2012) but also their ‘context’ expertise (LaMontagne, Louie, Ostry, & Landsbergis, 2007). A context factor that might play a role, especially for organisations similar to the one in Study 2 (emergency services), is acceptance of help from others in this population. Male dominance combined with the heroic nature of the emergency services work can lead to a macho organisational culture that can be a barrier to help-seeking or reporting stress (Brunsden et al., 2012). As a result, certain well-being interventions might not be used by staff. As shown in Study 2, the identification levels differed between the job groups and might also affect how they responded to an intervention explicitly targeted at the organisation or the occupation. For organisations where departments have very different work characteristics and/or identification levels with the

organisation or occupation, an individualised intervention approach, tailored for each department, may be also required (see Tvedt & Oysten Saksvik, 2012).

7.4.2 Recognising and harnessing the social aspects of well-being.

The social aspect of well-being particularly highlighted by the findings of Study 1 suggests that well-being is not just important in itself but is also important for successful working together. Low well-being leads to social loss. This is particularly detrimental for environments where group performance is required. It is therfore in the interest of the organisation that employees have high well-being. Additionally, investing into employee's well-being by organisations therefore does not only follow the duty of care and the business incentive of increasing the performance of the individual but is also important to invest in it to facilitate capacity for team work through well-being of team members.

Furthermore, as highlighted in the narratives in Study 2, social aspects of well-being in terms of social support also play an important part for people who work. Therefore, individual-level approaches to well-being could be complemented by group-level approaches in terms of the provision of support and additional resources (see also Jetten, Haslam, & Haslam, 2012). Interventions aimed at the individual might be complemented by creating supportive groups in which members manage their well-being maintenance by providing each other with informational and emotional support.

In relation to accessing social support from the organisation, addressing the sources of negative organisational identification might also be a valuable way of improving workplace well-being. Related to the organisational identification, findings from Study 2 also suggest the important role line management plays in terms of well-

being of staff. The call centre staff felt they were neither supported nor heard. Previous research highlights the behaviour of the manager in terms of providing support and communicating change to employees (amongst others) as important in terms of preventing and mitigating employee stress (Yarker, Donaldson-Feilder, & Flaxman, 2007). For future practice, this means that line manager behaviour is worth training or supporting further as it is likely to have influence on employee well-being (Yarker et al., 2007; van Dierendonck, Borrill, Haynes, & Stride, 2004) or and through leading to negative organisational identification as shown in Study 2. As outlined by Yarker and colleagues (2007), line manager behaviour such as empowering employees (i.e. trusting employees to do their work, giving employees responsibilities) or managing workload and resources (i.e. monitoring team workload, providing additional resources when needed) helps to maintain employees' well-being. As outlined in Study 2, taking employees' complaints seriously, giving them the feeling that they are valued amongst other are likely to enable a positive organisational identification.

To conclude, this research suggests that different components and antecedents of workplace well-being are highlighted in different work contexts due to the nature of the work. This indicates that it is important to ask when designing well-being interventions which components and antecedents are important to whom under what circumstances. Different work demands and resources of specific organisations or work groups create particular understandings of well-being and strategies for well-being improvement. Any action taken to improve well-being needs to be tailored in terms of adjusting the understanding of relevant components and

antecedents to the work context and the characteristics of the people who work in that setting.

Epilogue: My Learning Above and Beyond the Thesis

This thesis aimed to outline various ways in which well-being is described and experienced in order to gain a greater appreciation of the complexity and dependency of the well-being concept on the context in which it is described. Despite the theoretical and empirical findings that are described in this thesis, the learning I took from conducting this PhD research also gives insight into the challenges of researching workplace well-being and possible future directions in workplace well-being research. This PhD is the result of an intellectual journey from the years 2009 to 2013 in which I explored the field of individual workplace well-being by engaging with academic and practitioner conceptualisations and narratives. During this time I talked to professionals and lay people about what individual workplace well-being encompasses. I not simply learnt about the topic of well-being, I also gained insights into the challenges of well-being research and future research avenues have been highlighted to me. Reflecting on the research process of the PhD programme, and discussion with practitioners and academics outside of my PhD studies, enabled the discovery of the ideas and ideologies that lie behind different conceptualisations of well-being and different approaches to the maintenance and enhancement of well-being in organisations. Therefore, in this epilogue I reflect on my intellectual journey towards apprehending what individual workplace well-being means and how it can be enhanced, describing how my understanding of the concept has developed within and beyond its academic study. This contributes to finding implications for how to research well-being in the future.

My understanding has developed through observing how well-being is talked about at conferences and by reflecting on the data collection process. It has further developed through reflecting on my contact with organisations, their motivation to

take part in research projects, by talking to practitioners and exploring their understanding of well-being. Research is not always clearly delineated, as enquiries generate new questions that require further investigation if one wants to understand a complex phenomenon such as well-being. Furthermore, studies do not always turn out as planned nor do single studies provide the complete insight aimed for. Several opportunities to research well-being within organisations and well-being programmes were taken up during the PhD programme. I focused on three studies that I saw as the most significant in terms of their ability to reveal the components and antecedents of individual workplace well-being and the contexts in which it is constructed. These are presented in the thesis. In the following sections I will describe my broader learning about workplace well-being based on the studies presented in the thesis and other successful and unsuccessful research encounters, and conversations with practitioners and academics that took place during the PhD journey.

What is Well-Being?

My learning journey started with a confrontation with the compelling message of positive psychology and positive organisational behaviour: well-being is about flourishing and thriving. It is about excelling, not about coping. Well-being is something different from stress. One of my supervisors gave me a book on stress (Cooper, Dewe, Driscoll, 2001) just after I had completed reading a book on positive organisational scholarship (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). I delayed reading the book on stress as I thought well-being was completely removed from stress and had nothing to do with it. However, after reading the second book, and reflecting about and comparing definitions and measures of well-being and stress, I realised that the

two terms were indeed often used interchangeably and that low indicators of stress were equated with the existence of well-being. One example is Sheldon and colleagues' (1997) study on the relationship between 'cross-variation in Big 5-personality traits with authenticity and subjective well-being'. They measured subjective well-being with five scales that capture trait anxiety, depression, stress, and self-esteem. They argue that they measured subjective well-being through positive and negative valenced constructs to capture physical and psychological well-being. Furthermore, I realised that well-being is not a new concept but can be seen as a continuation of stress and motivation research. It has been researched in the last decades alongside related constructs such as job satisfaction and coping. Human well-being has always been of interest in organisational psychology research, not just since the introduction of positive organisational behaviour, but also as an important aspect of an individual's experience and functioning at work. Given this, I came across many concepts to which major research fields are dedicated but which are similar to, or at least have a strong link with, well-being. Resilience, for example, is an area that has been researched for many decades and has experienced a similar development to well-being, in terms of redefinition of the concept through positive psychology (Luthar, 2006). Although the original roots of resilience research focus on risk factors, positive organisational behaviour research focuses on a more positive definition of resilience. The research on resilience has its roots in clinical and developmental psychology. Research was done on children who were able to lead normal lives as adults despite having a tough and disturbed childhood (Gu & Day, 2007). Now research focuses on positive resources for developing resilience. Frederickson's (2004) broaden-and-build theory, for example, states that positive emotions fuel psychological resilience. Resilience is seen as a

psychological capital capacity (PSyCap; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007) that enables employees to deal with and initiate positive change from challenges, i.e. stressful, unpredictable work environments (Siu et al., 2009). For my research this meant that I took a much broader look at what literature could give indications on what the phenomenon of well-being consists of.

In addition to becoming familiar with the academic stress and well-being literature, at the beginning of the PhD programme I met consultants from the practitioner network of the Centre for Leadership Studies, University of Exeter, to discuss what well-being meant to them[52]. I did this to get a sense of how practitioners, in contrast to academics, understood well-being. I asked open-ended questions about what well-being means, whether it is important in the workplace, how leaders could influence it, and what role eudaimonic well-being plays in the workplace. I also showed them my research questions and the outline of my research programme to see whether they made sense to them. Well-being was a term the practitioners could relate to and they defined it as something more than the mere absence of stress.

> *When I first thought about it, I suppose I would have seen it in a much narrower way. And I would think my take would be a common approach of many companies in thinking of well-being. I think very much about things we have talked about such as reduction in stress, healthy working, healthy work environment, can I cycle to work. But since you stimulated my interest and we had discussions, I thought about it a little bit more. I think probably and also coupled with the work I am doing on high performance working as well. I think there are clear links there actually. Several years back I went to a lecture by*

[52] They were not part of the sample in Study 1.

Charles Handy, he spoke about eudaimonia. (…) And I think that's largely to do with a sense of purpose and a feeling that your life and your own work has meaning. So for me now, work well-being has grown somewhat into aspects like that. (Consultant 1)

The consultants saw well-being as important in terms of heightening the performance of employees; by looking after employees' well-being, one could make sure employees are well and perform well. This follows the concept that happy employees are more productive (happy-productive-worker hypothesis; Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). One stated:

"Get rid of the word well-being. It sounds soft and fluffy. And it sounds like an add-on as opposed to – it's actually absolutely fundamental to organisational performance." (Consultant 2).

Eudaimonic well-being, or self-actualisation, as some referred to it, was not seen as playing a big role in organisations as it is not applicable to the entire workforce. According to consultant 2 there are several reasons why eudaimonic well being is not viewed as highly important in some workplaces:

. . . [B]ecause they come from let's say a comprehensive school and they left school only with a few GCSEs, that if they are lucky they'll make a good secretary for a woman. Or, well, if you are lucky, perhaps you can make a mechanic in a garage, and I know that they are old-fashioned stereotypical examples but that still exists. It exists to a great deal. So people don't understand the concept of self-actualisation; that's one thing. The second thing is, organisations don't actually sit down with people and go, ok you've been in for six month or a year or whatever, tell me about you, tell me what you like about the job, if you could do anything in this company what would it

be. And you know, well, I'm not allowed to say things like that, you know, I am grateful for the job. And sadly it's a, there is still almost this grace and favour particularly in the current economic climate. I'm just grateful for the job and so on. I got a friend and his view is, you gotta work, you are not paid to enjoy it, you are paid to do the job." (Consultant 2)

I also started thinking about whether eudaimonic well-being in the workplace would apply to the whole workforce. Not everyone wants to use the workplace as a means to create meaning and purpose in their life. In academia and in many other contexts, work is usually seen as an important source of identity, meaning, affiliation (Doherty, 2009) and self-actualisation (Steger & Dik, 2010). However, one should not forget that different people might work for different reasons. For some, their profession is their central identity; for others a job is a means to earn money in order to earn a living and be able to conduct meaningful tasks outside work. What does this tell me as a researcher and as a member of the well-being research community? It is not just about the questions we ask, but about whom we ask. Not everyone experiences well-being at work in the same way because they work for different purposes.

A multi-disciplinary conference at Birmingham City University (18–19 July 2011) highlighted that not only do different people have a different understanding about what well-being is but different academic disciplines do as well. Each discipline approached the study of well-being differently. Economics and social and health science presentations at the conference approached well-being in terms of welfare, mortality, and mental health. This perspective seems to centre around stress reduction. In psychology and business presentations, well-being was talked about in terms of job satisfaction and personal growth. This perspective could be

seen as evolving around enhancement of well-being. In terms of antecedents, presentations from the architecture sector referred to ergonomic influences on well-being. As environmental science and tourism talked about the importance of nature and light for health, mental health, and well-being. This made me realise that well-being is a phenomenon rather than a single concept and has many aspects that cannot necessarily be combined in one research field. Many factors contribute to personal well-being and living well. In order for future well-being research to be able to inform good well-being practices, it should be open for collaboration across fields. Barriers for these kind of joint projects do exist however, as most conferences and journals are specialised in a particular field.

Understanding of the term also differed at a conference dedicated to just one well-being concept (workplace well-being). At the conference at Sheffield University (3rd Biennial IWP Conference on Work, Well-being & Performance; 26–28 June 2012) the presentations covered terms ranging from stress and burnout to work engagement, hedonic well-being, and eudaimonic well-being. There was an array of presentations that could be grouped according to the context in which well-being was studied (police, armed forces, minorities, designing interventions, career, health and safety, entrepreneurship) and according to various antecedents and factors (leadership, organisational change, work-life balance, fairness, proactivity). I did not observe this abundance of well-being concepts amongst practitioners.

I attended the Work and Wellbeing Conference at the University of Plymouth (13 August 2010), a well-being conference aimed at practitioners. The attendees were mainly from the council, the police, and small businesses. The programme content gave insight into how well-being might be understood by practitioners. The understanding of well-being at this conference was closely tied to absence through

sickness. The presentations and workshops focused on how to maintain well-being at work in order to reduce sickness absence. In all the conference presentations, sickness absence was used as an indicator of the effectiveness of stress and well-being interventions. This suggests a possible difference between practitioner and academic approaches. As outlined in the thesis, well-being adds the aspects of flourishing under normal conditions and positive resources for effective coping to stress research. A mere focus on lowering sickness levels does not do the concept of well-being justice. So one could ask whether some practitioner circles have actually moved on from the stress concept or rather have substituted this concept with the positive (-sounding) term ‘well-being’.

To conclude, the conceptualisation of well-being differs across academic disciplines and between academia and practitioner circles. Integrating well-being research with current and past stress and motivation research across disciplines would provide a holistic understanding of what the experience of well-being at work encompasses and how well-being can be changed and maintained.

Another issue that became apparent during my research on well-being was that measurements of well-being do not catch the dynamic or fluctuating quality of definitions of the term. I aimed to capture the development of well-being in a study by looking at whether well-being changes over time and whether the development of potential antecedents over time would influence levels of well-being. This was the aim of the study conducted with students of an undergraduate business module. However, as outlined in Chapter 5, my ability to do this type of analysis was constrained as the sample size dropped with each additional measurement point as the students’ attendance of the modules varied. Another opportunity for me to collect longitudinal data arose within a different student course. There the participants were

young people taking part in a five-day residential course that aims to develop change agent skills, higher authenticity, and sustainable living. The programme included exercises on self-reflection, understanding that humans are part of nature, getting to know one's own values, building personal confidence, developing motivation for initiating change, and discovering one's aim in life. Using this course as a data collection resource, I aimed to investigate how self-perceptions authenticity and sense of social identification as potential predictors of well-being develop over time and whether their influence on well-being differs over time. The course would render these data because participants practised self-reflection, exploration of own values, and did exercises to create higher group cohesion. This research used a questionnaire study with a pre/post/follow-up test design to measure authenticity, social identification, and well-being. The programme had 18 participants. Again, that was a low sample size but the only available programme that allowed such a research design. Not everyone filled in the questionnaire three times, as required. Fourteen filled it in pre-course, 10 directly post-course, and nine filled it in at the follow-up (nine weeks after the course). There were five people whose data were present across all three times, not sufficient for inferential statistics. Therefore, another attempt was made in September 2010 when the programme was held again. This time the follow-up was not sent out due to programme staff changes. Such data collection difficulties make longitudinal studies challenging to conduct even though they would be fruitful for well-being research. Based on those two experiences, I find it not surprising that most (well-being) studies are cross-sectional. However, to be able to make arguments about the direction causal relationships between well-being and its hypothesised antecedents, longitudinal research is needed.

To conclude, in relation to methods it is important to reflect on what research design allows us to deduce and therefore longitudinal research is favourable; but be aware of the limitations due to the realities of the research process. Furthermore, increasing numbers of researchers see the value of using qualitative methods in psychology and combining them with established quantitative methods. In organisational psychology qualitative researchers try to describe, decode and interpret meanings of work-related phenomena for employees and employers. They focus on describing the nature of something (the precursor to measuring). Interviews are particularly useful when trying to determine what well-being means for people (Banister et al., 1994). In this research the use of qualitative methods has provided rich and relatively unconstrained accounts of what it means for participants to experience well-being at work. This might be a worthwhile future avenue for well-being research as participants' accounts of what well-being means could bring clarity into how well-being concepts could be unified. Qualitative data could give insights into causal relationships between antecedents and well-being. In narratives of people who work for example it could be investigated how people see certain aspects of their work environment influence their experienced well-being.

Challenges of Studying Well-Being in Organisations

Looking at the research opportunities that I could not pursue in my PhD programme also provided valuable insights into the agenda behind introducing well-being in organisations. I realised that organisations invest in well-being in order to obtain other means, for example, positive perception of the organisation by staff and outsiders, and that it is not on top of their agenda.

I approached a car manufacturer in Berkshire to enable a comparison of well-being approaches in public and private organisations (for a comparison with the organisation in Study 2). In contrast to the emergency services organisation in that study, the car manufacturer did not offer a well-being intervention but had several well-being services in place, such as a helpline, benefits, and a professional skills training programme.

This research collaboration seemed promising due to months of preparation together with the organisation, but it did not go forward. The failure probably stemmed from the pressure the HR department was under at the same time to update their pension scheme that used up time resources of the whole HR department. Initially, the car manufacturer was very interested in taking part in the research project. As early as the first meeting with the HR director, where I explained the research questions and what kind of data I would like to collect, he made concrete plans about which line managers should be interviewed and whom to among the HR managers. The HR director said that line managers would probably talk about occupational health when asked to talk about well-being. He suggested asking more prompting questions, as people would not know what well-being was. He also suggested making contact with their external service providers, such as the helpline, occupational health, and training providers, to interview them about what well-being meant and their experiences with the car manufacturer. The HR director was interested in the interviews with line managers and staff in order to gain feedback on HR initiatives and whether they were seen to have added value or to have had an impact on staff.

After the failure of this research project, I was introduced to the HR director of a small public service organisation in London in July 2011. The organisation was

interested in learning from my research and in seeing how their well-being strategy could be improved. They had entered the ‘Times Top 100 Best Companies to Work For’ ranking and had also been awarded an Investors in People Silver Award. A meeting was held in September 2011. The HR directors saw the aim of the research collaboration as to strengthen the well-being side of the company so that they could rise up the ‘Times Top 100 Best Companies to Work For’ ranking, especially in the well-being category. A questionnaire was drafted and amendments discussed. The questionnaire asked whether the well-being of their staff was high, in which areas, and whether the well-being initiatives were appreciated by staff; whether they thought they had an impact on their well-being; and what other well-being measures they would like. After several e-mails and calls to the HR director with no response, and a final e-mail in January 2012 to ask whether there was still interest, communication was not continued. Possible reasons for the shutdown in communication are hard to determine; there were no personnel changes and it cannot have been due to the quality of the questionnaire, as they indicated that they were happy with it. Maybe the questionnaire or the timing of the questionnaire no longer served their purpose of increasing their position in the ranking.

How can Well-Being be achieved?

The presentations on well-being interventions I attended at the Work and Wellbeing Conference at the University of Plymouth included talks on gym membership and exercise programmes. One organisation talked about health and safety when presenting their well-being intervention. A general presentation on work and well-being was given by Dame Carol Black. She motivated practitioners to introduce well-being intervention by highlighting the positive links between health and work and the

impact of ill-health on family, economic, and wider social goals. From these presentations I concluded that organisations see well-being as important as it keeps up the productivity of the workforce. It seems that organisations see ways of improving or maintaining well-being mainly in terms of investing in the physical health of the employees by offering exercise schemes. It also became clear from presentations at a conference at the University of Lund, Sweden (14 April 2011), where attendants were academic researchers and PhD students, mainly from business schools but including some sociologists, that it is becoming increasingly difficult to draw the line between work and personal life and that the individual is indeed still seen as a human resource to be drawn on. One presentation highlighted a case where well-being interventions were implemented by an organisation on the basis that someone who is sick is unable to work and be productive.

One workshop on well-being in the public sector at the practitioner conference at the University of Plymouth stayed on my mind for some time. The topic was the introduction of Health and Safety Executive (HSE) Management Standards for work-related stress (Health and Safety Executive, 2007) and was accompanied by a discussion of how the public sector could introduce well-being interventions. A lot of time was spent discussing the probability that well-being interventions would be perceived negatively by the public and the media. It was argued that the public and media would say that public organisations were spending money to help their staff ‘have a nicer day’ (in the words of a participant) while cutting spending on areas affecting the public. This was an interesting point that I reflected upon especially in the context of Study 2. What is the relevance and priority of well-being in times of austerity measures when the public sector is especially hard hit? But the phrase ‘having a nicer day’ also indicates to me that well-being might be seen by some as

something that exceeds a ‘neutral’ state and is therefore not necessary for working life. Feeling happy rather than all right (neutral state) might not be seen as necessary, especially in tough times, when money is mainly needed to keep people in their jobs, however stressful those jobs might be.

At the Work and Wellbeing Conference at the University of Plymouth, I also had a conversation with someone from a small IT company that mainly employed young men. She told me about her surprise that her employees were not interested in the well-being scheme that had been developed for them. Also, when asked how it could be changed, the employees would not give feedback. Among other exercise classes, the scheme offered yoga but it seems that this was not of interest to these young IT workers. This experience was interesting as it highlighted the importance of context for the effectiveness of well-being interventions (Biron, 2012), which is also shown in Study 2. However, it is not just about what well-being means to employees in a certain context (as in Study 2) but also whether their identity is tied to a certain activity. In this case, providing gym membership might have been more fitting with the masculine identity of the employees. Resources in terms of time or money could also have been offered alternatively and the employees could have chosen for themselves how they would like to improve their physical fitness.

Apart from attending conferences, I had the opportunity to evaluate a well-being intervention even though not part of this PhD. The organisation that took part in the research of Study 2 was interested in a question about how the well-being intervention it conducted for call centre staff was perceived by them. A questionnaire study was therefore conducted with all call centre staff and supervisors (N = 400). The questionnaire asked about components and antecedents of workplace well-being and asked employees to evaluate the well-being intervention. The response

rate was very low. Seventy-eight participants opened the questionnaire link, 42 continued past the first page, and 18 filled in most items. This low response rate might reflect how employees perceived their roles within the organisation (detached management, not being listened to about what really matters to their well-being) and the usefulness of the well-being intervention. Staff might not have seen the intervention as relevant to them and therefore did not fill in the questionnaire.

In the focus groups for Study 2 I asked for specific reasons for the low response rate to this questionnaire. Most claimed they had not received it and further showed a lack of willingness to fill it in. Two reasons were given: first, the call centre staff stated that they had too much to do and could not find the time to fill in the questionnaire; second, they thought nothing would come of it. The intervention was seen as irrelevant to their daily working life. In their experience, the issues that really mattered to their well-being (a caring management and providing good working conditions by having functioning equipment, for example) were never addressed. Furthermore, some respondents stated that they found it hard to implement recommendations by the wellness programme in their daily working life:

The problem with the job is that we don't get any time to go to the gym. There's plenty of people up HQ who have got time to go Pilates and Body Combat and swimming and go to the weights. (...) So they talk about these things and "Oh you keep yo urself fit and that." But the job does never give you any time to do it. (Emergency Service Worker)

Based on the experience of initiating research collaborations with organisations in the public and private sectors, I can conclude that organisations are somewhat interested in well-being and approach it in different ways, either via interventions or through providing different services to their employees, such as

exercise classes and hotlines. The motivations to include well-being in the agenda of the organisation were not made overt during the conversations with the organisation. However, based on my reading of CIPD (2001) and Institute of Directors (2006) publications and my conference attendance I would suggest that the motivation seemed to be to avoid loss of performance, absence through sickness, and the resulting costs for the company. Well-being is not at the top of the agenda, however, as the unsuccessful research collaborations discussed above suggest. Furthermore, there are challenges in conducting well-being programmes in terms of acceptance by staff. It became apparent to me that many organisations focus on distal influences on well-being, such as healthy eating and fitness. The workplace well-being literature, however, focuses mostly on workplace characteristics as antecedents of workplace well-being. A possible reason for a focus on well-being in terms of healthy behaviour might be that this notion of well-being is easy to measure and easy to manage and might be recognised by many as an objective measure.

I gained the important insight that the way well-being is described and researched (in academic and practitioner circles) has a strong influence on the relevance of the concept for people's work-life experience and whether or not interventions actually make a difference. Even though organisations might invest in well-being on the basis of financial and performance-related advantages, investing in people's well-being at work should be not only be a means to an end:

> *It's time we admitted that there's more to life than money, and it's time we focused not just on GDP, but on GWB – general well-being. Well-being can't be measured by money or traded in markets. It can't be required by law or delivered by government. It's about the beauty of our surroundings, the quality of our culture, and above all the strength of our relationships. Improving our*

society's sense of well-being is, I believe, the central political challenge of our time. (British Politician, May 2006)

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Exploring the Concept of Individual Workplace Well-Being –

What Does it Mean to Have Workplace Well-Being and

What is the Role of Identity-Related Resources in Achieving it?

PART 2 of 2 - Appendices

Submitted by Caroline Rook

to the University of Exeter

as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Leadership Studies

in July 2013

I certify that all material in this thesis which is not my own work has been identified and that no material has previously been submitted and approved for the award of a degree by this or any other university.

Caroline Rook

……

Caroline Rook

Appendix A. Study 1 (Chapter 4)

A1. Questionnaire

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Questionnaire "Well-being at work"

The following questions ask about well-being at your workplace.
Please answer all questions in respect to your own understanding of well-being.
Also, as your responses refer to well-being in relation to your own work, it is helpful to us to also have a brief description of the type of workplace you are in.

A Please indicate below, the type of organisation you work for and the position that you hold.

1) Type of organisation: (Please tick the appropriate box.)

☐ Public ☐ Private ☐ Private ☐ NGO ☐ Other, please specify: _____

2) Your position: (Please tick the appropriate box.)

☐ Managing Director ☐ Self-employed

☐ Senior Management Team ☐ Consultant

☐ Middle Management ☐ Other, please specify: _____

☐ Junior Management

3) Size of your team (that you have direct responsibility for): _____
(For consultants: Please put N/A.)

B The following two questions ask you about the relative importance of well-being at work.

1) To what extent is attention paid to well-being in your organisation? (Please tick the box which best describes your answer.)

not at all	----------	half of the time	----------	all the time
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2) Thinking about your answer to question one, do you think the attention paid to well-being in your organisation is ... (Please tick the appropriate box.)
(If you are a consultant, please answer with respect to the workplaces that you engage with.)

not enough	----------	just right	----------	too much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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C The next two questions ask about your experience of high well-being at work.

1) In general, how often do you experience high well-being at work? (Please tick the appropriate box.)

not at all			half of the time			all the time
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2) Imagine you are at work and you have high well-being.

- How do you know you're in a period of high well-being?

_____

_____

_____

- What impact does high well-being have on your work?

_____

_____

_____

D The next two questions ask about your experience of low well-being at work.

1) How often do you experience low well-being at work? (Please tick the appropriate box.)

not at all			half of the time			all the time
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2) Imagine you are at work and you have low well-being.

- How do you know you're in a period of low well-being?

_____

_____

_____

- What impact does low well-being have on your work?

_____

_____

_____

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E The following three questions ask about your team's high well-being. (If it is not easy to rate all the members of your team, try and think about a few team members.)

1) In general, how often do you think your team has high well-being? (Please tick the appropriate box.)

not at all			half of the time			all the time
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2) To what extent do you think well-being is important for those in your team? (Please tick the appropriate box.)

not at all			moderately important			very much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3) Imagine you are at work and your team has high well-being.

- What are the indicators for you that those in your team have high well-being?

_____

_____

_____

- What impact does high well-being have on their work?

_____

_____

_____

F The next two questions now ask you about your team's low well-being at work.

1) In general, how often do you think those in your team have low well-being? Please tick the appropriate box.

not at all			half of the time			all the time
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2) Imagine you are at work and your team has low well-being.

- What are the indicators for you that those in your team have low well-being?

_____

_____

_____

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- What impact does low well-being have on their work?

_____

_____

_____

G Finally, it would be helpful for us if you could provide some demographic information about yourself so that we can categorise the data.

1) You are: ☐ male ☐ female

2) Your age: ☐ under 30 ☐ 30 – 45 ☐ 46 – 55 ☐ 56 – 65 ☐ over 66

_____

Is there anything about well-being at work that you would like to add to help us explore the issue further?

_____

_____

_____

If you have any other thoughts which were stimulated by this questionnaire, we would really appreciate if you would briefly note them down.

_____

_____

_____

Many thanks for your participation!

Please pick up an information sheet available at the drop off point for the questionnaires on your way out of the room.

If you would like a summary of our findings please put your business card in the box provided next to the drop-off point for the questionnaire on your way out. We will be pleased to send you a summary when the results have been analysed.

A2. Participation Information Sheet

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Participant Information Sheet
- Leadership and Well-being -

Researcher
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Purpose of Study

The questionnaire you just filled in is part of a three year PhD research project entitled "Leadership and Well-being". We are primarily interested in exploring the following questions:

1. What is well-being?
2. What is the importance of well-being in the workplace?
3. What factors impact on leaders' well-being?
4. What is the impact of leaders' wellbeing on their performance and their followers' performance and well-being?
5. What do leaders and organisations do (and what can they do) to enhance their own well-being and the well-being of others?

What will happen to the information you gave

All information collected in this survey is confidential and will be stored in a secure place. As you don't write your name down on it, it won't be possible to relate the answers back to you. The data collected will be compared with results from other scientific studies in order to gain a current understanding of how well-being at work is defined and what is perceived as crucial influencing factors. Your insights will be used to develop interview material that will be utilised in a future study.

Thank you very much for your time and participation!

If you would like a summary of our findings please put your business card in the box provided next to the drop-off point for the questionnaire on your way out.

A3. Codebook

Codebook Study 1

C21 indicators of own high well-being

Category	Description	Examples
Cognitive	Mental processes that include attention, memory, solving problems, making decision etc.	Creativity, flow, motivation, stimulated
Mind and body	Processes that include mental and physical aspects	Energised, centred, feel well, vitality
Emotional	States that include feelings, mood, temperament, etc.	Present, excited, content, enjoyment, balanced, confident, relaxed
Social	Processes that include others	Interaction, communication, exchange/help, relatedness
Body	Physical symptoms	not tired, fit healthy,
Task related	Processes, feelings etc. that relate directly to work tasks	Enjoyable, everything seems possible, rich
Other	Any processes which cannot be aligned to other categories	Achievement/success, connected/present, in control, meaningful, open, take risks

C22 impact of own high well-being on work

Category	Description	Examples
Cognitive	Mental processes that include attention, memory, solving problems, making decision etc.	Motivation, content, pride/confidence in skills, resilience, mindfulness, flow
Emotional	States that include feelings, mood, temperament, etc.	Less fear of failure, positivity
Social	Processes that include others	Teamwork/collaboration, less conforming
Performance	Descriptions which relate to work performance	Quality, quantity, creativity, scope/vision
Task Related	Processes, feelings etc. that relate directly to work tasks	Get distracted, resilience to set backs
Other	Any processes which cannot be aligned to other categories	Positive work-life spill-over, stay longer at work

D21 indicators of low well-being

Category	Description	Examples
Cognitive	Mental processes that include attention, memory, solving problems, making decision etc.	Concentration, apathy, motivation, tiredness, disengagement
Mind and body	Processes that include mental and physical aspects	Self-questioning, energy, stress, exhausted, rushed, pressure, dysfunctioning, not connected with feelings, lack of mindfulness
Emotional	States that include feelings, mood, temperament, etc.	Irritation, frustration, anger, sad, not belonging/disconnected, rushed, tightness
Social	Processes that include others	Interaction, tolerance, unnoticed/undervalued
Body	Physical symptoms	Libido low, in pain
Task related	Processes, feelings etc. that relate directly to work tasks	Unproductive, slow, feels like a drag
Other	Any processes which cannot be aligned to other categories	Don't sleep, don't want to be there

D22 impact of own low well-being on work

Category	Description	Examples
Cognitive	Mental processes that include attention, memory, solving problems, making decision etc.	Less satisfied/low pleasure, can't focus, prioritising/efficiency low, not motivated/energy, less patient, distractions, less open
Emotional	States that include feelings, mood, temperament, etc.	Bad mood, drudgery, vulnerable
Social	Processes that include others	Relationships decrease, low cooperation
Performance	Descriptions which relate to work performance	Aiming for average, less quantity, low quality, mistakes, less productive (general), no attention for detail, procrastination
Task related	Processes, feelings etc. that relate directly to work tasks	Accpet lower achievement, slow
Other	Any processes which cannot be aligned to other categories	Stop working, implications for private life and health

E21 indicators of team's high well-being

Category	Description	Examples
Cognitive	Mental processes that include attention, memory, solving problems, making decision etc.	Creativity, flow, motivation, stimulated
Mind and body	Processes that include mental and physical aspects	Energised, centred, feel well, vitality
Emotional	States that include feelings, mood, temperament, etc.	Present, excited, content, enjoyment, balanced, confident, relaxed
Social	Processes that include others	Interaction, communication, exchange/help, relatedness
Body	Physical symptoms	not tired, fit healthy,
Task related	Processes, feelings etc. that relate directly to work tasks	Enjoyable, everything seems possible, rich
Other	Any processes which cannot be aligned to other categories	Achievement/success, connected/present, in control, meaningful, open, take risks

E22 impact of team's high well-being on their work

Category	Description	Examples
Cognitive	Mental processes that include attention, memory, solving problems, making decision etc.	Motivation, content, pride/confidence in skills, resilience, mindfulness, flow
Emotional	States that include feelings, mood, temperament, etc.	Less fear of failure, positivity
Social	Processes that include others	Teamwork/collaboration, less conforming
Performance	Descriptions which relate to work performance	Quality, quantity, creativity, scope/vision
Task Related	Processes, feelings etc. that relate directly to work tasks	Get distracted, resilience to set backs
Other	Any processes which cannot be aligned to other categories	Positive work-life spill-over, stay longer at work

F21 indicators of team's low well-being

Category	Description	Examples
Cognitive	Mental processes that include attention, memory, solving problems, making decision etc.	Concentration, apathy, motivation, tiredness, disengagement
Mind and body	Processes that include mental and physical aspects	Self-questioning, energy, stress, exhausted, rushed, pressure, dysfunctioning, not connected with feelings, lack of mindfulness
Emotional	States that include feelings, mood, temperament, etc.	Irritation, frustration, anger, sad, not belonging/disconnected, rushed, tightness
Social	Processes that include others	Interaction, tolerance, unnoticed/undervalued
Body	Physical symptoms	Libido low, in pain
Task related	Processes, feelings etc. that relate directly to work tasks	Unproductive, slow, feels like a drag
Other	Any processes which cannot be aligned to other categories	Don't sleep, don't want to be there

F22 impact of team's low well-being on their work

Category	Description	Examples
Cognitive	Mental processes that include attention, memory, solving problems, making decision etc.	Less satisfied/low pleasure, can't focus, prioritising/efficiency low, not motivated/energy, less patient, distractions, less open
Emotional	States that include feelings, mood, temperament, etc.	Bad mood, drudgery, vulnerable
Social	Processes that include others	Relationships decrease, low cooperation
performance	Descriptions which relate to work performance	Aiming for average, less quantity, low quality, mistakes, less productive (general), no attention for detail, procrastination
Task related	Processes, feelings etc. that relate directly to work tasks	Accept lower achievement, slow
Health	Symptoms related to health	Sickness
Other	Any processes which cannot be aligned to other categories	Stop working, implications for private life and health

Theoretical Components of Well-Being

Well-being concept	Dimensions	Components
Vigour (Shirom, 2011)	Physical vitality	Physical strength, Vigorous, Vitality
	Cognitive liveliness	Thinking rapidly, Innovative, Creative
	Emotional energy	Warmth to others, Sensitive to other's needs, Investing emotionally in others, Being sympathetic to others
Work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001)	Vigour	Bursting with energy, Feeling capable, Feeling like going to work when getting up in the morning
	Dedication	Enthusiastic, Inspired by work, Proud of work
	Absorption	Being happy when working intensely, \Immersed in work, Getting carried away in work
Flow (Csíkszentmihályi, 1992)		Feeling of energised focus Feeling immersed Experiencing success in the process of the activity
Hedonic well-being (Diener, 1984; Warr, 2009)	Affect	Displeasure – pleasure, Anxiety – comfort, Depression – enthusiasm
	Satisfaction	Life satisfaction
Eudaimonic well-being (Ryff, 1998; Diener, 2009)	Relationships	Having supportive and rewarding relationships, Contributing to the well-being of others, Having positive relations with others, Being respected
	Functioning in one's environment	Optimal functioning, Experiencing meaning and purpose, Being engaged and interested, Experiencing environmental mastery
	Attitude towards oneself	Having self-acceptance, Having optimism
	Self-development	Experiencing personal growth

A4. Detailed Initial Coding Results for Description of High own Well-Being (Question C2)

Category	Subcategory	Example	Frequency
Cognitive	Concentration	Focused	2
	Motivation	Feel motivated	6
	Stimulated, positively challenged	Everything seems possible, positively stretched	5
	Feel positive, optimistic	Same as subcategory description	3
	Absorption	Lost sense of time	1
	Feeling of accomplishment	Same as subcategory description	2
	Creativity	Sense of creativity	5
Mind /body	Energy	Feel energised	15
	Centred	Sense of being centred, still centre	2
	Feel well	Same as subcategory description	2
	Vitality	Vitality, feel alive	2
	Flow	Feeling of flow, feeling in the zone, being in the groove	5
	Connected	Feel connected with the world	2
Emotional	Excited	Same as subcategory description	2
	Content	Happy, warm emotional feeling, content	14
	Enjoyment	Enjoyment & fun	1
	Confident	Same as subcategory description	4
	Relaxed	Same as subcategory description	1
	Valued	Feel valued and useful	1
	Enthusiastic	Feel elevated	1
	Satisfied	Same as subcategory description	2
Social	Interaction	Interact with colleagues, extraversion	4
	Communication	Communication and chatty	3
	Exchange	Responsive to others, interaction and reaction	3
	Relatedness	Relatedness, compassion	2
	Supportive towards others	Support others, contribute to others success	2
	Respect from and influence over others	Will be listened to attentively and with respect; will have the opportunity to influence	1
	People appear content	Fewer complaint, fewer nastiness	2
Body	Physical symptoms	Absence of negative physical symptoms	1
	Not tired	Same as subcategory description	1
	Fit, healthy	Feeling good with own body, feeling fit, feeling healthy	3
Task related	Enjoyable	High level of job satisfaction, work is enjoyable	2
	Rich	Work is rich	1
	Engaged	Fully engaged with work, feeling engaged	3
	Productive	Things get done easily, capacity to deliver more, growth	3
	Contribution	Contribution to work, others success	4
	Gets done easily	Solution found easily, work gets done easily	1
		Same as subcategory description	
other	Success	Same as subcategory description	1
	In control	Same as subcategory description	1
	Not stressed	Same as subcategory description	2
	Low absenteeism	Same as subcategory description	1
	Want to be at work	Same as subcategory description	1
	Purpose	Clear purpose, sense of purpose	2
	Work-life balance	Work and life fit together, able to make decisions about balance	4
	Open	Same as subcategory description	1
	Things go well	Same as subcategory description	1

A5. Domains Referred to by Participants when Describing Own High and Low Well-Being

	Cognitive	Emotional	Mind/body	Body	Social	Task	Other	Frequency:
Participant 1								
High well-being					x			1
Low well-being								-
Participant 10								
High well-being			x					1
Low well-being	x	x						2
Participant 11								
High well-being	x	x	x			x		4
Low well-being			x			x		2
Participant 13								
High well-being						x		1
Low well-being			x			x		2
Participant 14								
High well-being			x	x				2
Low well-being	x		x					2
Participant 15								
High well-being			x	x				2
Low well-being		x						1
Participant 16								
High well-being		x						1
Low well-being		x	x					2
Participant 17								
High well-being		x	x		x			3
Low well-being			x		x			2
Participant 18								
High well-being	x				x	x		3
Low well-being	x				x	x		3
Participant 19								
High well-being		x	x				x	3
Low well-being	x	x	x					3
Participant 20								
High well-being	x		x					2
Low well-being							x	1
Participant 21								
High well-being	x	x						2
Low well-being	x	x						2
Participant 22								
High well-being			x					1
Low well-being		x						1
Participant 25								
High well-being	x			x				2
Low well-being			x					1
Participant 27								
High well-being	x	x			x		x	4
Low well-being	x	x	x					3
Participant 28								
High well-being					x			1
Low well-being	x		x				x	3
Participant 29								
High well-being			x					1
Low well-being		x					x	2
Participant 30								
High well-being			x			x		2
Low well-being			x					1
Participant 31								
High well-being							x	1
Low well-being		x	x					2
Participant 32								
High well-being		x	x					2
Low well-being		x			x			2
Participant 33								
High well-being	x	x						2
Low well-being		x	x			x	x	4
Participant 36								
High well-being			x					1
Low well-being	x				x			2
Participant 37								
High well-being		x	x		X			3
Low well-being							x	1
Participant 38								
High well-being		x			x			2
Low well-being					x		x	2
Participant 39								
High well-being	x	x			x	x		4
Low well-being		x	x					2
Participant 4								
High well-being	x		x	x	x			4
Low well-being	x	x	x	x				4
Participant 40								
High well-being	x		x					2
Low well-being	x	x	x					3
Participant 41								
High well-being					x	x		2
Low well-being			x		x			2
Participant 42								
High well-being		x				x	x	3
Low well-being							x	1
Participant 43								
High well-being	x		x					2
Low well-being		x	x		x		x	4
Participant 44								
High well-being		x						1
Low well-being	x				x			2
Participant 45								
High well-being				x	x	x		3
Low well-being	x		x		x			3
Participant 46								
High well-being							x	1
Low well-being	x	x				x		3
Participant 47								
High well-being	x		x			x		3
Low well-being	x	x	x			x		4
Participant 48								
High well-being		x			x		x	3
Low well-being	x		x			x		3
Participant 49								
High well-being	x		x				x	3
Low well-being			x			x		2
Participant 5								
High well-being	x	x	x					3
Low well-being			x				x	3
Participant 50								
High well-being		x		x				2
Low well-being	x							2
Participant 6								
High well-being	x				x	x	x	1
Low well-being	x		x		x			4
Participant 7								
High well-being	x	x	x					3
Low well-being	x	x	x	x				3
Participant 8								
High well-being	x	x						4
Low well-being	x		x		x			2
Participant 9								
High well-being	x	x	x					3
Low well-being	x		x					3
High well-being (frequency & percentage)	18 42.86%	19 45.24%	21 50%	6 14.28%	13 30.95%	10 23.81%	8 19.05%	2
Low well-being (frequency & percentage)	20 47.62%	18 42.86%	26 61.90%	2 4.76%	11 26.19%	8 19.04%	9 21.43%	

A6. Number of Domains Mentioned Together in Descriptions of Own Well-Being

Number of domains mentioned together in descriptions of high own well-being

Number of domains mentioned together	Frequency	Percentage
1 (mentioned by itself)	11/42	26.19%
2	14/42	33.33%
3	12/42	28.57%
4	5/42	11.90%

Number of domains mentioned together in descriptions of low own well-being (one participant gave no description of their own low well-being)

Number of domains mentioned together	Frequency	Percentage
1 (mentioned by itself)	8/41	19.51%
2	18/41	43.90%
3	10/41	24.39%
4	5/41	12.19%

A7. Detailed Initial Coding Results for Description of Low own Well-Being (Question D2)

Category	Subcategory	Example	Frequency
Cognitive	Concentration	Loss of concentration, poor concentration	9
	Motivation	Unwillingness, demotivation	7
	Tiredness	Same as subcategory description	6
	Disengagement	Same as subcategory description	4
	Boredom	Same as subcategory description	1
	Awareness	Lack of awareness, lack of attention to detail	2
	Creativity	Less creative, poor innovation	4
Mind/body	Energy	Apathy, lethargy, low energy levels	10
	Stress	Same as subcategory description	8
	Exhaustion	Same as subcategory description	1
	Rushed	Same as subcategory description	1
	Pressure	Same as subcategory description	1
	Dysfunctionality	Not functioning well	2
	Loss of meaning	Questioning value of what one is doing, is it worth continuing, loss of meaning, questioning life, lacking conviction	7
	Self-questioning	Self-questioning, belief in self	2
	Confusion	Same as subcategory description	2
	Not centred	Same as subcategory description	1
Emotional	Irritation	Same as subcategory description	5
	Frustration	Same as subcategory description	6
	Anger	Same as subcategory description	3
	Depressed	Same as subcategory description	3
	Disconnected	Same as subcategory description	3
	Tightness	Less spacious, feeling imprisoned	2
	Fear	Same as subcategory description	2
	Sadness	Same as subcategory description	3
	Uncomfortable	Same as subcategory description	1
Social	Interaction	Less interactive, poor listening	2
	Tolerance	Less tolerant of people, more critical of others	2
	Undervalued	Same as subcategory description	2
	Not belonging	Feel like I do not belong, feel unnoticed	2
	Complaints	Others complain, others blame	2
	Better behaviour at home		1
	Effort needed	Effort needed to meet needs of others	1
	Constructive feedback lowers own morale		1
	Willingness to help others		1
Body	Libido	Poor libido	1
	Pain	In pain	1
	Ill	Same as subcategory description	1
Task related	No thriving	Unwillingness to perform above normal expectations	1
	Poor output	Unproductive, under-performing	3
	Lack of direction	Same as subcategory description	1
	Drudgery	Everything takes a long time, drag	2
	Can't prioritise	Same as subcategory description	1
Other	Don't sleep	Same as subcategory description	1
	Cold	Same as subcategory description	1
	Reluctant to be there	Same as subcategory description	1
	Needs don't get considered	Same as subcategory description	1
	Already take action against it	Same as subcategory description	1
	Opposite of high well-being	Same as subcategory description	1
	Others don't treat me well	Same as subcategory description	2

A8. Detailed Initial Coding Results for Description of Team's High Well-Being (Question E2)

Category	Subcategory	Example	Frequency
Task related	Take own responsibility	Same as subcategory description	3
	Proactive	Same as subcategory description	4
	Good work	High productivity, need little intervention	5
	Engaged	Same as subcategory description	1
	Higher performance	Higher output, productive, get lots of jobs done	5
	Flow	Same as subcategory description	2
Cognitive	Self-esteem	Same as subcategory description	1
	Energy	Same as subcategory description	3
	Critical	Healthy suspicion	1
	Creativity	New ideas, innovation	6
	Spontaneity	Same as subcategory description	1
	Engagement	Same as subcategory description	2
	Focus	Same as subcategory description	1
Other	Look well	Same as subcategory description	1
	as own well-being	Same as subcategory description	1
Emotional	Enthusiastic	Same as subcategory description	4
	Motivated	Eager, aspiration, motivation, work ethic	7
	Happy	Pleasant, buzz, laughter, happy, smile	9
	Hope	Same as subcategory description	1
	Positive	Optimism	2
	Confident	Same as subcategory description	1
	Excited	Same as subcategory description	1
	Relaxed	Same as subcategory description	1
	Enjoyment	Enjoyment, fun	5
	Humour	Same as subcategory description	1
Social	Trust	Same as subcategory description	3
	Cooperation	Same as subcategory description	13
	Interaction	Interaction, open	2
	Diversity in views, challenge each other	Different views, good challenging arguments	2
	Communication	Communicative, talk about home too, ideas shared, matters talked about and dealt with	7
	Good climate	Collective buzz, morale, collegial approach	3
	Respect	Respect, interest in each other as people	2
	Honesty	Same as subcategory description	1
	Openness	Same as subcategory description	1
	Loyalty	Same as subcategory description	1

A9. Detailed Initial Coding Results for Description of Team's Low Well-Being (Question F2)

Category	Subcategory	Example	Frequency
Attitudes	Defensiveness	Same as subcategory description	1
	Cynicism	Same as subcategory description	1
	Being not recognised	Same as subcategory description	1
Social	Isolated	Isolated, disconnected	4
	Jibes	Same as subcategory description	1
	No relationships	Loss of relationship	1
	Lack of communication	Uncommunicative, quiet	5
	Conflict	Conflict, unspoken issues, hurt each other, subtle accusations, arguments, corrosive corridor conversations	7
	Misalignment	Misalignment, cliques	3
	Unconstructive challenges	Same as subcategory description	1
	Mistrust	Same as subcategory description	1
	Poor followership	Same as subcategory description	1
	Hide feelings	Same as subcategory description	1
	Need reassurance and Support	Same as subcategory description	2
	Less interaction	Same as subcategory description	1
Cognitive	Energy	Less or low energy	2
	Tired	Tired, exhaustion	3
	Not concentrating	Less focused, preoccupied, absent minded, easily distracted	4
Emotional	Feeling uncomfortable	Same as subcategory description	1
	Sad	Same as subcategory description	2
	Stress	Same as subcategory description	5
	Fearful	Same as subcategory description	1
	Angry	Same as subcategory description	2
	Paranoid	Same as subcategory description	1
Other	Fixation on food	Same as subcategory description	1
	Same as subcategory description as own	Same as subcategory description	3
Health	More sickness absence	Same as subcategory description	2
	Don't look well	Same as subcategory description	1
Work	Only do the necessary	Same as subcategory description	3
	Unproductive	Same as subcategory description	3
	Passive	Same as subcategory description	2
	Absenteeism	Same as subcategory description	1
	Less work hours	Same as subcategory description	1
	Find work difficult	Same as subcategory description	1

A10. ANOVA Analyses

A10.1 Age differences in experiencing high well-being

Syntax

```
ONEWAY c1_high BY g2_age
  /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES
  /MISSING ANALYSIS.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptives

How often do you experience high well-being at work?

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
30 - 45	10	5.00	1.054	.333	4.25	5.75	3	6
46 - 55	21	4.86	1.352	.295	4.24	5.47	2	7
56 - 65	10	4.50	1.434	.453	3.47	5.53	2	6
over 66	2	5.00	.000	.000	5.00	5.00	5	5
Total	43	4.81	1.258	.192	4.43	5.20	2	7

ANOVA

How often do you experience high well-being at work?

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.440	3	.480	.288	.834
Within Groups	65.071	39	1.668		
Total	66.512	42			

A10.2 Gender differences in experiencing high well-being

Syntax

```
ONEWAY c1_high BY g1_gend
  /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES
  /MISSING ANALYSIS.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptives

How often do you experience high well-being at work?

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
male	30	4.87	1.137	.208	4.44	5.29	2	6
female	11	5.00	1.414	.426	4.05	5.95	2	7
99	2	3.00	1.414	1.000	-9.71	15.71	2	4
Total	43	4.81	1.258	.192	4.43	5.20	2	7

ANOVA

How often do you experience high well-being at work?

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.045	2	3.522	2.369	.107
Within Groups	59.467	40	1.487		
Total	66.512	42			

A10.3 Gender differences in experiencing low well-being

Syntax

```
ONEWAY d1_low BY g1_gend
  /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES
  /MISSING ANALYSIS.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptives

How often do you experience low well-being at work?

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
male	29	2.76	1.023	.190	2.37	3.15	1	5
female	11	2.91	1.375	.415	1.99	3.83	1	5
99	2	2.50	.707	.500	-3.85	8.85	2	3
Total	42	2.79	1.094	.169	2.44	3.13	1	5

ANOVA

How often do you experience low well-being at work?

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.352	2	.176	.141	.869
Within Groups	48.719	39	1.249		
Total	49.071	41			

A10.4 Age differences in experiencing low well-being

Syntax

```
ONEWAY d1_low BY g2_age
  /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES
  /MISSING ANALYSIS.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptives

How often do you experience low well-being at work?

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
30 - 45	9	3.00	1.225	.408	2.06	3.94	2	5
46 - 55	21	2.62	1.024	.223	2.15	3.08	1	5
56 - 65	10	3.00	1.247	.394	2.11	3.89	2	5
over 66	2	2.50	.707	.500	-3.85	8.85	2	3
Total	42	2.79	1.094	.169	2.44	3.13	1	5

ANOVA

How often do you experience low well-being at work?

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.619	3	.540	.432	.731
Within Groups	47.452	38	1.249		
Total	49.071	41			

Appendix B. Study 2 (Chapter 5)

B1. Interview Guideline

UNIVERSITY OF EXETER
Centre for Leadership Studies

Consent for Participation

Research Project: Well-being in Organisations

Researcher
Caroline Rook

Academic Supervisors
Dr Inmaculada Adarves-Yorno
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You are invited to take part in this research interview. In the research interview session members of the organisation and the researcher will discuss questions outlined by the researcher.
This document informs you about the research project of which this research interview is part of, why this research interview is being conducted, what will happen in this session, the possible personal impact of participation in this session and benefits from taking part in this research for you. If there is anything you do not understand, please ask the researcher.

Purpose of Study
This study is part of a three year PhD research project entitled "Workplace well-being and influencing factors". This study has been given approval by the University of Exeter Business School Ethics Committee (contact: Dr Emma Bell, 01392 72 4492, Emma.Bell@exeter.ac.uk).

What will happen to the information you provide – Confidentiality & Anonymity
Neither your supervisor nor your organisation will have access to your individual responses. The data collected will be compared with results from other research studies in order to gain a current understanding of how well-being at work is perceived and experienced. Along with results from a literature review of the research literature your insights will be used to develop a comprehensive overview of well-being at work. Reports based on this data collection will not include any data which will allow identifying individuals. If the researcher may wish to quote from this research interview either in presentations or articles a code will be used.

Interview Guideline – Wellness Manager

What is well-being in organisations?

1) Introduction (5 minutes)

☐ I would like to interview you today about well-being in your organisation. This interview will take approximately 60 minutes.

☐ First I would like to talk you through the consent for participation sheet.
The first is a detailed description of the interview. I will briefly outline to you what is written in the sheet. There is more detailed information on the sheet. You can take this sheet away with you and read up after the interview if you want to check something again or need my contact details.
The second sheet outlines the main parts again and is for you to sign and give to me. This is your written consent to take part in this interview.

☐ I will now briefly outline why this interview session is being held, what will happen in this session, the possible personal impact of participation in this session and benefits from taking part in this research for you.

- **Purpose of Study:** This study is part of a three year PhD research project entitled "Workplace well-being and influencing factors".

- **What will happen to the information you provide:** All information collected in this study is confidential. As you do not provide your name in the session your information will stay anonymous. Neither your supervisor nor your organisation will have access to your individual responses. If the researcher may wish to quote from this focus group either in presentations or articles a code will be used.

- **Possible personal impact of participation in this interview:** Views are asked on your personal well-being and the wellness programme carried out at your organisation. Therefore no distress is likely to be caused by taking part in this focus group.

- **Benefits for you to take part in this research:** You will be sent a summary of findings of the research project if requested. If you would like to receive a summary of the research findings please indicate on the bottom of the consent sheet.

- **Proceeding:** Taking part in the interview session should take approximately 60 minutes of your time. The interview will be electronically recorded. I am only recording this session so that I can listen to what you're saying and so that I don't have to take notes. Recording allows me to pay attention to what you say and check things again – I don't want to miss anything you say. The recordings are mine and will not be given to anyone else. A debriefing is done promptly after the focus group session is completed. You will be provided with a participant information sheet with more information. My contact details are also provided on the sheet for a follow-up or further questions you might have.

- **Withdrawal:** No pressure exists to take part in this focus group. You are free to withdraw at any point during the focus group without the need to give any reasons. If you wish to do so, please let me know then and I will stop recording immediately.

☐ If you don't have any further questions please sign the consent sheet and hand it back to me if you are happy to take part in this interview.

☐ Let's start with the interview now. The session will be divided into two parts. In the first part I will invite you to talk about well-being at work in general and in the second part about well-being in the organisation. We will have about 15 minutes for the first part and 40 minutes for the second part.

☐ I will make some notes during the conversations which will help me to remember important issues.

☐ Further, you have agreed to the session being recorded. So I will switch on the recording device now.

☐ Do you have any further questions before we start?

Comments:
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

2) Demographics
Before the start with the interview itself, it would be helpful for me if you could provide some demographic information about yourself so that I can put what you say into context.

☐ I know you are the Wellness Manager [redacted] Can you spend a minute telling me about your role and your job?

Comments:
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

Let's begin with the interview itself. I will ask you questions about the meaning of well-being for you, the role of well-being in your organisation and well-being-practices in your organisation.

3) well-being at work

We have 5 minutes to discuss the following three questions.

	Alternative questions/comments
☐ Let's briefly think about what the term well-being means for you. Just quickly tell me the words which first come into your head. I will write those in the figure.	
☐ Let's have a look what I've written down. Would you change or add anything in the figure?	
☐ Now let's think about what would impact on your well-being at work. Just quickly tell me the words which first come into your head. I will write those in the figure as well.	In case they can't answer: Show them overview (figure page 8) and ask: ☐ Are there any particular important dimensions, factors s for you?
☐ Let's have a look what I've written down. Would you change or add anything in the figure?	☐ What would you add?

☐ I am about to move to the next part of the session. Is there anything you would like to add before we move on?

Comments:
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

4) influences on well-being at work

Now I would like to discuss particular influences on workplace well-being with you. We have 10 minutes to discuss the following four questions.

Can I add to the figure three other possible influences?

☐ First, identification with your team.
Do you see an importance of this for your well-being at work?
In which way?

☐ Now can I add identification with your organisation, [redacted]?
Do you see an importance of this for your well-being at work?
In which way?

☐ Now coming to third and last influence, authenticity.
Let me first explain what I mean by authenticity. It is about 1) knowing oneself, that is, being self-aware of one's strengths, weaknesses, needs, values and aims and 2) it is about being able to be yourself, in this case being yourself at work.
Can you tell me a little about that?
Can you see any relations to your well-being at work? In what way?

☐ Do you think your experience can be generalised across the whole organisation?

Alternative questions/comments

☐ Do you colleagues have an influence on your well-being?

☐ Do other people experience the same as you?

☐ Does how much you identify (e.g. feel a connection with, feel good to be part of) with your organisation or your team influence your well-being levels?

☐ What does authenticity look like for you?
☐ Is your work role or how you behave at work an authentic part of yourself? What implications does this have on your well-being?

☐ I am about to move to the next part of the session. Is there anything you would like to add before we move on?

Comments:
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

5) well-being practices at [redacted]

Now I would like to discuss well-being at [redacted]. We have 20 minutes to discuss the following questions.

	Alternative questions/comments
☐ Based on the figure we drew together, how high are well-being levels at [redacted] on a scale from 1 to 7, with 1 meaning "very low", 4 meaning "medium high" and 7 meaning "very high"?	Refer also to stress if needed
☐ Is well-being measured in your organisation? If so, how?	How is well-being defined in your organisation?
☐ How would you describe what well-being at [redacted] is?	What is the dominant notion of well-being in [redacted] (senior management)?
☐ Which factors from the figure we drew together would you highlight as key issues which have an impact on the well-being levels at [redacted]? Or would you like to add any to the figure?	
☐ What does [redacted] do to maintain or improve their employees' well-being levels?	
☐ Why were those programmes or measures introduced?	
☐ In your eyes, how are those measures perceived by people in the organisation [redacted]?	
☐ Has the approach to well-being changed in the organisation over the last few years?	
☐ Could the existing approach to well-being in your organisation could be improved?	What other programmes or actions or behaviours would you like to see?

☐ I am about to move to the next part of the session. Is there anything you would like to add before we move on?

Comments:
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

6) The Wellness-Programme

Now I would like to discuss the wellness programme in particular. We have 15 minutes to discuss the following questions.

	Alternative questions/comments
☐ Why was the Wellness Programme introduced?	
☐ How did you choose the programme?	How did you choose the provider?
☐ How was the programme rolled out?	How did you "sell it" to supervisors and staff? Ho
☐ How is participation in this programme encouraged/ selected for? What are the participation rates?	
☐ What is your experience with the programme?	
☐ How did supervisors and staff react to it?	
☐ Does the wellness programme have an impact on the participants?	
☐ How do you know that? What are your indicators?	
☐ Was there anything you were surprised about?	
☐ Do you take any measures to make the impact a more lasting one? What do you do in particular?	
☐ How would you compare the Wellness Programme to other well-being initiatives your organisation provides?	
☐ On a on a scale from 1 to 7, with 1 meaning "no priority" and 7 meaning "very high priority", where would you put the Wellness Programme compared to other organisational programs (e.g. succession management)?	

continued on next page

□ We got very few responses for the questionnaire we drafted together, asking supervisors and staff about their well-being and your experience with the wellness programme. Can you think of any reasons for this?

□ In the questionnaire, the responses about the wellness programme were negative. Can you think of reasons for this?

If there is time, go through questionnaire report together and comment on responses:
□ I have brough the questionnaire reposne report with me again. Maybe we can go through this again like last time and you comment on the results?!

Some results from questionnaire:

- only little attention paid to well-being in organisation
- only 50% learned something from programme
- nothing has changed after the programme (due to content of programme, initiation of supervisors and high workload)
- some would like to feel more valued
- some issues like working space, workload should be changed

□ I am about to conclude with the session. Is there anything you would like to add before we move on?
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

7) Concluding (5 minutes)

□ Thank you very much for answering the questions. This was very insightful and helpful for my research.

□ Is there anything about well-being at work I should have asked but didn't?

□ Is there anything which remains unanswered for you?

□ Is there anything you would have liked to say but didn't?

□ Do you have any further questions or comments before we finish with the session?

8) Finish of interview

□ Thank you very much again for taking the time to take part in my research. I will switch the recording device off now and hand you a participation information sheet which will inform you again about the research project.

B2. Consent for Participation Sheet for Focus Group

UNIVERSITY OF EXETER
Centre for Leadership Studies

Consent for Participation

Research Project: Well-being in Organizations

Researcher
Caroline Rook

Academic Supervisors
Dr Inmaculada Adarves-Yorno
Dr Anne O'Brien

Contact
Centre for Leadership Studies
University of Exeter Business School
Rennes Drive
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EX4 4ST

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phone: 01392 72 6113

You are invited to take part in this focus group. In the focus group session members of the organisation and the researcher will discuss questions outlined by the researcher.
This document informs you about the research project of which this focus group is part of, why this focus group session is being held, what will happen in this focus group session, the possible personal impact of participation in this focus group session and benefits from taking part in this research for you. If there is anything you do not understand, please ask the researcher.

Purpose of Study

This study is part of a three year PhD research project entitled "Workplace well-being and influencing factors". This study has been given approval by the University of Exeter Business School Ethics Committee (contact: Dr Emma Bell, 01392 72 4492, Emma.Bell@exeter.ac.uk). The focus group will also be used to get feedback from you about stress and well-being at [redacted] and how the Wellness managers will be able to maintain and improve those.

What will happen to the information you provide – Confidentiality & Anonymity

All information collected in this study is confidential and will be stored in a secure place. As you do not provide your name in the focus group session, it will not be possible to relate the answers back to you. Neither your supervisor nor your organisation will have access to your individual responses. The data collected will be compared with results from other research studies in order to gain a current understanding of how well-being at work is perceived and experienced. Along with results from a literature review of the research literature your insights will be used to develop a comprehensive overview of well-being at work. Reports based on this data collection will not include any data which will allow identifying individuals. If the

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researcher may wish to quote from this focus group either in presentations or articles a code will be used.

Possible personal impact of participation in this focus group

Views are asked on your personal well-being and the wellness programme carried out at your organisation. Therefore no distress is likely to be caused by taking part in this focus group. If the researcher becomes aware of any potential harm to you during the process (such as distress, negative impacts on your career or personal relationships) steps will be taken to reduce the harm. If you feel distressed or become aware of any distress being caused by the focus group session please inform the researcher about this and the focus group session will be stopped.

Benefits for you to take part in this research

In this focus group session you have the opportunity to talk about well-being issues which are important to you and share your thoughts with colleagues. This is a way to get your voice heard. The issues you raise be fed back to the Wellness Manager in order to improve their current measures to improve well-being at [redacted].

You will be sent a summary of findings of the research project if requested. If you would like to receive a summary of the research findings please indicate on the bottom of the consent sheet.

Proceeding

Taking part in the focus group session should take approximately 30 minutes of your time. The focus group session will be electronically recorded. The recording will later be transcribed. Recording allows me to pay attention to what you say and check things again – I don't want to miss anything you say. A debriefing is done promptly after the focus group session is completed. You will be provided with a participant information sheet with more information. My contact details are also provided on the sheet for a follow-up or further questions you might have.

Withdrawal

No pressure exists to take part in this focus group. You are free to withdraw at any point during the study without the need to give any reasons.

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CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE FOCUS GROUP

By signing below, I confirm the following:

- The study's purpose, procedure, impact and possible benefits have been explained to me.
- I agree that the focus group session will be electronically recorded.
- I voluntarily agree to participate in this research study.
- I have been told that I can stop at any time without having to give any reason.
- I agree to allow the researcher to quote from this focus group using codes.
- All of my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
- Other comments: .....

You will receive a signed and dated copy of this consent form.

Name of Participant: Signature: Date:

Caroline Rook

Name of Researcher: Signature: Date:

❑ Please tick here if you would like to be informed of the outcomes of this research.
We require your e-mail address in order to send you the research report:

_____

B3. Participant Information Sheet for Focus Groups and Interviews

UNIVERSITY OF EXETER
Centre for Leadership Studies

Participant Information Sheet - Well-being in Organisations -

Researcher
Caroline Rook

Academic Supervisors
Dr Inmaculada Adarves-Yorno
Dr Anne O'Brien

Contact
Centre for Leadership Studies
University of Exeter Business School
Rennes Drive
Exeter
EX4 4ST

email: cr284@exeter.ac.uk
telephone: 01392 72 6113

Purpose of Study

This study is part of a three year PhD research project entitled "Workplace well-being and influencing factors". We are primarily interested in exploring the following questions:

1. What is well-being?
2. What is the importance of well-being in the workplace?
3. What do leaders and organisations do (and what can they do) to enhance their own well-being and the well-being of others?

The anonymity and confidentiality of your responses is protected

All information collected in this study is confidential and will be stored in a secure place. As you do not provide your name in the focus group, it will not be possible to relate the answers back to you. Neither your supervisor nor your organisation will have access to your individual responses. The data collected will be compared with results from other scientific studies in order to gain a current understanding of how well-being at work is perceived and experienced. Your insights along with results from a literature review of the research literature will be used to develop a comprehensive overview of well-being at work.

Helpful contacts in case of distress or other work related issues

http://careersadvice.direct.gov.uk/helpandadvice/

http://www.supportline.org.uk/problems/stress.php

http://www.nationalbullyinghelpline.co.uk/

Thank you very much for your time and participation!

B4. Focus Group Guideline

Focus Group Guideline - **What is well-being in organisations?**

1) Check-in

i) **formal introduction:** In this focus group we will talk about well-being at [redacted]. This focus group is part of my PhD research project and will also used to get feedback from you about stress and well-being at [redacted] and how we can maintain and improve those. A questionnaire which was distributed a few months ago showed that some people are not very happy with well-being levels in the organisation and also indicated that the Wellness Programme did not address their needs sufficiently. The Wellness Manager [redacted] is genuinely interested in what you have to say and would like to know more about how we can improve your well-being at [redacted]. With this focus group they would like to get a better sense of what you think. It is absolutely confidential what you are saying in this focus group and it will also stay anonymous. I will only give us a summary of what has been said to [redacted]. This focus group session will take approximately 40 minutes.

2) Introduction

☐ First I would like to talk you through the consent for participation. I have given you two sheets of paper.
The first is a detailed description of the focus group. I will briefly outline to you what is written in the sheet. There is more detailed information on the sheet. You can take this sheet away with you and read up after the focus group if you want to check something again or need my contact details.
The second sheet outlines the main parts again and is for you to sign and give to me. This is your written consent to take part in this focus group.

☐ I will now briefly outline why this focus group session is being held, what will happen in this focus group session, the possible personal impact of participation in this focus group session and benefits from taking part in this research for you.

- **Purpose of Study:** This study is part of a three year PhD research project entitled "Workplace well-being and influencing factors". The focus group will also be used to get feedback from you about stress and well-being at [redacted] and how the Wellness managers will be able to maintain and improve those.

- **What will happen to the information you provide:** All information collected in this study is confidential. As you do not provide your name in the focus group session your information will stay anonymous. Neither your supervisor nor your organisation will have access to your individual responses. If the researcher may wish to quote from this focus group either in presentations or articles a code will be used.

- **Possible personal impact of participation in this focus group:** Views are asked on your personal well-being and the wellness programme carried out at your organisation. Therefore no distress is likely to be caused by taking part in this focus group.

- **Benefits for you to take part in this research:** In this focus group session you have the opportunity to talk about well-being issues which are important to you and share your thoughts with colleagues. This is a way to get your voice heard. You will be sent a summary of findings of the research project if requested.

- **Proceeding:** Taking part in the focus group session should take approximately 45 minutes of your time. The focus group session will be electronically recorded. I am only recording this session so that I can listen to what you're saying and so that I don't have to take notes. Recording allows me to pay attention to what you say and check things again – I don't want to miss anything you say. The recordings are mine and will not be given to anyone else. A debriefing is done promptly after the focus group session is completed. You will be provided with a participant information sheet with more information. My contact details are also provided on the sheet for a follow-up or further questions you might have.

- **Withdrawal:** No pressure exists to take part in this focus group. You are free to withdraw at any point during the focus group without the need to give any reasons. If you wish to do so, please let me know then and I will stop recording immediately.

☐ If you don't have any further questions please sign the consent sheet and hand it back to me if you are happy to take part in this focus group.

☐ Let's start with the focus group now. The session will be divided into three parts. I will give you specific times for each part and tell you when we have to move to the next part. I would like to remind you that this is your session, I am facilitating the discussions and I am interested in hearing what you have to say about the topic.

☐ Before we start I also wanted to suggest some ground rules so that this session will be one where people feel safe in and have the opportunity to contribute. Please try not to interrupt each other and be respectful to what each other have to say. Another possibility is to use a talking stick so that people feel comfortable talking and not being interrupted. Please let me know if you prefer this method. We need to respect the people who are not in this session today and therefore, I would like to ask you if you can try to avoid using any names or characteristics which will lead to the identification of an individual. Please let me also remind you that the particularities of the discussions during the session should stay in this room. But of course I do encourage you to personally reflect upon the discussions which take place during this session. Are there any other ground rules you would like to incorporate?

☐ Further, you have agreed to the session being recorded. So I will switch on the recording device now.

informal introduction: (Everyone should sit in circle, without table.) Before we start with the focus group it would be great if we could introduce ourselves to each other and it would also be great if you could describe in your introduction whether you are police staff or a police officer and how you are feeling about being here today with one word.
I would like to emphasise again that it is your session and that I am only here to structure and facilitate the session.

☐ Do you have any further questions before we start?

<u>Comments:</u>
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

3) Definition and influences of well-being at work

I will ask you questions about the meaning of well-being for you. We have 7 minutes to discuss the following two questions. 2 Minutes before we have to finish with this part I will give you a sign.

☐ Let's briefly think about what the term well-being means for you.
Just quickly tell me the words which first come into your head. I will write those in the figure on the flip chart.

☐ Let's have a look what I've written down.
Would you change or add anything in the figure?

☐ Now let's think about what would impact on your well-being at work.
Just quickly tell me the words which first come into your head. I will write those in the figure on the flip chart as well.

☐ Let's have a look what I've written down.
Would you change or add anything in the figure?

Alternative questions/comments
In case they can't answer: Show them overview (**figure page 8**) and ask:
☐ Are there any particular important dimensions, factors s for you?

☐ What would you add?

☐ I am about to move to the next part of the session. Are you happy for me to do so?

Comments:
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

4) Particular influences on well-being at work

Now I would like to discuss some other possible influences on workplace well-being with you. We have 13 minutes to discuss them. Again, 2 Minutes before we have to finish with this part I will give you a sign.

	Alternative questions/comments
Can I add to the figure three other possible influences?	☐ Do you colleagues have an influence on your well-being?
☐ First, identification with your team. Do you see an importance of this for your well-being at work? In which way?	☐ Does how much you identify (e.g. feel a connection with, feel good to be part of) with your organisation or your team influence your well-being levels? ☐ How? Where?) ☐ Do you think other people experience the same as you?
☐ Now can I add identification with your organisation, [redacted]? Do you see an importance of this for your well-being at work? In which way?	
☐ Now coming to third and last influence, authenticity. Let me first explain what I mean by authenticity. It is about 1) knowing oneself, that is, being self-aware of one's strengths, weaknesses, needs, values and aims and 2) it is about being able to be yourself, in this case being yourself at work. Can you tell me a little about that? Can you see any relations to your well-being at work? In what way?	☐ What does authenticity look like for you? ☐ Is your work role or how you behave at work an authentic part of yourself? What implications does this have on your well-being?

☐ I am about to move to the next part of the session. Are you happy for me to do so?

Comments:
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

5) well-being practices at [redacted]

We have 10 minutes to discuss the following questions. Again, 2 Minutes before we have to finish with this part I will give you a sign.

	Alternative questions/comments
☐ Based on the figure we drew together, how high are well-being levels at the [redacted] on a scale from 1 to 7, with 1 meaning "very low", 4 meaning "medium high" and 7 meaning "very high"? Just shout out the number.	Refer also to stress if needed
☐ Which factors from the figure we drew together would you highlight as key issues which have an impact on the well-being levels at the [redacted]? Or would you like to add any to the figure?	
☐ Do the practices of [redacted] to maintain or improve well-being converge with your notions of workplace well-being?	What is the dominant notion of well-being in [redacted] (senior management)?
☐ We got very few responses for a questionnaire asking you about your well-being at work and your experience with the Wellness Programme. Can you think of any reasons for this?	Some results from questionnaire: - only little attention paid to well-being in organisation - only 50% learned something from programme - nothing has changed after the programme (due to content of programme, initiation of supervisors and high workload) - some would like to feel more valued -some issues like working space, workload should be changed How did the programme made you feel?
☐ What would I have to change on the questionnaire (design and delivery method) so that you and your colleagues would fill it in?	
☐ The responses about the wellness programme were negative. Can you think of reasons for this?	
☐ If you have taken part in the Wellness Programme. What was your experience with the programme?	
☐ What other programmes or actions or behaviours would you like to see?	

☐ I am about to conclude the session. Are you happy for me to do so?

Comments:
(When writing comment down say: "Can I just check what you were saying here?"/"So to summarise ...")

6) Concluding

- Thank you very much for answering the questions. This was very insightful and helpful for my research.

- Is there anything about well-being at work which has not been asked but you think should have been?

- Is there anything you would have liked to say but didn't?

- Do you have any further questions or comments before we finish with the session?

- I would also like to know how the session was for you. It would be great if you could share this with us with one or two words.

7) Finish of focus group

- Thank you very much again for taking the time to take part in my research. I will switch the recording device off now and hand you a participation information sheet which will inform you again about the research project. You can also find my contact details on there. Any comments or questions are very much appreciated.

B5. Code Book

CODING PLAN FOCUS GROUPS & INTERVIEWS

DEFINITION WELL-BEING

Let's briefly think about what the term well-being means for you. Just quickly tell me the words which first come into your head.

MENTAL WELL-BEING

Code	Description (theoretical concept or background of concept)	Example
Hedonic Well-being	Here experiences are described which related to the concept of hedonic well-being based on Diener (2009) and Warr (2008).	
satisfaction	Diener (2009)	satisfied with life or job
positive affect	Diener(2009)	positive, happy, joyful, contended, fun
negative affect	Diener (2009)	negative, sad, afraid, angry, frustrated
contentment	Warr (2008)	Code is self-explanatory
anxiety	Warr (2008)	Code is self-explanatory
enthusiasm	Warr (2008)	Code is self-explanatory
depression	Warr (2008)	Code is self-explanatory
pleasure	Warr (2008)	Enjoyment
displeasure	Warr (2008)	Code is self-explanatory
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
Eudaimonic Well-being – optimal functioning	Here experiences are described which related to the concept of eudaimonic well-being based on Ryff (1998) and Diener (2009).	
Optimal functioning		Optimal human functioning
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

Vigour	Here experiences are described which related to the concept of vigour based on Shirom (2005).	
physical vitality	Shirom (2005)	physical strength, vigorous, vitality
cognitive liveliness	Shirom (2005)	think rapidly, new ideas, creative
emotional energy	Shirom (2005)	warmth to others, sensitive to other's needs, investing emotionally in others, being sympathetic to others
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
Engagement	Here experiences are described which related to the concept of engagement by Schaufeli & Bakker (2001).	
vigour	Schaufeli & Bakker (2001)	bursting with energy, feeling capable, feel like going to work when getting up in the morning
dedication	Schaufeli & Bakker (2001)	enthusiastic, inspired by work, proud of work
absorption	Schaufeli & Bakker (2001)	happy when working intensely, immersed in work, get carried away in work
Varied	Here experiences are described which relate to different concepts which are related to well-being.	
feeling balanced	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	code self-explanatory
stress	Karrasek & Theorell (1990)	code self-explanatory

flow	Csikszentmihalyi (1988)	code self-explanatory
mental health	Huppert (2009)	code self-explanatory
coping	Folkman & Lazarus (1990)	code self-explanatory
Other	Code here or choose from category below. Note down the quote and what it means in annotation.	
productive	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	being well, is being productive
holistic	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	a whole, holistic concept or experience
interplay	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	different aspects interact

PHYSICAL WELL-BEING

Code	Description	Example
healthy	General understanding by author	code self-explanatory
Tired or exhausted	General understanding by author	code self-explanatory
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

OTHER

Code here an answer which does not fit in any of the above categories but describes what well-being is or is experienced as. Note down the quote and what it means in annotation.

ANTECEDENTS INFLUENCING WELL-BEING

Now let's think about what would impact on your well-being at work. Just quickly tell me the words which first come into your head.

PERSON-RELATED

Code	Description	Example
extraversion	These factors were put together on basis of well-being research (see Fisher, 2011).	the act, state, or habit of being predominantly concerned with and obtaining gratification from what is outside the self – talkative, enthusiastic etc.
emotional stability	"	Code self-explanatory
intrinsic motivation	"	Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation that is driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself, and exists within the individual rather than relying on any external pressure
self-esteem	"	a person's overall evaluation or appraisal of his or her own worth
EUDAIMONIC WELL-BEING	Here experiences are described which related to the concept of eudaimonic well-being based on Ryff (1998) and Diener (2009).	
meaning and purpose/purpose in life	Diener (2009) & Ryff (1998)	example (Diener, 2009): purposeful and meaningful life; example (Ryff, 1998): aim in life
supportive and rewarding relationships	Diener (2009)	social relationships are supportive and rewarding
engaged and interested	Diener (2009)	engaged and interested in daily activities
Contribute to the well-being of others/	Diener (2009) & Ryff (1998)	example (Diener, 2009):

Positive relations with others		actively contributing to the happiness and well-being of others example (Ryff, 1998): being a giving person, willing to share time with others
competency	Diener (2009) & Ryff (1998)	example (Diener, 2009): competent and capable of activities that are important to oneself example (Ryff, 1998): I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus
self-acceptance	Diener (2009) & Ryff (1998)	example (Diener, 2009): being a good person and living a good life example (Ryff, 1998): liking most aspects of own personality
optimism	Diener (2009)	being optimistic about own future
being respected	Diener (2009)	People respect oneself
environmental mastery	Ryff (1998)	feel in charge of the situation in which one lives in
personal growth	Ryff (1998)	important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world
self-acceptance	Ryff (1998)	liking own personality
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it

		does not fit in the given categories.
OTHER	“	Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

WORK-RELATED

Code	Description	Example
OPPORTUNITY FOR PERSONAL CONTROL	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Employee discretion, decision latitude, autonomy, absence of close supervision, opportunity for self-determination or independence, freedom of choice, participation in decision making, influence over organisation
autonomy	Hackman and Oldham, 1975	Code is self-explanatory
time management	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
OPPORTUNITY FOR SKILL USE	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW!

		skill utilisation, utilisation of valued abilities, required skills, multi-skilling, applying expertise; opportunity for learning, self-development or skill acquisition, becoming an expert, developing new skills
task mastery	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Can manage the task, can do task well
professional development	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Learning on the job, taking part in training, keeping up-to-date with job related knowledge
Task engagement	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Engaging with or being engaged in one's work tasks
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
EXTERNALLY GENERATED GOALS	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! job demands, task demands, quantitative or qualitative workload (and related factors to this such as staffing levels), attentional demand, work pressure, role responsibility, challenge, normative requirements, traction, conflicting demands, role conflict, work-family conflict

workload		code is self-explanatory
pace	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	how quickly tasks have to be done after another
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
VARIETY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! variation in job content and location, non-repetitive work, avoidance of repetition, skill variety, task variety
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
ENVIRONMENTAL CLARITY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Information about the future, absence of ambiguity about the future, information about required behaviour, low role ambiguity, role clarity, clarity of role requirements, information about the consequences of behaviour, task feedback
task clarity	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Changing procedures and policies	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

being informed	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
lack of or too much management	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
CONTACT WITH OTHERS	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! quantity of interaction, frequency of social contact, social density, adequate privacy, quality of interaction, good relationships with others, social support, good communications, freedom from abuse and bullying
social support		From colleagues or supervisor
negative colleagues	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
feeling part of team or organisation	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
supervisors	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
trust	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Between colleagues or in organisation
members of public	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	negative conversations, complaints
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
AVAILABILITY OF MONEY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW!

		income level, amount of pay, salary, financial resources
amount of pay		salary high enough or too low
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
PHYSICAL SECURITY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! absence of danger, good working conditions, ergonomically adequate equipment, a low-hazard environment, safe levels of temperature and noise
Adequate equipment		is working, appropriate for work, easy to use
Ergonomically adequate office furniture		desk facilitates work, chair is supporting good posture, enough space
work environment not further specified	based on Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006	Healthy environment, comfort, working conditions
Safe levels of temperature		Air conditioning, temperature, cold or hot drafts
Safe levels of noise		impact of it on staff and their work
Getting outside	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Able to get fresh air or some exposure to sunlight for example in breaks
plants	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	In the office
feeling safe	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	When in contact with public

aesthetics	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Of office
clean environment	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Work & rest	Derived from inductive coding, see also Deery & Kinnie, 2002	Shift patterns, breaks, pacing them, long enough
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
VALUED SOCIAL POSITION	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Status in society, importance to the organisation, task significance, valued role incumbency, meaningfulness of job, contribution to the community or wider society
Valued role		In organisation or department or team
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
CAREER OUTLOOK	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Security of employment, job security, availability of extended tenure, opportunity for promotion, advancement or shift to other roles
Other		Specify in annotation what

		answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
EQUITY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Fairness in one's employment relationship, distributive and procedural justice, equitable psychological contract, absence of unfair discrimination, morality in an employer's relationship with society
Other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Leader consideration, boss support, supportive management, concern for employee welfare
Consideration of the individual	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Supportive line management	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
OTHER	Code here answers which do not fit in any of the	Specify in annotation what

	categories.	answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

CONTEXT-RELATED

Code	Description	Example
Work-life balance	Based on general understanding of author	Code is self-explanatory
Social support	Based on general understanding of author	By family and friends
Stable life circumstances	Based on general understanding of author	No problems or stress with family
Interactions outside of work	Based on general understanding of author	Negative image of organisation or occupation
other	Note down quote	

IDENTIFICATION WITH TEAM

First, identification with your team. Do you see an importance of this for your well-being at work? In which way?

TEAM IS IMPORTANT FOR WELL-BEING

Code	Description	Example
Informational support	Haslam (2004)	If you don't know how to solve a task, talk about it with colleagues
Emotional support	Haslam (2004)	Can talk about problems with colleagues
Belonging	Haslam (2004)	Feel part of team
Rapport	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Get on well with team
Purpose	Haslam (2004)	Our team does important work
Team work	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Work well together
Social interaction	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Nice to talk to each other
Without explanation		
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

TEAM IS NOT IMPORTANT FOR WELL-BEING

Code	Description	Example
Don't identify with them	Derived from general understanding	They are not important to me., Work mostly by myself.
Without explanation		
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

AMBIVALENCE

Code	Description	Example
Different for different people	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	For some the team is important, for some it isn't
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

OTHER

Code here an answer which does not fit in any of the above categories but refers to the role of the team for an individual's well-being at work. Note down the quote and what it means in annotation.

IDENTIFICATION WITH ORGANISATION

Now can I add identification with your organisation (...)? Do you see an importance of this for your well-being at work? In which way?

ORGANISATION IS IMPORTANT FOR WELL-BEING

Code	Description	Example
Meaning/purpose	Derived from general understanding	Belonging to group; work organisation does is meaningful; occupation important part of self-concept
Reputation of organisation	Derived from general understanding	Code is self-explanatory
Organisation act favourably	Derived from general understanding	Code is self-explanatory
Without explanation		
Other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

AMBIVALENCE

Code	Description	Example
Being ambivalent		Code is self-explanatory
Identification as functioning in job	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Automatically identify when you do your work
Being part of organisation as employee doing important job	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Automatically identifies with organisation as one is important part of it
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

ORGANISATION IS NOT IMPORTANT FOR WELL-BEING

Code	Description	Example
Don’t identify with them	Derived from general understanding	Code is self-explanatory
Team more important than organisation	Derived from general understanding	Code is self-explanatory
Occupation more important than organisation	Derived from general understanding	Code is self-explanatory
Job is job	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	don’t mind who to work for and therefore organisation does not play role for well-being
Organisation does not act favourably towards individuals	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
• Focus on finance rather than person		Code is self-explanatory
• Not valued as an individual		How much is individual employee valued by the organisation or the supervisor
• Detachment of management		Supervisor or management is detached from employees or work which goes on, therefore do not support them or even act in a way that infringes well-being
• Change contributes to negative well-being		Code is self-explanatory
• Job security		Code is self-explanatory
Negative image in media and public	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
No trust	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	In the organisation or the management
Without explanation		
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

AUTHENTICITY
Now coming to third and last influence, authenticity. Can you tell me a little about that? Can you see any relations to your well-being at work? In what way?

AUTHENTICITY IS IMPORTANT FOR WELL-BEING

Code	Description	Example
Feel at ease	Kernis & Goldman, 2006	Feel comfortable/relaxed because you can be yourself , expressing opinion; being open with colleagues
Self-awareness/self-alienation	Kernis & Goldman, 2006 & Wood et al., 2008	Being in touch with the real me
No role conflict	Wood et al., 2008	Role conflict between job and home life would undermine well-being
Flourish as a person	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	When being able to perform well and develop oneself, one has access to innate strength and weaknesses
Expressing oneself	Kernis & Goldman, 2006	Expressing oneself is important for well-being
Congruent behaviour	Kernis & Goldman, 2006	Living in accordance with own values, acting differently in different live domains
Without explanation	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

AUTHENTICITY IS NOT IMPORTANT FOR WELL-BEING

Code	Description	Example
Role separation	Derived from general understanding	Role at work is separate from role at home/identities do not overlap , work not important for self-concept
important to be inauthentic to protect oneself from negative experiences in job role	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Without explanation		
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

FACES OF AUTHENTICITY

Code	Description	Example
Diversity and equality	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Authenticity is being able to express oneself even though one belongs to a minority in the organisation
• Being female	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
• Being Christian	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Relations with leadership	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Authentic leadership important for authentic climate in organisation
Customer service	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Authenticity of employee leads to higher customer satisfaction
Uniform	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Uniform suppresses or supports authenticity on one's working role
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

NO CONNECTION BETWEEN AUTHENTICITY AND WELL-BEING AT WORK

Code	Description	Example
Not clear what it is		
Haven’t thought about it		
Interdependence		Wanting to be authentic
• Professional behaviour	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Being professional, role requires to act in certain way
• Never off duty	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Without explanation		
other		

WELL-BEING LEVELS

Based on the figure we drew together, how high are well-being levels at the [organisation x] on a scale from 1 to 7, with 1 meaning “very low”, 4 meaning “medium high” and 7 meaning “very high”?

REASONS

Code	Description	Example
Change	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Change process in organisation
Pay	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Salary to low
Cutbacks	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	In whole organisation or department affecting employees, job security
Organisation in general	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Trust in, image of etc. of organisation
Being able to influence work	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Hard job	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
other		Not down quote.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GROUPS, PEOPLE, TIME ETC.

Code	Description	Example
Individual well-being vs. group well-being	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Individual determination of well-being	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Difference across departments	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Differences between times	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

„specific well-being levels”

Code	Description	Example
1	Based on question	On a scale from 1 to 7
2	Based on question	On a scale from 1 to 7
3	Based on question	On a scale from 1 to 7
4	Based on question	On a scale from 1 to 7
5	Based on question	On a scale from 1 to 7
6	Based on question	On a scale from 1 to 7
7	Based on question	On a scale from 1 to 7
Low		Low well-being not specified with specific level number
Fairly high		Fairly high well-being not specified with specific level number

OTHER

Code here an answer which does not fit in any of the above categories but refers to the role of the team for an individual’s well-being at work. Note down the quote and what it means in annotation.

KEY ISSUES
Which factors from the figure we drew together would you highlight as key issues which have an impact on the well-being levels at the (...)? Or would you like to add any to the figure? (keyfac)
PERSON FACTORS

Code	Description	Example
extraversion	These factors were put together on basis of well-being research (see Fisher, 2011).	the act, state, or habit of being predominantly concerned with and obtaining gratification from what is outside the self – talkative, enthusiastic etc.
emotional stability	“	Code self-explanatory
intrinsic motivation	“	Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation that is driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself, and exists within the individual rather than relying on any external pressure
self-esteem	“	a person‘s overall evaluation or appraisal of his or her own worth
EUDAIMONIC WELL-BEING	Here experiences are described which related to the concept of eudaimonic well-being based on Ryff (1998) and Diener (2009).	
meaning and purpose/purpose in life	Diener (2009) & Ryff (1998)	example (Diener, 2009): purposeful and meaningful life; example (Ryff, 1998): aim in life
supportive and rewarding relationships	Diener (2009)	social relationships are supportive and rewarding
engaged and interested	Diener (2009)	engaged and interested in daily activities

Contribute to the well-being of others/ Positive relations with others	Diener (2009) & Ryff (1998)	example (Diener, 2009): actively contributing to the happiness and well-being of others example (Ryff, 1998): being a giving person, willing to share time with others
competency	Diener (2009) & Ryff (1998)	example (Diener, 2009): competent and capable of activities that are important to oneself example (Ryff, 1998): I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus
self-acceptance	Diener (2009) & Ryff (1998)	example (Diener, 2009): being a good person and living a good life example (Ryff, 1998): liking most aspects of own personality
optimism	Diener (2009)	being optimistic about own future
being respected	Diener (2009)	People respect oneself
environmental mastery	Ryff (1998)	feel in charge of the situation in which one lives in
personal growth	Ryff (1998)	important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world
self-acceptance	Ryff (1998)	liking own personality
other		Specify in annotation what

		answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
OTHER	“	Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

WORK FACTORS

Code	Description	Example
OPPORTUNITY FOR PERSONAL CONTROL	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Employee discretion, decision latitude, autonomy, absence of close supervision, opportunity for self-determination or independence, freedom of choice, participation in decision making, influence over organisation
autonomy	Hackman and Oldham, 1975	Code is self-explanatory
time management	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
OPPORTUNITY FOR SKILL USE	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! skill utilisation, utilisation of

		valued abilities, required skills, multi-skilling, applying expertise; opportunity for learning, self-development or skill acquisition, becoming an expert, developing new skills
task mastery	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Can manage the task, can do task well
professional development	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Learning on the job, taking part in training, keeping up-to-date with job related knowledge
Task engagement	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Engaging with or being engaged in one's work tasks
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
EXTERNALLY GENERATED GOALS	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! job demands, task demands, quantitative or qualitative workload (and related factors to this such as staffing levels), attentional demand, work pressure, role responsibility, challenge, normative requirements, traction, conflicting demands, role conflict, work-family conflict
workload		code is self-explanatory

pace	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	how quickly tasks have to be done after another
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
VARIETY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! variation in job content and location, non-repetitive work, avoidance of repetition, skill variety, task variety
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
ENVIRONMENTAL CLARITY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Information about the future, absence of ambiguity about the future, information about required behaviour, low role ambiguity, role clarity, clarity of role requirements, information about the consequences of behaviour, task feedback
task clarity	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Changing procedures and policies	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
being informed	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

lack of or too much management	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
CONTACT WITH OTHERS	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! quantity of interaction, frequency of social contact, social density, adequate privacy, quality of interaction, good relationships with others, social support, good communications, freedom from abuse and bullying
social support		From colleagues or supervisor
negative colleagues	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
feeling part of team or organisation	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
supervisors	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
trust	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Between colleagues or in organisation
members of public	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	negative conversations, complaints
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
AVAILABILITY OF MONEY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! income level, amount of pay,

		salary, financial resources
amount of pay		salary high enough or too low
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
PHYSICAL SECURITY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! absence of danger, good working conditions, ergonomically adequate equipment, a low-hazard environment, safe levels of temperature and noise
Adequate equipment		is working, appropriate for work, easy to use
Ergonomically adequate office furniture		desk facilitates work, chair is supporting good posture, enough space
work environment not further specified	Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006	Healthy environment, comfort, working conditions
Safe levels of temperature		Air conditioning, temperature, cold or hot drafts
Safe levels of noise		impact of it on staff and their work
Getting outside	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Able to get fresh air or some exposure to sunlight for example in breaks
plants	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	In the office
feeling safe	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	When in contact with public
aesthetics	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Of office

clean environment	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Work & rest	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo; see also Deery, Iverson, & Walsh, 2002	Shift patterns, breaks, pacing them, long enough
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
VALUED SOCIAL POSITION	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Status in society, importance to the organisation, task significance, valued role incumbency, meaningfulness of job, contribution to the community or wider society
Valued role		In organisation or department or team
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
CAREER OUTLOOK	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Security of employment, job security, availability of extended tenure, opportunity for promotion, advancement or shift to other roles
Other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it

		does not fit in the given categories.
EQUITY	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Fairness in one's employment relationship, distributive and procedural justice, equitable psychological contract, absence of unfair discrimination, morality in an employer's relationship with society
Other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION	Warr (2007)	DO NOT CODE UNDER THIS CODE BUT UNDER THE SUBCODES BELOW! Leader consideration, boss support, supportive management, concern for employee welfare
Consideration of the individual	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Supportive line management	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.
OTHER	Code here answers which do not fit in any of the categories.	Specify in annotation what answer means and why it

		does not fit in the given categories.

CONTEXT FACTORS

Code	Description	Example
Work-life balance	Based on general understanding of author	Code is self-explanatory
Social support	Based on general understanding of author	By family and friends
Stable life circumstances	Based on general understanding of author	No problems or stress with family
Interactions outside of work	Based on general understanding of author	Negative image of organisation or occupation
other	Note down quote	

WELL-BEING PRACTICES
Do the practices of the organisation (...) to maintain or improve well-being converge with your notions of workplace well-being?
WELL-BEING PRACTICES

Code	Description	Example
Involvement in boards	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Talks with management about improvements etc.
Work environment/job characteristics	Juniper, 2012	Code is self-explanatory
Employee assistance programmes	Juniper, 2012	Code is self-explanatory
Services from occupational health	Juniper, 2012	Code is self-explanatory
Wellness programmes	Juniper, 2012	Code is self-explanatory
1. Good experience	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
2. Not helpful	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
2.1. Obvious or common knowledge	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
2.2. Done for needs of management and not employees	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
3. Not needed	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
4. People are generally negative	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Don't know any		
Opt-in wellness schemes	Juniper, 2012	Healthy eating in cafeteria, free gym membership
Benefits	Juniper, 2012	
Social activities	Juniper, 2012	
Training & development	Juniper, 2012	
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES
We got very few responses for a questionnaire asking you about your well-being at work and your experience with the Wellness Programme. Can you think of any reasons for this?
QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES

Code	Description	Example
only oneself can make oneself happy, don't need organisation to do that	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Well-being improvements not seen as important by staff	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	you just do your work
nothing will be done	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	two many different demands in big organisation, supervisors do not support wellness,
too busy, too many different demands, questionnaires etc	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
relevance of such questionnaires	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Also: things are only done because of politics
low responses to questionnaires anyway	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
don't know of questionnaire	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
e-mail not good medium	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Also: can't remember
can remember it	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
did fill it in	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Didn't fill it in	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

WELLNESS PROGRAMME
(If you have taken part in the Wellness Programme.) What was your experience with the programme?
ANSWERS FROM WELLNESS TEAM

Code	Description	Example
Reactions from staff as wellness managers see it	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
• Positive		Code is self-explanatory
• Gender split		Code is self-explanatory
• Senior management positive		Code is self-explanatory
• Staff sceptical		Code is self-explanatory
Impact of programme as seen by wellness managers	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

ANSWERS FROM EMPLOYEES

Code	Description	Example
Rembering participation	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Positive change from it	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Well-being is individual responsibility, not organisation	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Compulsory	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
No change after programme	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
• no push from supervisors		Code is self-explanatory
• Working environment not beneficial		
• Time to implement changes		
Relevance for different sections in organisation	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Aware of it	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

IMPRESSION WELLNESS PROGRAMME
The responses about the wellness programme were negative. Can you think of reasons for this?

IMPRESSION WELLNESS PROGRAMME

Code	Description	Example
Common knowledge		Programme provided nothing new
Programme vs reality		Programme suggests things which cannot be aligned with requirements of the job
Programme vs management reality		Programme suggests things but management does not do them or contradicts them
Well-being own responsibility		Individual has to take care of own well-being
Themes which stuck in mind	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
• exercise		Code is self-explanatory
• mental well-being		Code is self-explanatory
Wellness manager		Discussions around the wellness manager
Negative impression		Code is self-explanatory
Positive impression		Code is self-explanatory
ambivalent		Code is self-explanatory
Other		Specify in annotation what answer means and why it does not fit in the given categories.

OTHER PROGRAMMES WISHED FOR
What other programmes or actions or behaviours would you like to see?

OTHER PROGRAMMES OR ACTIONS

Code	Description	Example
Physical work environment		
• equipment		Better equipment, training for equipment
• ergonomics		More comfortable, functioning chairs, desks etc.
• clean environment		Code is self-explanatory
• air conditioning		Fixing it
• appropriate working space		Code is self-explanatory
Recognition of needs	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Also: being listened to, being taken seriously
Putting things into practice	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
attention to things insitu of work and not detached programmes	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
individualised approach rather than generalised programme	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Structure of organisation needs changing	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
• job security		
Less change	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Feeling valued	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Also: Being seriously interested in well-being of employees
Less bureaucracy	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Wellness programme differently	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Structure of work, breaks	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

The following questions are ONLY for the coding of the INTERVIEWS!
MEASUREMENT WELL-BEING
How is well-being measured in your organisation?

MEASUREMENT WELL-BEING

Code	Description	Example
Staff surveys	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Wellness programme	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Sickness absence	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Organisational reporting	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
benchmarking	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Not measured	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
General comments	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

WELL-BEING AT (...)
What is well-being at (...)?

WELL-BEING AT (...)

Code	Description	Example
(physical) fitness	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Well-being is understood at (...) as physical fitness
Wellness	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Well-being at (...) is wellness
Well-being not defined	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	There is no wellness or well-being concept as such in the organisation

WELL-BEING MAINTAINING AND IMPROVING MEASURES
What does the [organisation x] do to maintain or improve their employees' well-being levels?

MEASUREMENT WELL-BEING

Code	Description	Example
Equipment and other support	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Support of the organisation for employees such as provision of suitable equipment for staying safe and doing work well
Occupational health	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Employee assistance programme	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Wellness programme	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Management practices	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Also: Supervisors responsibility
No consistency or link between different approaches	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
gyms	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Provision of free gyms or exercising facilities
Flexible working patterns and hours	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

PERCEPTION FO WELL-BEING MAINTAINING AND IMPROVING MEASURES

In your eyes, how are those measures perceived by people in the organisation (supervisors & members of staff)?

PERCEPTION OF WELL-BEING MAINTAINING AND IMROVING MEASURES

Code	Description	Example
wellness support not needed	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Employees don't want to be seen as weak
sees as support and caring for individual through supervisor	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

IMPROVEMENT EXISTING APPROACH
Could the existing approach to well-being in your organisation could be improved?

IMPROVEMENT EXISTING APPROACH

Code	Description	Example
resources behind roll out of wellness programme	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Marketing	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Needs more marketing
No improvement needed	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Involvement HR	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	More involvement
Involvement managers	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	More involvement
Personal approach	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Other		Not down quote.

WHY WAS PROGRAMME INTRODUCED
Why were those programmes or measures introduced?

WHY WAS PROGRAMME INTRODUCED

Code	Description	Example
National legislation	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
employment tribunals	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Prevention	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
leadership development	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
absence management	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
motivation management	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

WHY WAS PROGRAMME CHOSEN
How did you choose the programme?
OPEN CODING HERE!

ROLLING OUT PTOGRAMME
How was the programme rolled out?

ROLLING OUT PROGRAMME

Code	Description	Example
engaging with senior management	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
availability to teams	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

PARTICIPATION ENCOURAGED
How is participation in this programme encouraged/ selected for? What are the participation rates?

PARTICIPATION ENCOURAGED

Code	Description	Example
teams who have contact with public	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
who asks for it gets it	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory

SURPRISES

Code	Description	Example
Keeness	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Keenness to take part in programme by managers etc.
alignment of different approaches and departments to wellness	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	There is none

PRIORITY WELLNESS PROGRAMME

Code	Description	Example
6	Based on question	On a scale from 1 to 7
objectives by senior leadership	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Leaders have/want to fulfil other goals first
customer service comes first	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Training for that comes first and therefore wellness not top priority

OTHER COMMENTS

Code	Description	Example
wellness in public sector	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
need for wellness	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
Costs	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Of wellness programme
difference between managers and staff	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	In their working culture and attitudes
change wellness and performance	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Performance and wellness are connected, both are part of change process
staff might have different issues than wellness team thinks they have	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
good coming out of higher workload	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
visibility and detachment of wellness manager	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	Code is self-explanatory
being negative	Derived from inductive coding in NVivo	About interview or focus group questions

CHANGED WELL-BEING APPROACH
Has the approach to well-being changed in the organisation over the last few years?
OPEN CODING!

Additional Coding Directions

1) The tree node at the highest level of the hierarchy is not to be used as a code (node) is only used as a heading.

Example:

1. Healthy food
    a. Fruit
        i. Apples
        ii. Bananas
        iii. Pears
        iv. Other
    b. Vegetables
        i. Cucumber
        ii. Beans
        iii. Pepper
        iv. Other

Only use the subheadings as nodes

2. Unhealthy food
    a. Savoury
        i. Deep fried
        ii. Fast food
        iii. Other
    b. Sweet
        i. Fatty
        ii. Sugary
        iii. Other

Only use the subheadings as nodes

2) Whole quote is to be marked and coded even though if that means that one quote is linked with several nodes.

Example: I like apples. I mean fruit are very important for a healthy diet. But what is a healthy diet? Probably a balanced diet incuding proteins, carbohydrates, fats, fibre etc. Apples have a lot of fibre. I really like the taste of apples. They are my favourite fruit.

Codes (nodes) here could be „like apples", „fruit part of healthy diet", „elements of healthy diet". The whole paragraph will be highlighted and connected as a whole with each code (node).

3) If several people have a dialogue over an issue which is connected than this should be coded as one quote.
Example:
Interviewer: Do you have healthy lunch options in your cafeteria?
Participant 1: Not really but we don't really go there, do we?
Participant 2: We only go there on special occasions. And the food is not very good. They sell lots of fried stuff.
Participant 1: Yeah, lots of deep fried things like chips and chicken nuggets.
Participant 2: You can't call that a healthy lunch.
Participant 1: Not very healthy, no.

4) The theme of a code includes positive and negative phrasing of the same issue.
Example:
I feel happy when I eat an apple.
I do not feel sad when I eat an apple.
Both can be coded under the same node "happy".

5) If the code/node "other" is used, always type an explanation of the quote or a possible name for a new node. Use annotations for this.

6) If there are quotes which are not directly relevant to the question or relate to a question which was posed by the interviewer to get the discussion going or direct participants to an answer to the original question, do not code them.

Example (highlighted part would not be coded):
Interviewer: Okay. Now think about identification with your workplace as a whole, do you think that plays a role for your wellbeing?
Female 1: It should do.
Interviewer: It should do, does it?
Female 4: It's like any employer caring about its employee isn't it?
Interviewer: Right but like so do you identify with (…) would you say?
Female 3: Yes.

Female 4: *I think so.*
Female 1: *No I disagree.*
Interviewer: *No?*
Male 1: *I'd say no.*

7) However, if there are discussion around a question which don't answer the question directly but highlight issues which are resembled in the codes of a different question than the answer should be coded with the fitting codes of this previously posed question.

8) If not sure under which code, look whether there is a summary by the interviewer straight after to clarify

9) If sentences are started but don't have actual content, do not code them.
Example: At the end of the day, but ...

10) Questions which are asked Wellness team to describe impressions etc., no specific codes/nodes will be used here. Just categorise them under the relevant node without breaking answer down.

11) For well-being levels, if two numbers are given such as 4 to 5, then code this under the higher number.

C6. Content Analysis Results

Defintion of workplace well-being

Concept	Manifestation	Mentioned?							
		FG1	FG 2	FG 3	FG 4	FG 5	W 1	W 2	W 3
Hedonic Well-Being	Positive affect		x	x	x	x	x	x	
	Negative affect			x					
	contentment			x	x	x		x	
	pleasure	x			x				
	satisfaction	x	x		x	x			
	other			x				x	
Eudai-monic Well-being	Meaning or purpose							x	
	Competency or autonomy						x	x	
	Being respected						x		
	other				x			x	
	Emotional energy					x		x	
	other					x			
Engage-ment	other		x						
Varied	balance					x		x	
	atmosphere	x						x	
	comfort	x							
	Mental health				x		x		x
	Interplay physical and mental	x							
	Other – productive work		x		x			x	
	Other – seld-awareness							x	
	stress	x	x	x					
	tired	x	x						
Social	colleagues				x				
other	holistic								x
Physical Well-Being	Physical vitality			x		x			
	exhausted		x						
	healthy	x	x	x		x	x	x	x
Basic needs covered	Activity and rest		x					x	
	Physical work environment								x
Don’t know how to answer				x					

Factors influencing well-being

Concept	Manifestation	Mentioned? FG1	FG 2	FG 3	FG 4	FG 5	W 1	W 2	W 3
Person factors	Intrinsic motivation								x
Physical security	Equipment				x	x			x
Context factor	Work-life balance			x				x	
	Life circumstances and home life					x	x		
	other					x			
	Healthy behaviour					x	x	x	
	Social support		x		x				
	Holistic influences								x
Work factors	Availability of money – pay	x							
	Contact with others-colleagues	x	x			x		x	
	Contact with others – being part of the team						x		x
	Contact with others- members of the public					x			
	Contact with others-Negative colleagues					x	x	x	
	Contact with others-social support		x		x				
	Contact with others-supervisors		x						
	Contact with others-trust				x				
	Environmental clarity – being informed, being listen to	x							x
	Environmental clarity –change process						x		
	Environmental clarity –lack or too much management					x			
	Environmental clarity –task clarity	x							
	Externally generated goals - pace					x		x	
	Externally generated goals –working hours							x	
	Externally generated goals –work load	x			x	x	X		
	Externally generated goals – autonomy				x				
	Opportunity for skill use– time management							x	
	Opportunity for skill use– engagement								x
	Opportunity for skill use–keeping up-to date with job knowledge							X	
	Opportunity for skill use– Professional development							x	
	Opportunity for skill use–task mastery	x							

Other	x							
Physical security – aesthetics		x						
Physical security – air conditioning	x	x						
Physical security – breaks		x				x		
Physical security – clean environment		x			x			
Physical security – comfort	X							
Physical security – daylight								
Physical security – equipment use	X			x	x			x
Physical security – ergonomics		x						
Physical security – feeling safe						x		
Physical security – fresh air							x	
Physical security – noise	X							
Physical security – physical work environment		x		x	x			
Physical security – plants						x		
Physical security – shift pattern			x		x			
Physical security – space						x		
Physical security – temperature		x		x				
Physical security – leader consideration						x		
Physical security – supportive management	x			x	x	x		
Supportive management – how boss manages and supports employees	x	x			x	x		x
Valued social position – valued role	x			x	x			

Factors influencing current workplace well-being

Concept	Manifestation	Mentioned? FG1	FG 2	FG 3	FG 4	FG 5	W1	W2	W3
Healthy behaviour				x					
Interactions with others			x						
Life circumstances									x
Work-life balance			x	x				x	
Other					x				
Work factors	Availability of money – availability of money for organisation			x					x
	Career outlook – job security	x			x		x		
	Contact with others – colleagues being stressed and negative					x			
	Contact with others – rapport with colleagues				x				
	Environmental clarity - change	x	x	x		x	x		x
	Environmental clarity – situation organisation is in			x					
	Equity – consistency in decision making in management	x							
	Equity – divide between work groups	x							
	Equity – workload distribution	x							
	Externally generated goals - pace							x	
	xternally generated goals - workload		x					x	
	xternally generated goals –workload – able to take time off					x			
	xternally generated goals –workload – staffing levels					x			
	xternally generated								

	goals – workload – taking on extra work							
	Opportunity for personal control – autnomy				x			
	Physical security – air conditioning	x		x				
	Physical security – comfort	x						
	Physical security – different work environment					x	x	
	Physical security – drafts		x					
	Physical security – equipment use	x	x					
	Physical security – ergonomics			x				
	Physical security – facility for gear						x	
	Physical security – noise	x	x					
	Physical security – shigt pattern		x	x				x
	Physical security – space			x				
	Physical security – temperature		x					
	Supportive supervision - no further specification	x						
	Supportive supervision – caring about the individual						x	
	Supportive supervision – management style in general					x		
	Supportive supervision – management style in general – detachment from actual					x		
	Supportive supervision – management style in general don’t listen to staff					x		
	Supportive supervision – management style in general not seeing bigger picture					x		

	Supportive supervision – management style in general pettiness		x
	Supportive supervision – praise for good work	x	
	Valued social position –not caring for individual		x

Authenticity

Concept	Manifestation	Mentioned?							
		FG1	FG 2	FG 3	FG 4	FG 5	W 1	W 2	W 3
Impor-tant for well-being	Expressing oneself			x					
	Feel at ease	x	x	x		x			x
	Flourish as person								x
	Living in accordance with own values	x							
	No role conflict		x	x					
	Using strength and weaknesses to perform								x
	Without explanation					x			x
Not impor-tant for well-being	Important to be inauthentic to protect oneself					X			
	Role separation		x	x	x	x			
	Without explanation				x				
Faces of authe-ticity	Customer service			x					
	Diversity and equality						x	x	
	Being Christian						x		
	Being female							x	
	Relations with leadership							x	
	uniform			x		x			
No con-nection			x						
	Nature of job role – never off duty					x			
	Nature of job role – professional behaviour				x	x			x
	Nature of job role – role requirements			x					
	Not clear what it is		x	x					
	People know each other		x						

Social identification with the team

Concept	Manifestation	Mentioned?							
		FG1	FG 2	FG 3	FG 4	FG 5	W 1	W 2	W 3
Ambivalence		x	x	x					
	Being part of organisation doing an important job					x			
	Identification as functioning in jib role					x			
Important for well-being	Calling					x		x	
	Meaning and purpose						x		x
	Organisation looks after welfare	x							
	Reputation of organisation							x	
Not important	Don't identify with them	x	x						
	Job is job			x					
	Negative image in media			x		x			
	No trust			x					
	Occupation more important		x	x	X				
	Does not act favourably towards individuals				x				
	Does not act favourably towards individuals - change			x					
	Does not act favourably towards individuals – detachment from management	x			x				
	Does not act favourably towards individuals – focus on finance rather than person				x				
	Does not act favourably towards individuals – job security			x	x				
	Does not act favourably towards individuals- valued as individual				x				
	Without explanation			x					

Social identification organisation

Concept	Manifestation	Mentioned?							
		FG1	FG 2	FG 3	FG 4	FG 5	W 1	W 2	W 3
Team is important	Informational support	x	x		x	x			
	Emotional support	x	x	x	x	x			
	Belonging	x	x					x	
	Better working environment					x			
	Purpose								x
	Rapport	x		x		x	x	x	
	Social interaction not further specified	x	x	x					
	Team work	x					x		
	Without explanation		x	x		x			
ambivalence	Different for different people				x				

Appendix C. Omitted Study

Study on the Role of Identity-Related Resources in Achieving Well-Being

Increasingly more scholars explore the role of the individual in shaping his or her work experience (e.g. Briner, Harris, & Daniels, 2004; Daniels, 2011; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007; Warr, 2013b; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). One stream of research that explores how individuals shape their work experience looks at how resources of the person themselves enable him or her to interact successfully with their environment (Hobfoll et al., 2003). As outlined in section 2.2.2, the study of resources goes back to the 1960s when Caplan (1964) explored how individuals preserve well-being in wartime. Caplan's research and current research distinguish resources in terms of personal resources (e.g. self-esteem) and environmental resources (e.g. social support; section 2.2.1). In contrast to environmental resources, personal resources are acknowledged in well-being models such as the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) that, in addition to environmental resources (e.g. autonomy), included personal resources (e.g. self-efficacy, organisational based self-esteem, optimism; Xanthopolou et al., 2007).

Whereas in existing research, resources are distinguished in terms of personal resources and environmental resources, I reconceptualise two resources of the individuals, authenticity and social identification, through an identity lens as identity-related resources, incorporating personal identity (authenticity) and social identity (shared social identity; see Section 2.2.2). Furthermore, I aim to shed light on the relationship between identity-related

resources (authenticity and social identification) and several well-being aspects.

Authenticity taps into the personal identity as it provided the individual with knowledge about individual values, goals, strengths, weaknesses, etc. As authenticity provides individuals with self-knowledge and integer behaviour, it can be linked to several aspects of well-being (see section 2.2.2.2). Another identity-related concept that is thought to influence well-being variables is social identification (van Dick & Haslam, 2012). In this study, social identification is conceptualised as the extent to which an individual defines his- or herself in terms of membership of a work group. The group to which the individual feels an emotional and cognitive connection provides meaning (Pratt, 2001), social connections, and supporting coping (Haslam et al., 2009). These beneficial circumstances are likely to support well-being (see van Dick & Haslam, 2012; see Section 2.2.2.4).

There are several studies that have explored the relationships between authenticity and well-being on the one hand and social identification and well-being on the other. However, they do not consider both together as identity-related resources. As outlined in Section 2.2.2, seeing them as part of the identity of a person suggests that they should be considered together in order to integrate the full identity of the person. In the following sections, I will outline in more detail how authenticity and work group identification could act as identity-related resources for experiencing well-being. Based on this outline, hypotheses to be tested in this study are then formulated. In the section that follows the methodological approach investigating the relationship

between identity-related resources and the well-being aspects is outlined. The chapter ends with the description and discussion of results of the study.

C1 The Role of Authenticity as an Identity-Related Resource for Experiencing Well-Being

As outlined in section 2.2.2.2, several empirical studies have found positive correlative links between authenticity and multiple well-being variables, such as low negative affect, life satisfaction (Goldman & Kernis, 2002), vitality, and self-actualisation (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Positive correlations between authenticity and self-actualisation (Kernis & Goldman, 2006) suggest a relationship between authenticity and eudaimonic well-being. Self-actualisation is a similar concept to eudaimonic well-being in that it encompasses self-knowledge and acceptance, autonomy and meaningful relationships among other things (Maslow, 1954). From these findings, one can deduce that there is a positive relationship between authenticity, hedonic well-being, and eudaimonic well-being. Exploring the link between authenticity and multiple well-being concepts is fruitful as there is little empirical research into the links between authenticity and the well-being concepts of eudaimonic well-being, work engagement, vigour, and flow. Exploring these links further and replicating findings would also shed more light on how authenticity is linked to well-being. Indeed, links between authenticity and all well-being concepts of hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow can be drawn (as also outlined in Section 2.2.2.2).

Having intrapersonal authenticity means having self-knowledge and being able to seek fitting tasks and relationships. Having interpersonal

authenticity could lead to having close relationships, thanks to the transparency and sincerity of relations (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). These outcomes of both aspects of authenticity are likely to lead to heightened positive affect, life satisfaction, and lowered negative affect.

Another aspect of being authentic is to be aware of one's needs, values, strengths, and weaknesses (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). One aspect of eudaimonic well-being is experiencing personal growth and environmental mastery. Authenticity contributes to growth and the ability to control one's environment by being aware of one's strengths, weaknesses, and aims in life. Therefore, it is likely to lead to eudaimonic well-being. In a conceptual paper, Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang (2005) proposed that indeed all dimensions of eudaimonic well-being can be mapped onto the components of authenticity (for a full description see section 2.2.2.2).

Vigour, work engagement, and flow focus on being involved and having positive cognitive and emotional dynamic experiences while working. It is likely that authenticity leads to vigour, work engagement, and flow due to the two components of the intrapersonal authenticity concept. Self-awareness and unbiased processing could lead to an awareness of what one likes to do (tasks) and what one is good at (talents). If authenticity is achieved, the individual can actively decide which tasks to take on (Ilies et al., 2005); engagement in the task, flow, and cognitive vigour are then likely to be shown. Interpersonal authenticity creates positive relations with others. If one has to work together on task, interpersonal authenticity could therefore lead to interpersonal aspects of vigour (emotional vigour) and work engagement (engaging and dedicating oneself to the work with others) and create an

environment where flow experiences are supported by matching each other's skills with the task.

As the previous paragraphs have outlined that we can presume a positive relationship between authenticity and each well-being aspect, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Intra- and interpersonal authenticity have a positive influence on multiple dimensions of well-being, i.e. the hedonic, eudaimonic, vigour, work engagement, and flow dimensions.

C2 The Role of Work Group Identification as an Identity-Related Resource for Experiencing Well-Being

As outlined in section 2.2.2.4, social identification in the workplace has been found to be a predictor for positive organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction (e.g. van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000; van Dick, van Knippenberg, Kerschreiter, Hertel, & Wieseke, 2008). Furthermore, theoretical propositions by van Dick and Haslam (2012) have made for the positive predictive relationship of social identification on workplace well-being. There are different ways in which social identification influences positive experiences at work in terms of buffering stress and enhancing well-being. First, social identification plays a role in the primary appraisal of a stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The social identification with a particular group determines whether the stressor has any meaning for the self as a member of this group. It determines whether the stressor is perceived as threatening to one's well-being (van Dick & Haslam, 2012). Second, social identification plays a role in the secondary appraisal of a stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) by making

social resources provided by the in-group members salient and available. Finally, social identification has a direct influence on well-being in the sense that the identification with groups (for example, an organisation or groups within the organisation) satisfies certain human needs such as belonging, meaning, and self-enhancement (Pratt, 2001).

As also outlined in section 2.2.2.4, links between social identification with a work group can be drawn between the well-being concepts of hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, engagement, and flow. High positive affect, high life satisfaction, and low negative affect should be the outcome of these beneficial circumstances of the group (i.e. providing meaning, social connections, sense of meaning and supporting coping) to which the individual feels an emotional and cognitive connection. Characteristics of work group identification, such as the provision of meaning (Pratt, 2001), support and social connections (Haslam et al., 2009), should contribute to eudaimonic well-being, as the latter is characterised by having meaning and purpose in life and having supportive and rewarding relationships (Ryff, 1995). Work group identification can lead to vigour in terms of cognitive liveliness if the group norm is that the group work task has to be completed successfully as social identification motivates group members to work in the interest of the group, as individuals take on the group goals as their own. People show commitment to and engagement in tasks that are relevant and meaningful to them. Therefore vigour and work engagement are also likely to be experienced. Flow is likely to be experienced as one condition of flow is that the activity has a clear set of goals and that challenges and skills are matched.

As the previous paragraphs have outlined that there is a positive relationship presumed between work group identification and each well-being aspect, I propose the following hypothesis to be tested in this study:

Hypothesis 2: Work group identification has a positive influence on multiple dimensions of well-being, i.e. the hedonic, eudaimonic, vigour, work engagement, and flow dimensions.

C3 Research Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to test empirically whether the identity-related resources of authenticity and work group identification are linked to well-being in an environment where both resources are enabled and developed. This study measures a broad spectrum of well-being aspects based on the findings of Study 1. Study 1 identified that hedonic well-being, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow are well-being measures that are frequently experienced as part of workplace well-being. Using a broad measure of well-being including these five aspects of workplace well-being aids capturing the domain of well-being more fully and enables to explore whether there is a differentiated influence of the resources depending on what aspect of well-being is measured.

The present study therefore contributes to the second research aim of this thesis, which is to explore the importance of identity-related resources for obtaining individual workplace well-being (see Figure 3.1). It contributes to the research aim by investigating the following research objectives with a questionnaire study: ‘Is authenticity an antecedent of individual workplace

well-being?' (research objective 3) and 'Is work group identification an antecedent of individual workplace well-being?' (research objective 4).

C.4 Methodology

C.4.1 Sample and design.

The present research uses a questionnaire study that undergraduate students completed during a module that aimed to help them develop the skills for demonstrating authentic leadership. The module aimed to increase self-reflection and authenticity. A quasi-experimental design was used in the present study to be able to control levels of authenticity and work group identification affecting well-being. This also allowed for a pre-post test design. Measuring the levels of authenticity, work group identification, and well-being at two different times is beneficial to see how levels of these variables change over time and to separate the measures of the variables. Hedonic and eudaimonic well-being are quite stable (Chamberlain & Zika, 1992; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) and are therefore best predicted by previous levels. Therefore, calculating the link of authenticity and work group identification with well-being while a controlling for levels in time 1 would enable me to see how much influence the predictor variables have despite the influence of the outcome variable levels at time 1. Furthermore, I was interested in contributions of authenticity and work group identification as articulated resources. The setting provided a context for developing the resources and opportunities to create work group identification.

The study with a design where levels of authenticity and social identification could be manipulated could only be conducted in a higher

education setting. Therefore, a student sample, rather than an employee sample, was used for this study. However, implications drawn from the student work setting can be applied with some caution to an employee work setting. As the students had to work in teams to fulfil group tasks set for them (rather than revising for exams or writing essays) one could argue that they worked in a similar fashion as employees would have to do.

The questionnaire was distributed several times throughout the module to track changes in authenticity and work group identification levels, which should have been increased by the module. At time 1, 36 students completed the questionnaire. Due to missing identification codes, the sample size was reduced to N = 30. At time 2, 39 students filled in the questionnaire. Due to missing identification codes, the sample size was reduced to N = 32. Not all students who attended at time 2 were present at time 1. Therefore, there are 28 participants for whom data are available for both times. Thus the sample size for the present study is N = 28.

The age of the 28 participants ranged from 18 to 37 years, with a mean of M = 20.93 years (SD = 3.56; Mdn = 20.00). The majority of participants were female (n = 17, 60.71%). In the UK, students in business and administration undergraduate courses are 51.67% female and 48.33% male (Higher Education Statistics Agency, 2013). Therefore, in terms of gender the study sample is not representative of business and administration undergraduate students in the UK. British nationals formed 28.57% (n = 8) of the participants and 71.43% (n = 20) were non-British nationals with 15 nationalities spread across the world. The ratio for the nationality of the respondents is not representative of students in business and administrative

undergraduate studies in the UK. Only 36% of students are international students in this subject countrywide (Higher Education Statistics Agency, 2013). The results can therefore not be generalised for undergraduate students studying business and administration in the UK.

C.4.2 Procedure.

A paper pencil questionnaire was distributed to students attending the undergraduate leadership module at the University of Exeter Business School in term 1 of the academic year 2010/11 (October–December 2010) in which the researcher facilitated tutorials together with another teacher. The aim of the module was to develop self-awareness and self-discovery to facilitate experience and learning about authentic leadership. Self-awareness and knowledge are crucial determinants of authenticity (Kernis & Goldman, 2006) and authentic leadership (Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005). The module further aimed to provide learning about the role of social identification for group processes and leadership. Therefore, the module created a real-life business scenario by simulating a consultancy work setting that would enforce work group identification.

The module consisted of weekly lectures, tutorials, group work sessions, and individual and group reflection exercises. The group work sessions aimed to provide experiential learning – an *outer* learning journey. The individual and group reflection exercises aimed to provide practice of self-reflection – an *inner* learning journey.

The outer learning journey revolves around social identification with the group, i.e. work group identification. Creating a company provided a real-

world scenario as the basis for the students' outer journey. To enable this journey the class was divided into work groups of four, representing consulting companies that had to complete certain tasks. At one point, only one consulting company would survive and all the others would have had to merge with it. The four group tasks, which had to be completed throughout the module, were based on this scenario.

In addition to these group tasks, the students had to fulfil individual and group reflection tasks, designed for the 'inner journey' that evolved around the authenticity of each student. The individual reflections consisted of personal development monitoring via reflection after each group task, keeping a reflective journal for the whole module, and giving feedback to group members. The assignment at the end of the module was to write a reflective essay incorporating theory with own experiences from the module. The group reflections were facilitated by keeping minutes of each group meeting, carrying out a group reflection after each main task, creating a summary of a 360-degree feedback after each main task. The 360-degree feedback focused on performance, motivation, and authenticity. Students were encouraged to reflect critically upon theoretical, experiential, and emotional aspects of their learning throughout the module.

In addition to the lectures, several tutorials were held, in which the questionnaire for this study was handed out. The questionnaire used in this study was handed out in week three (time 1) when the group formation was finalised and in week four (time 2) at which stage the students had just

submitted their first group task and had already filled in several individual reflections[53].

The first group task was to design a company culture, name, and logo. This task was designed to create work group identification. Through creating a logo a differentiating group identity was formed. Experiments based on the minimal group paradigm (Tajfel, 1971) have shown that even meaningless social groupings (e.g. randomly assigning people in a room red or blue stickers to attach to their clothing) lead to distinguishing the own group from others through in-group preference in cognitive and behavioural terms (e.g. distributing monetary funds; see also Mullen, Brown, & Smith, 1992).

I decided to collect and use the data in week three (time 1) and four (time 2) as a level of work group identification was present at time 1, due to the group formation, and levels of authenticity and work group identification should have risen to relatively high levels at time 2, due to the module tasks that had been completed by this time.

C.4.3 Material.

The questionnaire was designed to measure several predictor variables and several outcome variables. The questionnaires at time 1 and time 2 included the same measurement scales; however, at time 1 short versions of the scales were used to keep participants motivated to take part in the questionnaire study. (The items of the questionnaire are shown in detail in Appendices B1 and B2.) Time 1 was used as a baseline measure, as the

[53] More data was collected after the other three group tasks as a longitudinal study was planned. However, the sample size dropped with each additional measurement point as the students' attendance of the tutorials varied.

literature states that well-being is relatively stable and I wanted to make sure that the relationships found could be attributed to the predictor variables (see Section 4.4.1).

Authenticity and work group identification were measured with standard and self-formulated scales, as were the different well-being aspects of hedonic well-being (positive affect, negative affect, life satisfaction), eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow. All scales were measured on a 7-point Likert scale with 1 meaning ‘not at all’, 4 meaning ‘moderately’, and 7 meaning ‘completely’. Each scale used the wording: ‘To what extent do you/have you experienced. . .’. The constructs were operationalised by calculating the average of all items of one scale.

Demographic characteristics of the participants including gender, age, nationality, spirituality, and religion were also measured with the questionnaire. Reliability analyses (and factor analyses where applicable) supported the success of the operationalisation of the constructs.

Scale description.

Each scale is described in detail including item description and reliability[54]. Detailed results of the reliability analyses are displayed in Appendix C3.

Authenticity scale. Authenticity was measured through five self-formulated items based on Kernis and Goldman’s (2006) description of the dimensions of authenticity, as the scale is publicly available and Kernis and Goldman’s (2006) concept of authenticity is well known. They do not split their

[54] The reliability of the full scales used at time 2 are reported.

concept into intra- and interpersonal authenticity. However, their four authenticity dimensions can be divided into these two dimensions (see section 2.2.2.1).

I decided not to use the original items from Kernis and Goldman's (2006) authenticity scale, AUT-3, as I wanted to use short statements that were easy to understand and could be rated quickly to avoid questionnaire fatigue. For example, to measure unbiased processing I chose the short question 'Do you take on negative feedback?' instead of 'I am very uncomfortable objectively considering my limitations and shortcomings'. Furthermore, for the unbiased processing dimension, all items of Kernis and Goldman's scale are reverse scored. I also chose to formulate own items in order to make them fit to a work or studying environment. In relation to the authentic relations scale in particular, all items in Kernis and Goldman's (2006) scale refer to close relationships, whereas in this study the context was relationships with the work group.

As outlined in Section 2.2.2.2, Kernis and Goldman (2006) outline the dimensions of authenticity as (1) self-awareness, (2) unbiased processing, (3) authentic behaviour (or transparent actions), and (4) authentic relations. Self-awareness refers to awareness of and trust in own personal characteristics, values, motives, feelings, and cognitions. The item to measure this dimension reads 'Are you aware of what motivates you?' Unbiased processing is characterised by not denying, exaggerating or ignoring knowledge, experiences, and evaluations. The ability to process feedback accurately enables skills to be better estimated and self-challenging situations to be sought successfully. Two items were formulated to measure this dimension:

‘Do you take on negative feedback?’ and ‘Do you take on positive feedback?’ Authentic behaviour means that people act in accordance with their innate values, preferences, and needs rather than to avoid punishment or to please others. The item to measure this dimension reads ‘Do you behave according to your values?’ Authentic relations refers to an authentic orientation towards interpersonal relationships, which includes an active process of self-disclosure that leads to development of trust between people. The item to measure this dimension reads ‘Do you strive for openness in your relationships?’

As previously outlined, Kernis and Goldman’s (2006) scale does not distinguish between intra-and interpersonal authenticity in terms of the scale design. However, the four dimensions on which they measure authenticity can be divided according to the two domains of intra- and interpersonal authenticity. For the present self-formulated scale, the inter-item reliabilities show that self-awareness and unbiased processing were closely related; the same applied to authentic behaviour and authentic relations. The items can be used to form two separate scales to measure intra- and interpersonal authenticity.

The reliability of the intrapersonal authenticity scale is $\alpha = .56$ (see Appendix A4). This is an unsatisfactory reliability score. The results for statistical calculations using this scale should therefore be interpreted with caution. The inter-item reliability for the interpersonal authenticity scale is $r = .43$ (see Appendix A5). This is a strong correlative relationship (Coakes & Steed, 2001) and therefore a good inter-item-reliability. Reliability scores of existing authenticity scales could not be found.

Work group identification scale. Work group identification was measured through cognitive identification (items adapted from Haslam, 2004), emotional identification (items adapted from Haslam and Hinkle, see Haslam, 2004), and group opposition (items adapted from Hinkle, see Haslam, 2004). Three items were used for each dimension, except for group opposition, where two were used. The scale consists of eight items. The items to measure cognitive identification are: 'I do not feel a sense of being "connected" with other members of the group' (reverse scored); 'I am proud to be a member of our group'; and 'I have strong ties to my group'. The items to measure emotional identification are: 'Generally, I feel good when I think about myself as a member of my group'; 'In general, I'm glad to be a member of my group'; and 'In general, being a member of this group is an important part of my self-image'. The items to measure group opposition are: 'I feel uneasy with being a member of my group' and 'I feel held back by being a member of my group'[55]. The reliability of the scale is α = .72. The reliabilities of other scales measuring social identification ranges are higher (e.g. α = .89; Postmes, Haslam, & Jans, 2012).

Hedonic well-being scale. Based on Diener's (1984) concept, hedonic well-being was measured through positive and negative affect and life satisfaction. In current academic research hedonic well-being is measured either as an aggregate scale of all three dimensions or separately for each dimension, as there is still debate about whether positive and negative affect are independent or opposites of the same dimension (Diener, 2009).

[55] Ratings from this sub-scale were reverse coded when calculating the average score for social identification.

Furthermore, the tripartite structure of Diener's hedonic well-being concept is not confirmed (Busseri & Sadava, 2011). Therefore, I decided to use each dimension of hedonic well-being separately for the statistical calculations rather than building an aggregate score.

Items from Diener and Biswas-Diener's SPANE scale (scale of positive and negative experience; 2009 as cited in Diener et al., 2009, p. 262) were used to measure positive and negative affect. SPANE measures positive and negative affect by referring to specific emotions. The emotions for positive affect are being positive, happy, joyful, contented, and having fun. The emotions for negative affect are being negative, sad, afraid, angry, and frustrated. All items of the scale were used in this study. The SPANE scale relates to emotions experienced in general. In this study, however, instructions were given to rate whether the emotions were experienced when working with the group.

The reliability of the positive affect scale is $\alpha = .83$. SPANE achieved a reliability of $\alpha = .88$ in previous studies (Diener et al., 2009). For the negative affect scale, the reliability is $\alpha = .62$. This is lower than reliabilities found for the SPANE scale in other studies (see Diener et al., 2009).

Three items from the satisfaction with life scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985) were used to measure life satisfaction. The original scale consists of five items (for example, 'In most ways my life is close to my ideal'). The scale of life satisfaction used in this study has a reliability of $\alpha = .89$. In other studies the reliability of SWLS was found to be $\alpha = .84$ (Bayani, Koocheky, & Goodarzi, 2007).

Eudaimonic well-being scale. Eudaimonic well-being measures were used from Diener's psychological well-being scale (PWB; Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2009 as cited in Diener et al., 2009, p. 263).[56] They were reformulated from statements into questions. For example, the item 'I am optimistic about the future' was reformulated as 'To what extent are you optimistic about the future?' Diener's scale measures eudaimonic well-being with eight items along the dimensions of meaning and purpose, supportive and rewarding relationships, being engaged and interested, contributing to the well-being of others, competency, self-acceptance, optimism, and being respected. An example of an item from his scale is: 'I lead a purposeful and meaningful life' (dimension: meaning and purpose). In this study, the reliability of the scale is α = .86. The same Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was found for the scale when tested with 568 participants in a study by Diener, Nappa Scollon, and Lucas (2009).

Vigour scale. Vigour was measured with the Shirom-Melamed vigor measure (SMVM; Shirom & Melamed, 2005). The subscales are physical strength, emotional energy, and cognitive liveliness. The scale consists of 12 items. An example of an item from the scale is: 'I feel full of pep.' (dimension: physical strength). The scale refers to work in general. For this study the wording of the items was adapted to working with a group, e.g. 'Do you feel happy when you are working intensely *on your group work?*' (dimension: emotional energy). The reliability of the scale in this study is *α* = .92. No data

[56] I orginially planned to use Ryff's psychological well-being scale (Ryff, 1995). However, the literature does not recommend using a short version of the Ryff Scale (the full scale consists of 84 items; Seifert, 2005; van Dierendonck et al., 2008). This was borne out in this questionnaire study, too, as the reliability of the scale was unsatisfactory with *α* = .62. Therefore, I do not include this scale in the statistical analyses of this study.

on the reliability of the original scale were found but a qualitative study confirmed the factor structure of the concept (Shraga & Shirom, 2009).

Work engagement scale. To measure work engagement, the short version of the work and well-being survey adapted for students (UWES-S-9; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) was deployed. As the scale name indicates, the UWES-S-9 consists of nine items. An example of an item from the scale is: ‘Do you feel like going to class when you get up in the morning?’ (dimension: dedication). In the present study the scale had reliability of α = .84. The reliability of UWES-S-9 was found in other studies to be α = .90 (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Flow scale. To measure flow, the work-related flow (WOLF) scale was used (Bakker, 2008). This scale consists of 12 items measuring three dimensions of flow: absorption, intrinsic motivation, and enjoyment. An example of an item of the scale is: ‘Are you totally immersed in your work?’ (dimension: absorption). The scale refers to work in general. For this study the wording of the items was adapted to working with a group, e.g. ‘Do you feel happy during your work *for the group*?’ (dimension: enjoyment). The reliability of the scale in the present research is α = .87. This converges with Bakker (2008), who found construct reliabilities of the scale between α = .63 and α = .90.

Control measures. One item measured to what extent participants thought that they understood the questionnaire items. Due to the attendance

of international students (non-native speakers) it was important to include such a check. The mean of the item is *M* = 6.14 (*SD* = .80, Min = 4, Max = 7), indicating that participants had a good understanding of the items. The results of the statistical analysis based on the items are therefore valid.

Some students requested clarification of the terms ‘contented’ and ‘spiritual’ at time 1. Those terms were explained to them before they filled in the questionnaire. Some students found the flow-scale difficult to complete as they said that they had not done much group work. Implications from statistical results based on the flow scale at time 1 should therefore be drawn with caution. At time 2, a few students asked what ‘pep’ means (part of vigour scale). Here again an explanation was given to the students who asked for clarification before they answered the questionnaire item.

Other control measures were items on spirituality and religion. They were included in the questionnaire as they could have implications how participants responded to items referring to having a purpose and meaning in life (a dimension of eudaimonic well-being). Ten participants (35.71%) indicated that they were not at all to slightly spiritual. Eighteen participants (64.29%) indicated that they were moderately to very spiritual. Participants that indicated that they were spiritual also provided information regarding whether they had a religion. The predominant religion indicated was Christianity.

C.4.4 Data analysis procedure.

To see the correlations between the variables, calculations using Pearson’s ρ were chosen. The assumptions of correlational analysis are not violated. The

scatterplots (see Appendix A6) indicate that there are no extreme outliers, which would need to be removed from the data set. The Levene statistics show that normality is given for all variables except for negative affect and eudaimonic well-being (see Appendix A7). However, it is possible that even though normality is given in the population, in small samples it is not found (Field, 2009). Because of this, and because the other variables fulfil the normality assumption, Pearson's correlation analyses will still be used. The assumption of linearity is also fulfilled, as no curvilinear relationships between the variables are evident from the scatterplots. The shapes of the cluster also indicate that homoscedasticity is given.

Regression analyses were calculated with the well-being concepts as outcome variables and authenticity and work group identification as predictor variables. A multiple linear hierarchical regression (stepwise method) was chosen. The level of the well-being variables at time 1 was included in the first step of the regression and subsequently in the authenticity and work group identification. The level of the particular well-being variable at time 1 was included in the hierarchical regression as predictor variable in the first 'step'. This hierarchical regression procedure allowed me to determine the contribution of authenticity and work group identification, over and above the impact of previous well-being levels on the current well-being levels. I wanted to minimise conflating relationships that are produced through the use of self-report measures, cross-sectional data, and stability of well-being by controlling for past levels of well-being. As outlined in Section 4.4.1, hedonic well-being was found to be relatively stable over time (Chamberlain & Zika, 1992). The stability of hedonic well-being stems from personal dispositions as

moderators of hedonic well-being (Schimmack, Krause, Wagner, & Schupp, 2010). In particular, neuroticism and extraversion have been found to influence levels of hedonic well-being (set point theory of hedonic well-being, Diener, 2009). Age is a moderator variable for eudaimonic well-being (Ryff, 1995). The well-being aspects of vigour, work engagement, and flow are likely to be less stable as they are usually measured in relation to specific tasks. Flow has been found to continoulsy change during the work day (Ceja & Navarro, 2012). Furthermore, by controlling for time 1, I wanted to make sure that the change in well-being measured was due to development in the classroom.

It was decided to include the predictors of authenticity and work group identification simultaneously in the regression as each predictor is evaluated in terms of its predictive power over and above that offered by the other predictors (Pallant, 2005). Thus it was possible to answer the following question: ‘If authenticity and work group identification are happening at the same time, what is the driving force that impacts on well-being?’

The assumptions for regression analyses are that there are at least five times more cases than predictors (Coakes & Steed, 2001). However, there are also authors that give different outlines. Stevens (1996, as cited in Pallant, 2005, p. 142) recommends 15 subjects per predictor. Four predictors (intrapersonal authenticity, interpersonal authenticity, work group identification, and time 1 as covariate) were included and therefore the minimum requirement based on Coakes and Steed’s (2001) guideline is fulfilled. Singularity of the predictor variables is given, as the predictors used are not combinations of other predictors used. Multicollinearity is also given as

the predictors are not highly correlated with each other (below *r* = .90) and the tolerance scores in the collinearity statistics are above .10 (see Appendix A8). There are no major deviations from normality, as the normal probability plot shows. The data points lie in a reasonably straight line from bottom left to top right in the normality plot diagram. The independence of residuals, linearity, and homoscedasticity are also given as there is no clear or systematic pattern visible from the scatterplot of the standardised residuals. There are no outliers detectable from the scatterplots as none of the cases have a residual of more than 3.3 or less than -3.3 (see Appendix A8).

C.5 Results

In this section, the results of the inferential statistical testing of the hypothesis are presented in order to establish whether the predictor variables of authenticity and work group identification do in fact predict well-being levels. Before the regression results are presented, the results of the correlations as preliminary analysis are outlined. They describe the patterns of links between the variables assessed in this study. The correlation results outlined in Table 4.1 show that there is a positive correlative link between the predictor and outcome variables. Furthermore, Table 4.1 shows that the means of all variables are quite high (on a Likert scale from 1 to 7), except for negative affect, which is low.

Table 4.1.

Overview of mean and standard deviation for each variable and correlations between the variables (at time 2)

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Positive affect	5.23 (1.04)									
2. Negative affect	-.03	1.68 (.72)								
3. Life satisfaction	.48**[57]	-.04	4.75 (1.19)							
4. Eudaimonic well-being	.42*[58]	-.33	.52**	5.55 (.68)						
5. Vigour	.60**	-.26	.38*	.63**	4.97 (.92)					
6. Work engagement	.67**	-.14	.56**	.69**	.87**	4.95 (1.13)				
7. Flow	.61**	.05	.64**	.46*	.67**	.81	4.53 (.92)			
8. Intrapersonal authenticity	.10	.32	.29	.51**	.30	.30	.21	5.38 (.88)		
9. Interpersonal authenticity	.41*	-.15	.52**	.62**	.47*	.57	.40**	.26**	5.62 (.76)	
10. Work group identification	.52**	.29	.45*	.26	.42**	.61	.59*	.37	.35**	5.24 (.71)

[57] ** indicates that the correlation is significant at the $p = 0.01$ level (2-tailed).
[58] * indicates that the correlation is significant at the $p = 0.05$ level (2-tailed).

The found correlations between the predictor and outcome variables suggest that authenticity and work group identification are linked to well-being, however, not with all well-being variables. Intrapersonal authenticity correlates positively with eudaimonic well-being only. Interpersonal authenticity correlates positively with positive affect, life satisfaction, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, and flow but not with negative affect and work engagement. Work group identification correlates positively with positive affect, life satisfaction, vigour, and work engagement and not with negative affect, eudaimonic well-being, and flow.

The outcome variables also correlate amongst each other, indicating that they are related (see also Section 4.4.3.2). Of particular interest, however, is the result that negative affect is not correlated to any of the predictor variables and neither with any other outcome variable.

Correlation analyses were also done with all well-being variables and demographic variables of age and spirituality. These latter two variables were found to influence well-being in previous research (Perry-Frankel, 1998; Ryff, 1995). In the present study, the only significant correlation exists between spirituality and life satisfaction (r = .52, significant on p = .001; two-sided), suggesting the more spiritual people are, the higher their life satisfaction.

Hierarchical regression analyses (conducted in SPSS Version 20) were used to test the main effects of authenticity and work group identification on the different well-being aspects. Well-being measures used were hedonic well-being (positive affect, negative affect, life satisfaction), eudaimonic well-being, vigour, work engagement, and flow. Separate analyses were

performed for each well-being aspect. A predictor was interpreted when its unique contribution was significant.

Based on the results of the regression analyses, hypothesis 1 (intra- and interpersonal authenticity has a positive influence on well-being) can only be verified for the well-being variables of eudaimonic well-being and work engagement. Higher intrapersonal authenticity was associated with higher levels of eudaimonic well-being, $B = 0.24$, $t(27) = 2.03$, $p < .05$. Higher interpersonal authenticity was associated with higher levels of work engagement, $B = 0.54$, $t(27) = 2.46$, $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 2 (work group identification has a positive influence on well-being) could only be confirmed for positive affect and flow. Higher work group identification was associated with higher levels of positive affect, $B = 0.61$, $t(27) = 2.41$, $p < .05$. Over and above levels of flow at time 1 ($B = .43$, $t(27) = 2.95$, $p < .05$.), higher work group identification was associated with increased levels of flow ($B = .44$, $t(27) = 2.17$, $p < .05$.).

Negative affect, life satisfaction, and vigour were not linked to authenticity or work group identification. Table 4.2 displays the results of the regression analyses and in the following paragraphs the relationships are outlined for each well-being aspect in more detail.

Table 4.2.

Summary of simple regression analyses for variables predicting well-being (N = 28)

	Positive Affect			Negative Affect			Life Satisfaction			Eudaimonic Well-Being			Vigour			Work Engagement			Flow		
Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Level of outcome variable at time 1	0.26	0.19	0.28	0.01	0.14	0.02	0.49	0.19	0.43*	0.31	0.18	0.32	0.03	0.16	0.04	0.31	0.17	0.33	0.43	0.14	0.46*
Work group identification	0.61	0.25	0.44*	0.28	0.20	0.29	0.38	0.26	0.24	-0.04	0.14	-0.04	0.29	0.25	0.23	0.38	0.29	0.26	0.44	0.20	0.36*
Intrapersonal authenticity	-0.26	0.22	-0.22	0.24	0.17	0.29	0.02	0.22	0.01	0.24	0.12	0.31*	0.11	0.21	0.10	-0.03	0.19	-0.02	-0.13	0.16	0.41
Interpersonal authenticity	0.22	0.27	0.16	-0.31	0.19	-0.32	0.41	0.26	0.26	0.32	0.16	0.36	0.43	0.23	0.35	0.54	0.22	0.37*	0.27	0.18	0.14
R^2	.29		.09				.42			.51			.18			.50			.49		
F	3.73*		1.17				5.90**			8.04**			2.58			7.72**			7.41**		

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$

C.6 Discussion

The present research aimed to find out whether there are relationships between the identity-related resources of authenticity and work group identification and different aspects of well-being. The results of the regression analyses suggest that when self-development and group work are encouraged, there are relationships between authenticity, work group identification, and several well-being variables. However, the relationships differed for each of the well-being aspects. In the following paragraphs the specific relationships are discussed in relation to the literature.

C.6.1 The relationship of identity-related resources with hedonic well-being.

The relationship of authenticity and social identification with hedonic well-being will be discussed for each dimension of hedonic well-being (i.e. positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction) separately in the following sections.

The relationship of identity-related resources with positive affect. It was found that work group identification has a positive relationship with positive affect. Based on the dimensions of social identification that were measured in this study (cognitive, emotional, and group opposition), one can argue that a higher identification with the group would align with a higher positive affect, as the emotional identification-item refers to whether one feels good when thinking about oneself as part of the group. Furthermore, the cognitive identification item asked about whether one feels connected with the group. This resembles a feeling of belonging. This could be an explanation why a

high identification with the group was linked to positive affect. The group was a central part of the activity of the participants within the study context. Therefore, feeling good about being part of the group and feeling connected to that group would lead to positive affect.

The relationship of identity-related resources with negative affect. That no relationships were found between the identity-related resources and negative affect could be due to the fact that the context of the group work supported authenticity and work group identification and both were in alignment with the group tasks. They were seen as positive in the context and, therefore, no negative affect would result from being authentic and identify highly with the group. However, if one was to see positive and negative affect as opposites of one dimension (Tellegen, 1985), a negative relationship would have been expected at least for work group identification as the latter was found to have a positive relationship with positive affect. However, no correlative relationship was found between positive and negative affect (see Table 4.1). This suggests that both concepts are distinct from another (see also Cacioppo & Berntson, 1999; Russell & Carroll, 1999; Russell, 2008) in this context. Therefore, there was a lack of mirroring the patterns of the relationship between the identity-related resources and positive affect.

The relationship of identity-related resources with life satisfaction. No relationship of identity-related resources with life satisfaction was found. However, life satisfaction was linked to its level at time 1. For some people,

their authenticity and social identification in a specific university module might not be relevant antecedents of their satisfaction with their life as a student on the whole. Another reason for not finding a relationship with authenticity and work group identification might be that the work conducted in the groups and individually might not have been sufficient to change authenticity levels and emotional and cognitive ties with the work group (i.e. work group identification) to the extent that it would have an impact on their satisfaction with their life as a student. Levels of authenticity and work group identity might have had to be even higher to be prevalent in someone's life as a student to affect their satisfaction with their life.

Although not originally planned, additional analyses were conducted: As life satisfaction was not linked to authenticity or work group identification, a regression analysis with spirituality as predictor was calculated. I wanted to see whether spirituality as an aspect that influences a person's life in general is a better predictor. Correlational analyses suggested a relationship (see Section 4.3) and spirituality was linked to life satisfaction in the regression analyses ($B = .52$, $t(27) = 3.11$, $p < .05$.).

Although there is debate that religiousness and spirituality are not the same (e.g. Gallup, 2003), indications from research on the effect of religion on life satisfaction can be used with care to interpret the relationship between spirituality and life satisfaction. The relationship between life satisfaction and religiousness is well documented (Headey, Schupp, Tucci, & Wagner, 2010) and researchers argue that aspects of having faith or a religion contributes to life satisfaction and well-being by offering community and social networks (Lim & Putnam, 2010; Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2010; Perry-Frankel, 1998), hope,

and meaning systems (Perry-Frankel, 1998). Limitations of the relationship are whether the resident country facilitates being religious (Snoep, 2008) and whether the religion actually supports a person's need for belonging (Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2010).

C.6.2 The relationship of identity-related resources with eudaimonic well-being.

The relationship found between intrapersonal authenticity and eudaimonic well-being replicates some of the findings from a study set in a working context (Ménard & Brunet, 2011) that found relationships between authenticity and hedonic and eudaimonic well-being (the latter conceptualised only with items from the meaning dimension) also with regression analyses.

The relationship between intrapersonal authenticity and eudaimonic well-being can be explained by mapping the authenticity dimension of self-awareness onto the eudaimonic well-being dimensions of self-acceptance, autonomy, and environmental mastery (Ilies et al., 2005; see Section 2.2.3.2): If individuals know themselves better and take on criticism, they know their personal characteristics and can integrate them into a stable self-concept and self-acceptance upon which autonomy and environmental mastery can also be built. Furthermore, individuals know what they are good and not so good at, they can control their environment and seek tasks and challenges that fit their abilities and needs. However, the latter is only possible in a context where autonomy is experienced. In an environment where there is no control over the tasks one has to fulfil, indeed low eudaimonic well-being might follow. Also in an environment where intrapersonal authenticity in terms of self-

awareness is experienced but the environment does not support environmental mastery or autonomy because work tasks are heavily regulated, low eudaimonic well-being is likely to be experienced.

C.6.3 The relationship of identity-related resources with vigour.

As vigour was not linked to authenticity, work group identification, or levels of the variable at time 1[59], I checked whether it was linked to any of the well-being variables that have a relationship with authenticity and work group identification (i.e. positive affect, eudaimonic well-being, work engagement, and flow). I included all well-being variables in one regression with simultaneous inclusion ('enter' method) as the variables are connected and I did not want to create spurious connections. The regression results suggest that work engagement is linked to vigour ($B = .91$, $t(27,4) = 3.95$, $p < .05$). This is not surprising as one of the dimensions of work engagement is vigour (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Furthermore, being engaged in and dedicated to group work could lead to the experience of cognitive and emotional energy in relation to this group work and other group members. There are studies that suggest that that flow (at work) is a predictor of vigour (after work; Demerouti et al., 2012). This result was not replicated in my study. However, I focused on the relationships of the variables solely in within a work context and not like the mentioned study at vigour experiences during and after work.

[59] I presumed stability of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being but not for vigour, work engagement, and flow. Life satisfaction was influenced by its levels at time 1. That the other hedonic variables and eudaimonic well-being were not influenced by its levels at time 1 is surprising. That flow was influenced by its levels at time 1 could be an artefact from the answering difficulties the participants had with this scale (see Section C.3.3.1). The response pattern might not reflect the actual state of flow.

I also tested whether the subscales of vigour were linked to authenticity and work group identification. It could be hypothesised that no relationships were found between vigour and the predictor variable because of the physical energy component of vigour. It is unlikely that physical energy is affected by cognitive and emotional variables such as authenticity and work group identification. However, emotional and cognitive energy should have a connection to authenticity and work group identification. Interpersonal authenticity could be connected to emotional energy, for example. Interpersonal authenticity creates positive relations with others if the group shares the same values and if they have a purpose they work towards together (like in this study context). Emotional energy means emotionally investing in others. Cognitive energy was expected to have a connection to intrapersonal authenticity. In a context similar to the one of this study, intrapersonal authenticity would lead to the ability to determine a fitting task for one's own skills and strengths and that are important to oneself. The analyses show however that only interpersonal authenticity is linked to emotional vigour (B = .43, $t(27)$ = 2.48, p < .05.). No relationships were found between authenticity, work group identification and the dimensions of cognitive (F = [27,4] = 2.04, p = .12) and physical vigour (F = [24,4] = .45, p = .77).

It is likely that the group dynamics influence the relationship between authenticity and vigour. If there is alignment between the group members in terms of their values and work goals then a person's authenticity in this context is good for their well-being when working in the group. However, in a different context, where an autocratic leader imposes work engagement rules

contrary to the one's of individual group members or if all group members do have different values, then authenticity is unlikely to be positively linked to the group members' well-being.

C.6.4 The relationship of identity-related resources with work engagement.

Interpersonal authenticity was found to be linked to work engagement in the context of this study. It could be argued that authentic behaviour, in terms of behaving in accordance with one's values and needs, brings a concordance in needs and work goals. Because of this concordance, an individual would show great engagement in those work goals. Authentic relationships could lead to work engagement, particularly when a group has to work on a task together and can facilitate work engagement through open and supportive relationships.

As outlined, authenticity was at the core of the group task the participants of this study had to fulfil. This is likely the reason why the connection with work engagement was found. Also, interpersonal authenticity was supported in this context. In a different context, where interpersonal authenticity is not supported or an autocratic leader imposes work engagement rules contrary to the one's of individual group members, then authenticity is unlikely to be positively linked to the group members' well-being. In yet another context, where interpersonal relationships are not needed to complete those successfully, a relationship between interpersonal authenticity and work engagement might not hold true for work on individual tasks. Also, interpersonal authenticity might not be needed in order to

experience work engagement if expectations how work is to be conducted are known and/or aligned between the group members.

C.6.5 The relationship of identity-related resources with flow.

It was also found that identification with the group is linked to flow over and above the influence of flow levels at time 1. This result suggests that flow is experienced because the salient work group identity provides resources to master the task. A cognitive resource, for example, is that this social identity provides a sense of meaning for the group tasks the students had to fulfil. This resource would only facilitate flow, however, if (1) the task would provide enough challenge but did not supersede individual competency levels (Csíkszentmihályi, 1992); and (2) if there is congruency between the task goal and the goal of the whole group to perform well in this task. That there was no other relationship for work group identification found with work engagement and vigour apart from flow is surprising, as these concepts relate to dedication to and absorption in a task. However, work engagement and vigour both include an energy component that work group identification might not have an impact on.

C.6.6 Limitations of the study.

The main limitations of the study are that it has a small sample size and it furthermore was conducted within a higher education setting rather than in an organizational setting. Empirical investigations with structural equation models, for example, could have determine how much postulated components contribute to the experience of workplace well-being and the relevance of

identity-related resources for attaining workplace well-being. Specific limitations are discussed in the following sections.

Testability of constructs. The testability of the research objective with questionnaire scales can be interrogated. Authenticity and some well-being aspects are stable phenomena on an average level but are likely to be dynamic and fluctuate on a daily basis (Harris & Daniels, 2005; Harris, Daniels, & Briner, 2003). Also current affect might be especially important in their fluctuation as it could influence judgements about whether one has high or low levels in the other well-being aspects (affect heuristic; Finucane, Ahakami, Slovic, & Johnson, 2000). However, with a questionnaire study, only snapshots of the phenomena can be taken.

Furthermore, with authenticity, only self-referential attitudes were measured and not actual behaviour (interpersonal authentic behaviour). In Study 3 however, as focus groups were conducted, individuals' reported authenticity experience, in terms of how authentic they are in their work relationships, which can be validated by the other focus group participants. In addition, the scale for intrapersonal authenticity did not have a satisfactory reliability score. Furthermore, ideally identical scales in terms of the scale length would be beneficial to use for all constructs measured in the study rather than using short scales at time 1.

In addition, inter-correlations between all the constructs used in the present research make this research vulnerable to the critique of letting the phenomenon predicting itself. Therefore, in Study 3, focus group and interview data were collected to gather information on how participants

experience well-being and its relationship with authenticity and social identification.

Low sample size used for regression analysis. That some links could not be found in the regression analyses could be due to the fact that the sample size was too small and the power of the regression analysis was therefore too low. The achieved power of the analyses used, presuming a medium effect size, is .19, which is considered low. To achieve a power of .95 the sample should have been N = 129. The sensitivity of the current tests (required effect size when lacking high power with current sample) is R^2 = 1.28. With this small sample the interpretations of the explained variance (based on R^2) should therefore be treated cautiously and have not been interpreted in this study.

Cross-sectional design. Originally this study was intended to be a longitudinal study with four measurement points in order to measure the relationships of authenticity and social identification over time and to be able to draw implications on predictive relationships. Furthermore, longitudinal research is particularly necessary in determining impact of resources for well-being. Positive resources might turn into negative resources. As previously outlined, a person that practices forgiveness in an abusive relationship might experience short term well-being due to practicing forgiveness. In the long-term, well-being is lowered as the person does not leave the situation that is detrimental to their well-being as they forgive the abusive partner every time they experience abuse (McNulty & Finchman, 2012). In addition, only

longitudinal research is able to explore whether and for how long benefits observed in post-intervention tests might last. This was originally intended for this study; however, each time a different set of participants was missing. Using all times (longitudinal study) would have therefore reduced the sample size to *N* = 20. Therefore it was decided to use only two time points. By using two time points, the study still opens up future research avenues as it shows that this research design might be a valuable approach for future studies that aim to find relevant predictors even for relatively stable well-being aspects.

In order to see whether the relationships found suggest phenomena that can be observed in the workplace, Study 3 uses a qualitative method to explore whether authenticity and work group identification are described as antecedents of well-being in participant narratives.

Convenience sample. The study should also be replicated with a different sample composition to be able to generalise the results found here with students to a working population. However, in order to be able to collect data in a study context where authenticity and social identification levels could be manipulated, it was necessary to use a student sample. Study 3 aimed to replicate the results of the present study with qualitative data obtained from a sample of managers and staff.

Data collection method. This study also raises questions for how well-being should be measured. The correlation analyses showed high interrelationships. This has several implications. Firstly, this could mean that the variables are not distinct from one another and measure the same

construct. It could also mean that the variables have a measurement overlap. The results of the regression analyses suggest that the variables show overlap rather than measuring the same construct, as the relationships of predictor variables with the well-being variables differed. Secondly, as it is difficult to disentangle the well-being components empirically it would mean that definitions that focus on one aspect of well-being do not capture the complete phenomenon. The concepts are all connected to each other. This corresponds to the notion proposed by Ryan and Deci (2001) who emphasise that well-being is multifaceted and is therefore unlikely to be captured by a single instrument measuring one aspect. Data should be collected on several well-being aspects.

Interviews or experience sampling methods might also be appropriate measurement tools to explore (1) whether people who work see several components of well-being as part of their well-being experience; (2) not only if but *how* the predictors influence well-being; and (3) whether there are differences in the predictive relationship for different well-being aspects. The exploration of possible mediators and moderators might also prove fruitful for understanding the dynamic relationships between the constructs and for designing well-being interventions. This study, however, was carried out to shed light on the existence of links between authenticity and work group identification and the different well-being aspects. However, in Study 3, participants were asked to report the components of their well-being experience and how authenticity and work group identification influence their well-being to shed some light on what is experienced as important

components of well-being and how particular antecedents might affect well-being.

Study design. Different research designs might show greater insight into the workings of the link between authenticity, work group identification, and well-being. In the setting of this study, identity-related resources were enabled. It would therefore be valuable to explore whether those resources are seen as relevant if they are not enabled to the same extent. Furthermore, it was not found that work group identification has a positive influence on negative affect, eudaimonic well-being, vigour, or work engagement. It would be interesting to see whether the same relationships hold in different contexts and if they do, whether the levels of the measured variables were higher or indeed much lower. Would high levels of work group identification predict a wider range of well-being aspects? Would lower levels of work group identification still be a predictor for positive affect and flow? In relation to this, non-linear relationships between the predictors and well-being might be worthy of investigation (see also Karanika-Murray & Cox, 2010). A further step in terms of a qualitative approach was taken in Study 3, which explored how people talk about antecedents of well-being. It further explored what the level of authenticity and social identification in their work environment was and whether they recognised the importance of authenticity and work group identification as predictors of their workplace well-being. Also, the perspectives of two different groups in the organisation were investigated in order to determine whether these identity-related resources are seen as relevant in different job settings.

C.6.7 Summary and conclusion.

A positive picture for relationships between identity-related resources and well-being was drawn in this study. The regression analyses show that the identity-related resources seem to be, in this context, relevant for particular aspects of well-being rather than all. In the environment in which the study took place, authenticity was encouraged, social identification with the work group was strong, and being authentic and working in a team were both in alignment with the group task contents and goals the participants had to fulfill.

Identification with the work group had a positive relationship with positive affect. Feeling close to and good about the group seems to lead to experiencing contentment, fun, happiness, joy, and feeling positive. This relationship was observed in an environment where working together with the group was enabled and supported. Identification with the work group had furthermore a positive influence on flow. A strong identification and alignment of the identity with the group task (identity of the group based on their work) that were present in this context are likely to be the reason why flow was experienced when working on the task.

Intrapersonal authenticity had a positive relationship with eudaimonic well-being. Having self-awareness and self-knowledge in an environment where both are encouraged seems to lead to the experience of meaning and environmental mastery amongst other eudaimonic well-being components. Further, interpersonal authenticity had a positive relationship with work engagement. The fact that authenticity was at the core of the group task the participants had to fulfill in the context of this study would likely lead to the link between interpersonal authenticity and work engagement. That different

relationships with well-being aspects were found for intra- and interpersonal authenticity suggests that it is worth distinguishing between the two aspects of authenticity when exploring how authenticity influences the experience of well-being.

For the well-being concepts of negative affect, life satisfaction, and vigour no relationships were found with the identity-related resources. These results give rise to the supposition that identity-related resources are not in all cases relevant antecedents for well-being. For example, for some people, their authenticity and social identification in a specific university module might not be relevant antecedents of their life satisfaction.

Particularly interesting is that, in the context of this study, no relationships were found between identity-related resources and negative affect and that negative affect did not correlate with other well-being variables either. These findings suggest that stress and well-being might be not interlinked in the context of this particular study. This link will be explored further in Study 3 which took place in a different work context. It is explored whether the context has an influence on the findings. If the questionnaire was completed, for example, within a call centre, where little autonomy is experienced, authenticity is restrained through the work environment, and where group members do not have to work collaboratively (group has no impact on task behavior), it might be that different results on the relationships between identity-related resources and well-being would be found. In an environment that is additionally characterised by low well-being and the experience of stressors, the link between positive and negative affect might actually be drawn.

The interpretations of the results suggest that there are context variables that influence the relationship between the identity-related resources and well-being. These variables are likely to be different for several work contexts. Variables that were highlighted in the context of this study are group dynamics and work setting.

Group dynamics could influence the relationship between the identity-related resources and well-being in multiple ways. If there is alignment between the group members in terms of their values and work goals then a person's authenticity in this context is good for their well-being when working in the group. However, if an autocratic leader imposes work engagement rules contrary to the one's of individual group members, then authenticity is unlikely to be positively linked to the group members' well-being.

In a work setting environment where authenticity is not enabled due to work practices (e.g. heavily regulated task processes), authenticity is unlikely to be able to be enacted and therefore cannot have a relationship with workplace well-being in this context. In another work setting where there is, for example, a lack of autonomy, authenticity in terms of self-awareness might lead to negative eudaimonic well-being as one becomes aware of one's lack of autonomy and environmental mastery which are both part of eudaimonic well-being.

How authenticity and social identification influence well-being in a particular work context is explored further in Study 3. In that study both resources are not explicitly supported like in the present study. Furthermore, in Study 3 explorations can be made into whether different levels of authenticity and social identification with the work group and the organisation

have a different influence on well-being. Two groups are questioned that have work settings that enable each resource to a different extent.

Appendices.

A1. Questionnaire Wave 1

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Caroline Rook, CLS, Xfi Building, Rennes Drive, Exeter EX4 4ST
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Dear student

As you discussed in lecture 2, leadership and well-being are interlinked.You have time during the tutorials to reflect upon and discuss those issues with the help of this questionnaire which is part of the required course work. Also, there is a research project being undertaken at CLS which looks at exactly those issues. This is a PhD project undertaken by myself and supervised by Dr Inmaculada Adarves-Yorno and Anne O'Brien.

Purpose of WELL-BEING-INSIGHT

So completing this WELL-BEING-INSIGHT-questionnaire has two purposes: 1) Helping you to reflect on your experience of well-being during this module. You might even want to use this questionnaire to help write your journal and for use in your portfolio. 2) Helping to collect data for a research project at the Centre of Leadership Studies which is looking at well-being in places were people work and study. If you are not happy for your questionnaire to be part of the research, please let me know and I will not include it in the database.

Procedure of working with WELL-BEING-INSIGHT

You will be given an WELL-BEING-INSIGHT-Questionnaire at the end of each tutorial. That means that you will complete 5 WELL-BEING-INSIGHT-questionnaires in total. It should take **10 minutes** to fill in this WELL-BEING-INSIGHT-questionnaire and then you will have 15 minutes with your group and myself to discuss any issues, ideas and reflection that were triggered while completing the questionnaire.

For an overview of when you fill in the questionnaires and what happens afterwards, please refer to the overview on the back of this sheet.

Anonymity

This survey is anonymous. However, we need a way to check that you completed each questionnaire as part of the course requirements and also to connect the responses from this questionnaire to your responses of the future questionnaires. To do this we would like you to provide us with your student number on the questionnaire.

Confidentiality

All information collected in this survey is confidential and will be stored in a secure place. The data collected for the research project will be compared with results from other research studies in order to gain a current understanding of attitudes and behaviours in places were people work and study. Your participation is very much appreciated as it helps to support current research in this field.

If you have any other questions please ask me; I am available personally throughout the whole time of the tutorials!

Caroline Rook

Caroline Rook

******** You can keep this sheet for your reference. ********

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Plan of tutorial and completion of WELL-BEING-INSIGHT-questionnaires

	25 min Group work	25 min INSIGHT questionnaire	after tutorial
Week 1	NO TUTORIAL		
Week 2	NO TUTORIAL		
Week 3	• Finding your group • Discussion of paper "discovering your authentic leadership" George et al., 2007 9HBR	• Filling in INSIGHT 1 • Discussion & reflection	• Use reflections from discussion for your journal • INSIGHT 1 data will be put into research database
Week 4	• Submission of task 1: Name and Logo of the company (etc) • 360 evaluation introduction	• Return of INISGHT 1 for your files • Filling in INSIGHT 2 • Discussion & reflection	• Use reflections from discussion for your journal • INSIGHT 2 data will be put into research database
Week 5	TIME TO WORK IN GROUPS		
Week 6	TIME TO WORK IN GROUPS		
Week 7	• Discussion after the persuasive presentations and the election of the two winners	• Return of INISGHT 2 for your files • Filling in INSIGHT 3 • Discussion & reflection	• Use reflections from discussion for your journal • INSIGHT 3 data will be put into research database
Week 8	TIME TO WORK IN GROUPS		
Week 9	• Will be specified closer to the time	• Return of INISGHT 3 for your files • Filling in INSIGHT 4 • Discussion & reflection	• Use reflections from discussion for your journal • INSIGHT 4 data will be put into research database
Week 10	• Will be specified closer to the time	• Return of INISGHT 4 for your files • Filling in INSIGHT 5 • Discussion & reflection	• Use reflections from discussion for your journal • INSIGHT 5 data will be put into research database
Week 11	• Will be specified closer to the time	• return of INSIGHT 5	

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WELL-BEING-INSIGHT 1

Student number

Please provide us with your student number for relating the 5 questionnaires to each other:

How to answer the questionnaire items

In this WELL-BEING-INSIGHT-questionnaire there will be statements and questions relating to your well-being generally at this time over the last few weeks. For each item please tick the number behind each item which best describes your opinion. There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please complete all items of the questionnaire and tick the answer which comes first to your mind. There is also space beside the response scales where you can put down comments and reflections for yourself.

Below are statements relating to your life as a student. Please indicate to what extent each statement describes you at present over the last few weeks.

To what extent ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. are you satisfied with your life as a student?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. do you lead a purposeful and meaningful life?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. are your social relationships supportive and rewarding?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. are you engaged and interested in your daily activities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. are you competent and capable of activities that are important to you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. are you optimistic about the future?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. do people respect you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. do you have confidence in your opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. do you feel, in general, that you are in charge of the situation in which you live?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. do you think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. would people describe you as a giving person, willing to share your time with others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. do you like most aspects of your personality?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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Looking back over the last few weeks, to what extent are you satisfied with the following aspects of your daily life?

To what extent are you satisfied with ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. the amount of leisure time you have?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. your health?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. the actual home or place you live in?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. the help, support and friendship others show you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. your financial situation and security?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

The following statements are about how you feel regarding your studies. Please read each statement and indicate to what extent each of you have currently felt these over the last few weeks.

T o what extent ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. do your studies inspire you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. do you feel like going to class when you get up in the morning?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. do you feel happy when you are studying intensely?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Below are a number of statements that describe different feelings that you may feel when studying. Please rate to what extent you have felt each of the following feelings over the last few weeks while studying.

To what extent did you ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. feel energised?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. have a feeling of vitality?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. were you thinking rapidly?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. feel able to show warmth to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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Please think about what you have been doing for university and indicate to what extent you experienced each of the following feelings at present over the last few weeks.

	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
joyful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
contended	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
frustrated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

The following items refer to the way in which you experienced your studies during the last few weeks. Some of the items might appear similar to some you have already answered, but it would be great if you could answer these as well. Please indicate to what extent you experienced each of the them at present over the last few weeks.

To what extent ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. do you forget everything else around you, when you are studying?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. do your studies give you a good feeling?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. do you do it for yourself , when you are working on something related to your studies?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Below are statements relating to personal characteristics. Please indicate to what extent each statement describes you at present.

To what extent ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. do you strive for openness in your relationships?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. do you behave according to your values?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. do you take on negative feedback?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. do you take on positive feedback?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. are you aware of what motivates you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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Finally, it would be helpful for me if you could provide some demographic information about yourself so that I can describe the general characteristics of the people who have responded to this questionnaire.

1. You are a: ☐ male ☐ female 2. How old are you?: _____

2. You are a: ☐ domestic student ☐ international student

3. Your nationality: _____

4. To what extent do you consider yourself to be spiritual?

   Not at all — moderately — completely

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Do you relate to a specific religion? ☐ yes _____ (please specify) ☐no

6. To what extent have you understood the items of this questionnaire?

   Not at all — moderately — completely

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If you have any thoughts which were stimulated by this questionnaire or if you have any other comments, we would really appreciate if you would briefly note them down.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Many thanks for your participation!

If you you are not happy with this questionnaire to be part of the CLS research project please let me know and I will make sure that it will not be put into the database!

Also, if you do not feel very well after filling in the questionnaire(s) or after reflecting upon the answers, please do contact Inma and you can talk about this privately!

A2. Questionnaire Wave 2

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WELL-BEING-INSIGHT 2

Please fill in this WELL-BEING-INSIGHT-Questionnaire 2 which should take **20 minutes**.

Student number: _____

(Please provide us with your student number for relating the 5 questionnaires to each other.)

How to answer the questionnaire items:

In this WELL-BEING-INSIGHT-Questionnaire there will be statements and questions relating to your group work which is part of this module. The items we would like you to respond to are similar to the ones from the WELL-BEING-INISGHT 1-questionnaire you already filled in. Please do fill them in again as we are interested in your current views on different aspects of your group work. Please tick the number behind each item which best describes your opinion. There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please complete all items of the questionnaire and tick the answer which comes first to your mind. There is also space beside the response scales where you can put down comments and reflections for yourself.

The following statements relate to you in your role within your group. For each item please circle the number which best describes you.

Please write down the name of your group first: _____

To what extent ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. do you feel good when you think about yourself as a member of your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. do you have a sense of being "connected" with other members of your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. is being a member of this group an important part of your self-image?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. are you glad to be a member of your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. do you feel uneasy with being a member of your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. are you proud to be a member of your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. do you have strong ties to your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. do you feel held back by being a member of your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. do you see yourself as a business student?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. do you value many aspects which come along with being a student?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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Doing group work means having and gaining different skills and knowledge but it also means having different tasks and demands. Please indicate by circling the appropriate number to what extent the following criteria apply to your group work.

To what extent ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. do you have the opportunity to control your work autonomously within your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. are you clear about what is expected from you in your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. do you have a variation in the tasks you have to fullfil in opposition to repeatedly having to do the same thing over and over again in your group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. are you clear about what the performance requirements of your group work are?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. do you receive feedback on your work and your progress by your lecturer?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. do you feel you can use skills you have and develop them further?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. do you feel you have support from your fellow group members?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. do you feel supported by the lecturer?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. do you enjoy being around your group members?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. do you feel you have so much work to do, that you cannot do everything well?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. are the facilities sufficient for you to work and learn in an appropriate manner (enough space in lecture theatre, access to working space in the library, availability of other learning spaces, spaces to take breaks, eat etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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Below are a number of statements that describe different feelings that you may feel when doing your work for and in your group. Please indicate to what extent you experience each of the following feelings while doing the work.

To what extent do you ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. feel full of pep?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. feel you have physical strength?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. feel vigorous?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. feel energised?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. have a feeling of vitality?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. were you thinking rapidly?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. feel you are able to contribute new ideas?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. feel able to be creative?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. feel able to show warmth to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. feel able to be sensitive to the needs of your fellow group members?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. feel you are capable of investing emotionally in your fellow group members?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. feel capable of being sympathetic to your fellow group members?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Please think about what you have been doing and experiencing during your group work today and report to what extent you experienced each of the following feelings.

	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
joyful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
contended	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
frustrated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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The following statements are about how you feel regarding your group work. Please read each statement and indicate on the scale to what extent they describe you.

To what extent...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. do you feel bursting with energy, when you are doing your work in and for the group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. do you feel energetic and capable when working in and for the group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. are you enthusiastic about the group work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. does the group work inspire you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. do you feel like going to class when you get up in the morning?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. do you feel happy when you are working intensely on your group work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. are you proud of your work in the group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. are you immersed in the group work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. do you get carried away when you are doing work for and in the group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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The following statements refer to the way in which you experienced your group work so far. Some of the items might appear similar to some you have already answered, but it would be great if you could answer these as well. Please indicate to what extent you experience each of them.

To what extent ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. do you think about nothing else, when you are working for the group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. do you find that you are also wanting to work for the group project in your free time?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. do you get carried away by your work for the group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. do you forget everything else around you, when you are doing your group work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. do you feel cheerful when you are working on the group project?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. does your group work give you a good feeling?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. are you doing it for yourself, when you are working on something related to the group work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. are you doing your work for the group with a lot of enjoyment?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. do you get your motivation from the work itself, and not from the reward for it?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. would you still do this work, even if you would received a lower degree?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. are you totally immersed in your work for the group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. do you feel happy during your work for the group?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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Below are statements relating to your life as a student. Please indicate to what extent each statement describes you at present over the last few weeks.

To what extent ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. is your life as a student close to your ideal?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. are the conditions of your life as a student excellent?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. are you satisfied with your life as a student?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. do you lead a purposeful and meaningful life?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. are your social relationships supportive and rewarding?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. are you engaged and interested in your daily activities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. do you actively contribute to the happiness and well-being of others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. are you competent and capable of activities that are important to you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. do you think you are a good person and live a good life?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. are you optimistic about the future?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. do people respect you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. do you have confidence in your opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. do you feel, in general, that you are in charge of the situation in which you live?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. do you think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15. would people describe you as a giving person, willing to share your time with others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16. do you think you are not one of the people who wander aimlessly through life?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
17. do you like most aspects of your personality?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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Below are statements relating to personal characteristics. Please indicate to what extent each statement describes you at present.

To what extent ...	Not at all	Slightly	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much	Completely	Your reflections
1. do you strive for openness in your relationships?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. do you behave according to your values?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. do you take on negative feedback?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. do you take on positive feedback?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. are you aware of what motivates you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

To what extent have you understood the items of this questionnaire?

Not at all — moderately — completely

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If you have any thoughts which were stimulated by this questionnaire or if you have any other comments, we would really appreciate if you would briefly note them down.

Many thanks for your participation!

If you you are not happy with this questionnaire to be part of the CLS research project please let me know and I will make sure that it will not be put into the database!

Also, if you do not feel very well after filling in the questionnaire(s) or after reflecting upon the answers, please do contact Inma and you can talk about this privately!

A3. Reliability Analyses of All Variables

A3.1. Positive Affect

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=t2_WB_Aff_1_pos1 T2_WB_Aff_3_pos2 T2_WB_Aff_6_pos3
T2_WB_Aff_8_pos4 T2_WB_Aff_9_pos5
 /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=SCALE CORR
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	24	77.4
	Excluded[a]	7	22.6
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.829	.869	5

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	t2_WB_Aff_1_pos1	T2_WB_Aff_3_pos2	T2_WB_Aff_6_pos3	T2_WB_Aff_8_pos4	T2_WB_Aff_9_pos5
t2_WB_Aff_1_pos1	1.000	.824	.659	.526	.636
T2_WB_Aff_3_pos2	.824	1.000	.720	.542	.559
T2_WB_Aff_6_pos3	.659	.720	1.000	.289	.671
T2_WB_Aff_8_pos4	.526	.542	.289	1.000	.269
T2_WB_Aff_9_pos5	.636	.559	.671	.269	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
t2_WB_Aff_1_pos1	19.6250	18.853	.821	.734	.759
T2_WB_Aff_3_pos2	19.9583	18.476	.816	.759	.756
T2_WB_Aff_6_pos3	20.5000	19.304	.683	.635	.786
T2_WB_Aff_8_pos4	20.8333	16.928	.453	.344	.882
T2_WB_Aff_9_pos5	20.4167	17.732	.602	.524	.804

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
25.3333	27.362	5.23090	5

A3.2. Negative Affect

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=T2_WB_Aff_2_neg1 T2_WB_Aff_4_neg2 T2_WB_Aff_5_neg3
T2_WB_Aff_7_neg4 T2_WB_Aff_10_neg5
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=SCALE CORR
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	28	90.3
	Excluded[a]	3	9.7
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.617	.707	5

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	t2_WB_Aff_2_neg1	T2_WB_Aff_4_neg2	T2_WB_Aff_5_neg3	T2_WB_Aff_7_neg4	T2_WB_Aff_10_neg5

t2_WB_Aff_2_neg1	1.000	.290	.283	.327	.081
T2_WB_Aff_4_neg2	.290	1.000	.434	.702	.377
T2_WB_Aff_5_neg3	.283	.434	1.000	.314	.345
T2_WB_Aff_7_neg4	.327	.702	.314	1.000	.106
T2_WB_Aff_10_neg5	.081	.377	.345	.106	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
t2_WB_Aff_2_neg1	25.3214	9.189	.290	.145	.611
T2_WB_Aff_4_neg2	25.0000	10.000	.611	.603	.510
T2_WB_Aff_5_neg3	25.5357	7.888	.495	.257	.490
T2_WB_Aff_7_neg4	24.7857	11.138	.444	.538	.575
T2_WB_Aff_10_neg5	25.6429	7.868	.311	.235	.632

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
31.5714	13.143	3.62531	5

A3.3. Life Satisfaction

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=T2_WB_Lsat_1 T2_WB_Lsat_2 T2_WB_Lsat_3
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=SCALE CORR
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	28	90.3
	Excluded[a]	3	9.7
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.894	.908	3

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_WB_Lsat_1	T2_WB_Lsat_2	T2_WB_Lsat_3
T2_WB_Lsat_1	1.000	.759	.767
T2_WB_Lsat_2	.759	1.000	.772
T2_WB_Lsat_3	.767	.772	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
T2_WB_Lsat_1	9.8214	5.337	.808	.657	.841
T2_WB_Lsat_2	9.5714	5.365	.811	.664	.836
T2_WB_Lsat_3	9.1071	7.358	.821	.673	.863

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
14.2500	12.861	3.58624	3

A3.4. Ryff scale of eudaimonic well-being

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=T2_WB_PWB_9_Ry_1 T2_WB_PWB_10_Ry_2 T2_WB_PWB_11_Ry_3 T2_WB_
PWB_12_Ry_4 T2_WB_PWB_13_Ry_5 T2_WB_PWB_14_Ry_6
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE CORR
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	27	87.1
	Excluded[a]	4	12.9
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.621	.693	6

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
T2_WB_PWB_9_Ry_1	5.5926	1.21716	27
T2_WB_PWB_10_Ry_2	5.2593	1.19591	27
T2_WB_PWB_11_Ry_3	6.0741	1.03500	27
T2_WB_PWB_12_Ry_4	5.5926	1.04731	27
T2_WB_PWB_13_Ry_5	5.2593	1.72298	27
T2_WB_PWB_14_Ry_6	5.0370	1.15962	27

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_WB_PWB_9_Ry_1	T2_WB_PWB_10_Ry_2	T2_WB_PWB_11_Ry_3	T2_WB_PWB_12_Ry_4	T2_WB_PWB_13_Ry_5	T2_WB_PWB_14_Ry_6
T2_WB_PWB_9_Ry_1	1.000	.419	.361	.498	-.113	.311
T2_WB_PWB_10_Ry_2	.419	1.000	.450	.303	-.053	.658
T2_WB_PWB_11_Ry_3	.361	.450	1.000	.668	.140	.318
T2_WB_PWB_12_Ry_4	.498	.303	.668	1.000	.061	.298
T2_WB_PWB_13_Ry_5	-.113	-.053	.140	.061	1.000	-.217
T2_WB_PWB_14_Ry_6	.311	.658	.318	.298	-.217	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted

T2_WB_PWB_9_Ry_1	27.2222	14.179	.415	.346	.553
T2_WB_PWB_10_Ry_2	27.5556	13.333	.538	.543	.503
T2_WB_PWB_11_Ry_3	26.7407	13.661	.619	.529	.489
T2_WB_PWB_12_Ry_4	27.2222	13.949	.565	.540	.507
T2_WB_PWB_13_Ry_5	27.5556	17.333	-.058	.117	.787
T2_WB_PWB_14_Ry_6	27.7778	14.795	.373	.483	.570

A3.5. Diener scale of eudaimonic well-being

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=T2_WB_PWB_1_D_1 T2_WB_PWB_2_D_2 T2_WB_PWB_3_D_3
T2_WB_PWB_4_D_4 T2_WB_PWB_5_D_5 T2_WB_PWB_6_D_6 T2_WB_PWB_7_D_7
T2_WB_PWB_8_D_8
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=SCALE CORR
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	21	67.7
	Excluded[a]	10	32.3
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.864	.866	8

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_WB_PWB_1_D_1	T2_WB_PWB_2_D_2	T2_WB_PWB_3_D_3	T2_WB_PWB_4_D_4	T2_WB_PWB_5_D_5	T2_WB_PWB_6_D_6

T2_WB_PWB_1_D_1	1.000	.414	.329	.707	.557	.383
T2_WB_PWB_2_D_2	.414	1.000	.355	.367	.547	.404
T2_WB_PWB_3_D_3	.329	.355	1.000	.450	.529	.195
T2_WB_PWB_4_D_4	.707	.367	.450	1.000	.600	.498
T2_WB_PWB_5_D_5	.557	.547	.529	.600	1.000	.478
T2_WB_PWB_6_D_6	.383	.404	.195	.498	.478	1.000
T2_WB_PWB_7_D_7	.322	.372	.253	.303	.528	.593
T2_WB_PWB_8_D_8	.381	.511	.300	.537	.507	.570

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_WB_PWB_7_D_7	T2_WB_PWB_8_D_8
T2_WB_PWB_1_D_1	.322	.381
T2_WB_PWB_2_D_2	.372	.511
T2_WB_PWB_3_D_3	.253	.300
T2_WB_PWB_4_D_4	.303	.537
T2_WB_PWB_5_D_5	.528	.507
T2_WB_PWB_6_D_6	.593	.570
T2_WB_PWB_7_D_7	1.000	.506
T2_WB_PWB_8_D_8	.506	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
T2_WB_PWB_1_D_1	39.0000	20.800	.614	.555	.851
T2_WB_PWB_2_D_2	38.5714	23.557	.579	.411	.852
T2_WB_PWB_3_D_3	38.3810	24.948	.465	.339	.862
T2_WB_PWB_4_D_4	38.7143	21.514	.701	.669	.837
T2_WB_PWB_5_D_5	38.5238	21.062	.754	.605	.831
T2_WB_PWB_6_D_6	38.5238	22.862	.621	.512	.847
T2_WB_PWB_7_D_7	38.4762	22.362	.556	.481	.855
T2_WB_PWB_8_D_8	38.4762	22.662	.654	.510	.844

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
44.0952	28.790	5.36568	8

A3.6. Vigour

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=T2_WB_Vig_1_phy_1 T2_WB_Vig_2_phy_2 T2_WB_Vig_3_phy_3
T2_WB_Vig_4_phy_4 T2_WB_Vig_5_phy_5 T2_WB_Vig_6_cog_1 T2_WB_Vig7_cog2
T2_WB_Vig8_cog3 T2_WB_Vig9_emo1 T2_WB_vig10_emo2 T2_WB_vig11_emo3
T2_WB_vig12_emo4
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=SCALE CORR
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	25	80.6
	Excluded[a]	6	19.4
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.925	.926	12

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_WB_Vig_1_phy_1	T2_WB_Vig_2_phy_2	T2_WB_Vig_3_phy_3	T2_WB_Vig_4_phy_4	T2_WB_Vig_5_phy_5	T2_WB_Vig_6_cog_1

T2_WB_Vig_1_phy_1	1.000	.704	.701	.726	.795	.630
T2_WB_Vig_2_phy_2	.704	1.000	.621	.539	.546	.398
T2_WB_Vig_3_phy_3	.701	.621	1.000	.790	.747	.298
T2_WB_Vig_4_phy_4	.726	.539	.790	1.000	.888	.451
T2_WB_Vig_5_phy_5	.795	.546	.747	.888	1.000	.490
T2_WB_Vig_6_cog_1	.630	.398	.298	.451	.490	1.000
T2_WB_Vig7_cog2	.595	.266	.523	.423	.526	.584
T2_WB_Vig8_cog3	.643	.349	.590	.538	.631	.541
T2_WB_Vig9_emo1	.634	.475	.259	.266	.411	.529
T2_WB_vig10_emo2	.353	.422	.136	.149	.230	.365
T2_WB_vig11_emo3	.276	.466	.224	.205	.200	.311
T2_WB_vig12_emo4	.617	.584	.712	.624	.671	.367

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_WB_Vig7_cog2	T2_WB_Vig8_cog3	T2_WB_Vig9_emo1	T2_WB_vig10_emo2	T2_WB_vig11_emo3	T2_WB_vig12_emo4

T2_WB_Vig_1_phy_1	.595	.643	.634	.353	.276	.617
T2_WB_Vig_2_phy_2	.266	.349	.475	.422	.466	.584
T2_WB_Vig_3_phy_3	.523	.590	.259	.136	.224	.712
T2_WB_Vig_4_phy_4	.423	.538	.266	.149	.205	.624
T2_WB_Vig_5_phy_5	.526	.631	.411	.230	.200	.671
T2_WB_Vig_6_cog_1	.584	.541	.529	.365	.311	.367
T2_WB_Vig7_cog2	1.000	.786	.619	.423	.410	.593
T2_WB_Vig8_cog3	.786	1.000	.715	.497	.330	.749
T2_WB_Vig9_emo1	.619	.715	1.000	.734	.503	.602
T2_WB_vig10_emo2	.423	.497	.734	1.000	.637	.548
T2_WB_vig11_emo3	.410	.330	.503	.637	1.000	.601
T2_WB_vig12_emo4	.593	.749	.602	.548	.601	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted

T2_WB_Vig_1_phy_1	53.7600	101.940	.818	.869	.913
T2_WB_Vig_2_phy_2	53.5200	105.010	.652	.768	.919
T2_WB_Vig_3_phy_3	53.8000	106.000	.680	.875	.919
T2_WB_Vig_4_phy_4	53.8000	104.500	.675	.858	.919
T2_WB_Vig_5_phy_5	53.8400	101.307	.743	.861	.916
T2_WB_Vig_6_cog_1	53.7600	107.357	.598	.606	.922
T2_WB_Vig7_cog2	53.0400	103.373	.699	.776	.918
T2_WB_Vig8_cog3	53.3600	102.573	.784	.848	.914
T2_WB_Vig9_emo1	53.3200	104.560	.709	.848	.917
T2_WB_vig10_emo2	53.3200	105.310	.545	.671	.925
T2_WB_vig11_emo3	53.9600	106.457	.505	.686	.926
T2_WB_vig12_emo4	53.3600	98.740	.829	.848	.912

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
58.4400	122.840	11.08332	12

A3.7. Work engagement

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=T2_Enga_1 T2_Enga_2 T2_Enga_3 T2_Enga_4 T2_Enga_5 T2_Enga_6
T2_Enga_7 T2_Enga_8 T2_Enga_9
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=SCALE CORR
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	28	90.3
	Excluded[a]	3	9.7
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.936	.941	9

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_Enga_1	T2_Enga_2	T2_Enga_3	T2_Enga_4	T2_Enga_5	T2_Enga_6	T2_Enga_7	T2_Enga_8
T2_Enga_1	1.000	.817	.766	.841	.648	.765	.549	.695
T2_Enga_2	.817	1.000	.786	.849	.640	.693	.727	.785
T2_Enga_3	.766	.786	1.000	.840	.762	.606	.514	.686
T2_Enga_4	.841	.849	.840	1.000	.670	.742	.528	.673
T2_Enga_5	.648	.640	.762	.670	1.000	.599	.298	.362
T2_Enga_6	.765	.693	.606	.742	.599	1.000	.351	.410
T2_Enga_7	.549	.727	.514	.528	.298	.351	1.000	.751
T2_Enga_8	.695	.785	.686	.673	.362	.410	.751	1.000
T2_Enga_9	.569	.739	.617	.672	.382	.476	.542	.716

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_Enga_9
T2_Enga_1	.569
T2_Enga_2	.739
T2_Enga_3	.617
T2_Enga_4	.672
T2_Enga_5	.382
T2_Enga_6	.476
T2_Enga_7	.542
T2_Enga_8	.716
T2_Enga_9	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
T2_Enga_1	40.0357	82.776	.859	.819	.924
T2_Enga_2	39.5714	81.291	.932	.885	.920
T2_Enga_3	39.2143	81.952	.854	.825	.923
T2_Enga_4	39.6429	78.534	.888	.849	.920
T2_Enga_5	39.9643	81.591	.639	.699	.938
T2_Enga_6	39.4643	86.480	.693	.695	.932
T2_Enga_7	39.3214	83.337	.623	.663	.938
T2_Enga_8	39.4286	84.772	.769	.811	.928
T2_Enga_9	40.2143	81.212	.700	.638	.933

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
44.6071	103.507	10.17382	9

A3.8. Flow

Syntax

RELIABILITY

```
 /VARIABLES=T2_Flow_1 T2_Flow_2 T2_Flow_3 T2_Flow_4 T2_Flow_5 T2_Flow_6
T2_Flow_7 T2_Flow_8 T2_Flow_9 T2_Flow_10 T2_Flow_11 T2_Flow_12
 /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
 /MODEL=ALPHA
 /STATISTICS=SCALE CORR
 /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	24	77.4
	Excluded[a]	7	22.6
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.869	.887	12

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_Flow_1	T2_Flow_2	T2_Flow_3	T2_Flow_4	T2_Flow_5	T2_Flow_6	T2_Flow_7	T2_Flow_8
T2_Flow_1	1.000	.080	.060	.671	.250	.245	-.130	.067
T2_Flow_2	.080	1.000	.736	.298	.711	.665	.081	.456
T2_Flow_3	.060	.736	1.000	.335	.662	.718	.074	.592

T2_Flow_4	.671	.298	.335	1.000	.517	.414	.259	.397
T2_Flow_5	.250	.711	.662	.517	1.000	.826	.281	.682
T2_Flow_6	.245	.665	.718	.414	.826	1.000	.143	.680
T2_Flow_7	-.130	.081	.074	.259	.281	.143	1.000	.347
T2_Flow_8	.067	.456	.592	.397	.682	.680	.347	1.000
T2_Flow_9	-.030	.329	.395	.356	.555	.423	.332	.636
T2_Flow_10	.326	.170	-.008	.364	.162	.098	.065	-.129
T2_Flow_11	-.030	.808	.769	.240	.690	.663	.051	.525
T2_Flow_12	.129	.797	.727	.431	.903	.896	.253	.707

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_Flow_9	T2_Flow_10	T2_Flow_11	T2_Flow_12
T2_Flow_1	-.030	.326	-.030	.129
T2_Flow_2	.329	.170	.808	.797
T2_Flow_3	.395	-.008	.769	.727
T2_Flow_4	.356	.364	.240	.431
T2_Flow_5	.555	.162	.690	.903

T2_Flow_6	.423	.098	.663	.896
T2_Flow_7	.332	.065	.051	.253
T2_Flow_8	.636	-.129	.525	.707
T2_Flow_9	1.000	.130	.512	.527
T2_Flow_10	.130	1.000	.201	.169
T2_Flow_11	.512	.201	1.000	.803
T2_Flow_12	.527	.169	.803	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
T2_Flow_1	49.5833	113.471	.226	.674	.882
T2_Flow_2	48.8750	103.766	.698	.774	.850
T2_Flow_3	49.2917	102.998	.669	.754	.851
T2_Flow_4	49.7083	103.520	.604	.711	.855
T2_Flow_5	48.5000	100.174	.863	.853	.840
T2_Flow_6	48.2083	103.998	.789	.872	.847
T2_Flow_7	49.7083	114.563	.212	.380	.882
T2_Flow_8	48.4583	107.650	.652	.719	.854
T2_Flow_9	48.6667	110.319	.552	.581	.860
T2_Flow_10	50.2083	112.868	.218	.406	.885
T2_Flow_11	48.9167	100.949	.696	.836	.849
T2_Flow_12	48.3750	98.071	.872	.946	.838

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
53.5000	124.696	11.16672	12

A3.9. Authenticity

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=T2_A1_transp T2_A2_ethical T2_A3_balance_neg T2_A4_balance_pos
T2_A5_aware
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=SCALE CORR
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	28	90.3
	Excluded[a]	3	9.7
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.588	.593	5

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	T2_A1_transp	T2_A2_ethical	T2_A3_balance_neg	T2_A4_balance_pos	T2_A5_aware

T2_A1_transp	1.000	.430	.364	.000	.038
T2_A2_ethical	.430	1.000	.094	.222	.217
T2_A3_balance_neg	.364	.094	1.000	.272	.405
T2_A4_balance_pos	.000	.222	.272	1.000	.217
T2_A5_aware	.038	.217	.405	.217	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
T2_A1_transp	21.8929	9.062	.300	.361	.557
T2_A2_ethical	21.6429	8.683	.345	.304	.536
T2_A3_balance_neg	22.2500	6.787	.460	.364	.460
T2_A4_balance_pos	21.8214	7.856	.282	.158	.576
T2_A5_aware	21.9643	7.962	.362	.243	.524

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
27.3929	11.433	3.38120	5

A3.10. Social identification with team

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=t2_id_1_emo1 t2_id_2_cog_1 t2_Id_3_cog_2 t2_id_4_emo_2 t2_id_5_opp_1
t2_id_7_emo_3 t2_id_9_opp_2
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=SCALE CORR
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	26	83.9
	Excluded[a]	5	16.1
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.629	.710	7

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	identity_emotional	idenity_cognitive	identity_cognitve	identity_emotional	identity_Individual/group opposoition subscale	identity_emotional

identity_emotional	1.000	.710	.608	.817	-.323	.687
idenity_cognitive	.710	1.000	.651	.748	-.499	.669
identity_cognitve	.608	.651	1.000	.636	-.457	.694
identity_emotional	.817	.748	.636	1.000	-.213	.840
identity_Individual/group opposoition subscale	-.323	-.499	-.457	-.213	1.000	-.134
identity_emotional	.687	.669	.694	.840	-.134	1.000
identity_Individual/group opposition subscale	-.066	-.322	-.340	-.020	.839	-.089

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	identity_Individual/group opposition subscale
identity_emotional	-.066
idenity_cognitive	-.322
identity_cognitve	-.340
identity_emotional	-.020
identity_Individual/group opposoition subscale	.839
identity_emotional	-.089
identity_Individual/group opposition subscale	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
identity_emotional	32.5000	21.700	.650	.729	.538
idenity_cognitive	33.0769	22.874	.488	.699	.572
identity_cognitve	34.1154	18.826	.367	.623	.589
identity_emotional	32.7308	18.765	.772	.841	.470
identity_Individual/group opposoition subscale	32.3846	27.126	-.113	.838	.733
identity_emotional	33.1923	16.562	.730	.808	.439
identity_Individual/group opposition subscale	32.5385	24.498	.028	.796	.706

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
38.4231	27.534	5.24727	7

A4. Reliability Analysis for Intrapersonal Authenticity Scale

Syntax

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=T2_A5_aware T2_A3_balance_neg T2_A4_balance_pos
  /SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA.
```

SPSS Output

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	28	90.3
	Excluded[a]	3	9.7
	Total	31	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.557	3

A5. Reliability analysis for interpersonal authenticity scale

Syntax

```
CORRELATIONS
  /VARIABLES=T2_A1_transp T2_A2_ethical
  /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG
  /MISSING=PAIRWISE.
```

SPSS Output

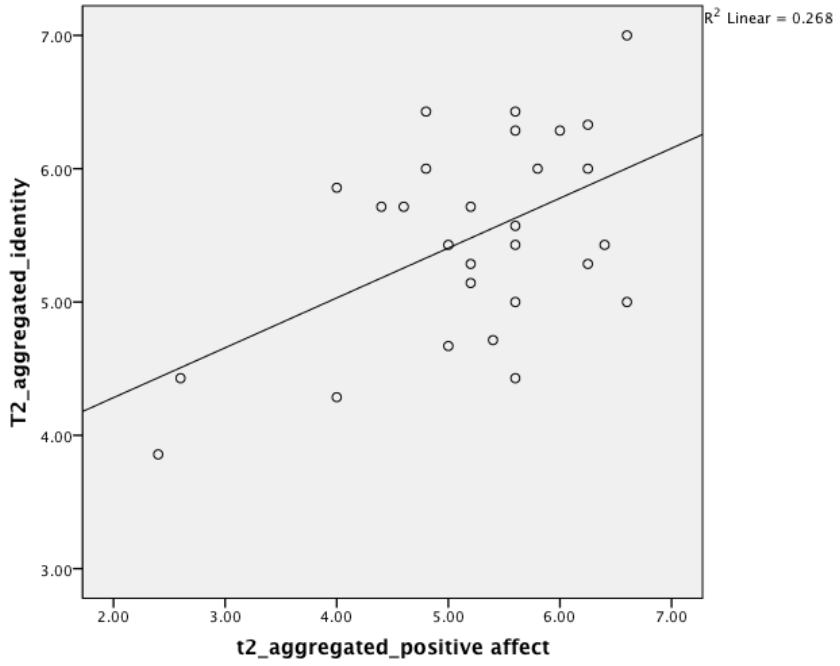
Correlations

		T2_A1_transp	T2_A2_ethical
T2_A1_transp	Pearson Correlation	1	.430*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.022
	N	28	28
T2_A2_ethical	Pearson Correlation	.430*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	
	N	28	28

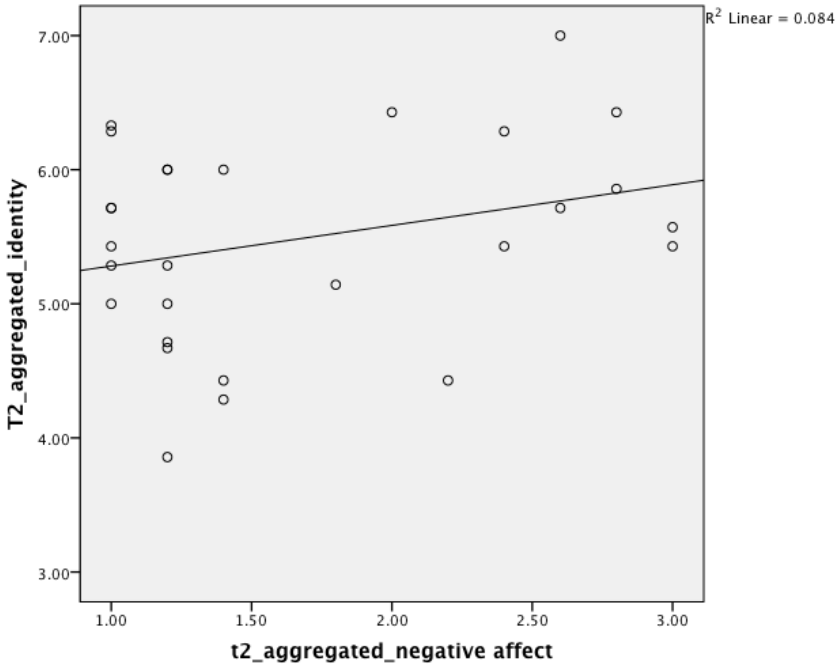
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

A6. Scatterplots from Correlations Between Variables

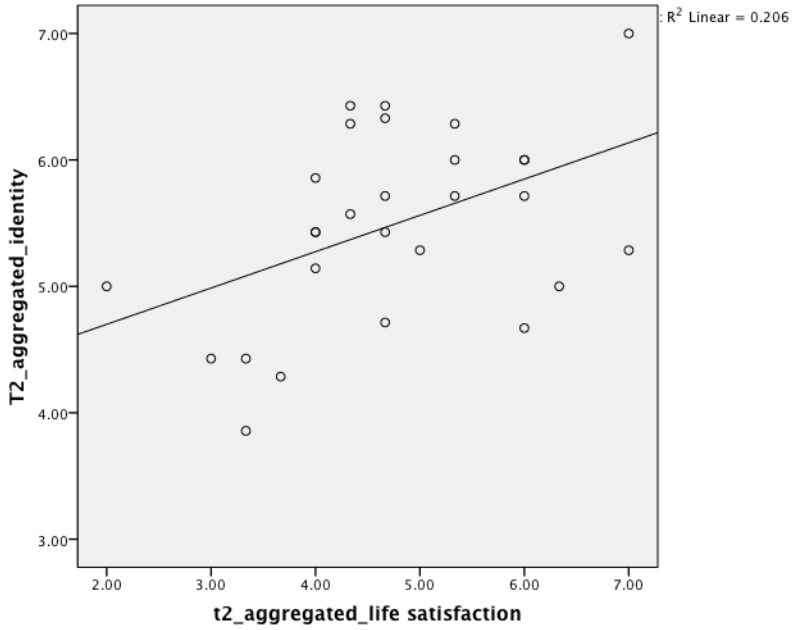
Correlation between social identification and positive affect



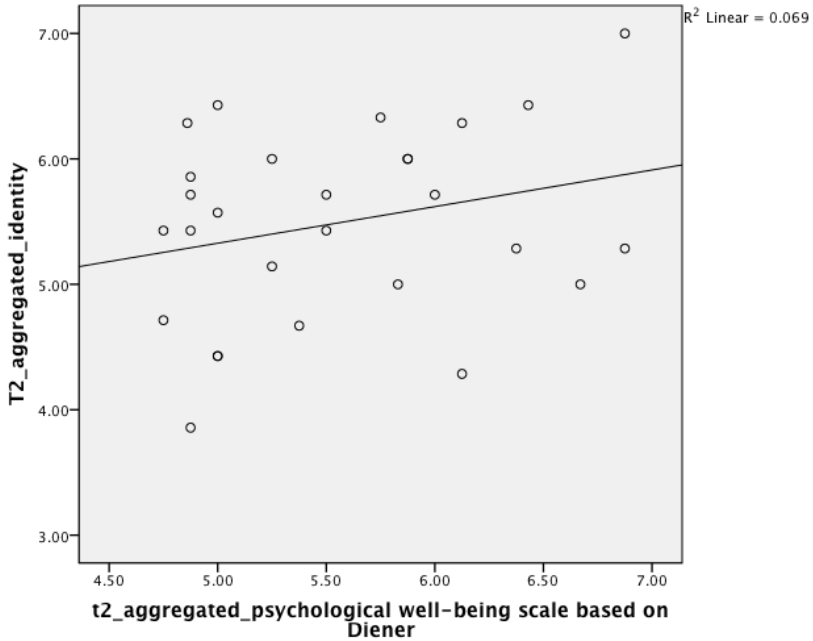
Correlation between social identification and negative affect



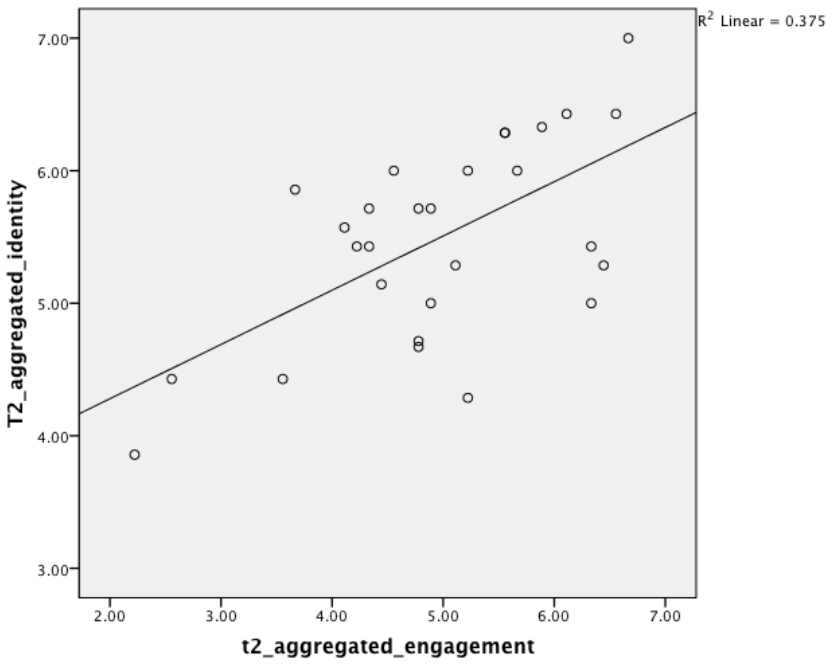
Correlation between social identification and life satisfaction



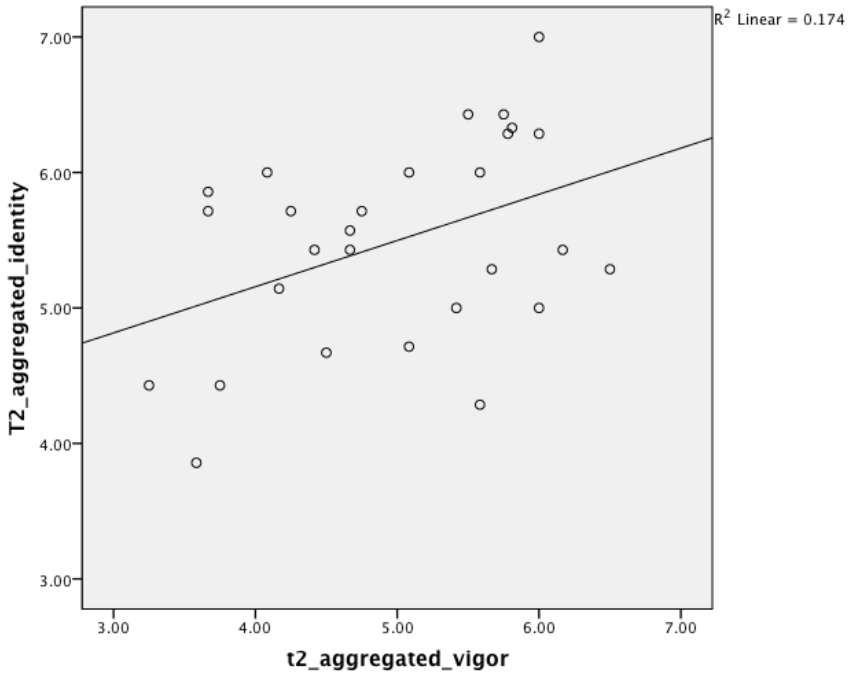
Correlation between social identification and eudaimonic well-being



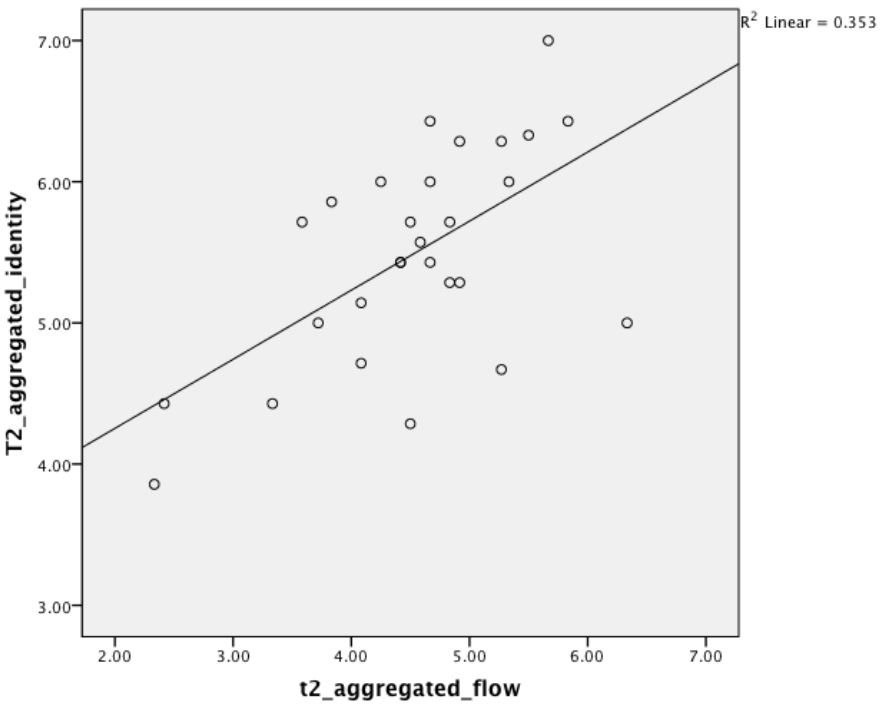
Correlation between social identification and work engagement



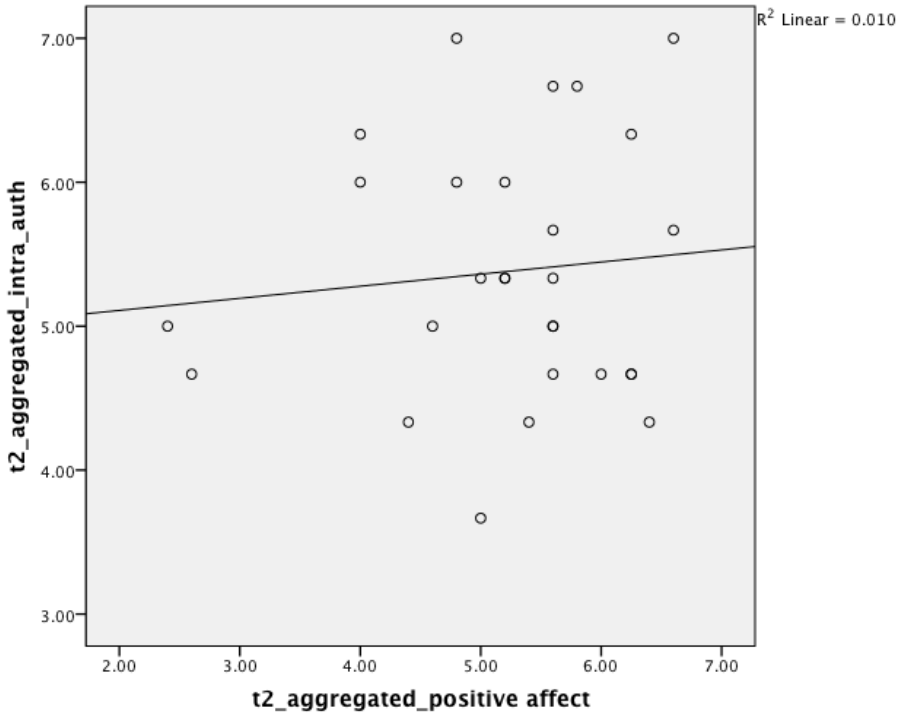
Correlation between social identification and vigour



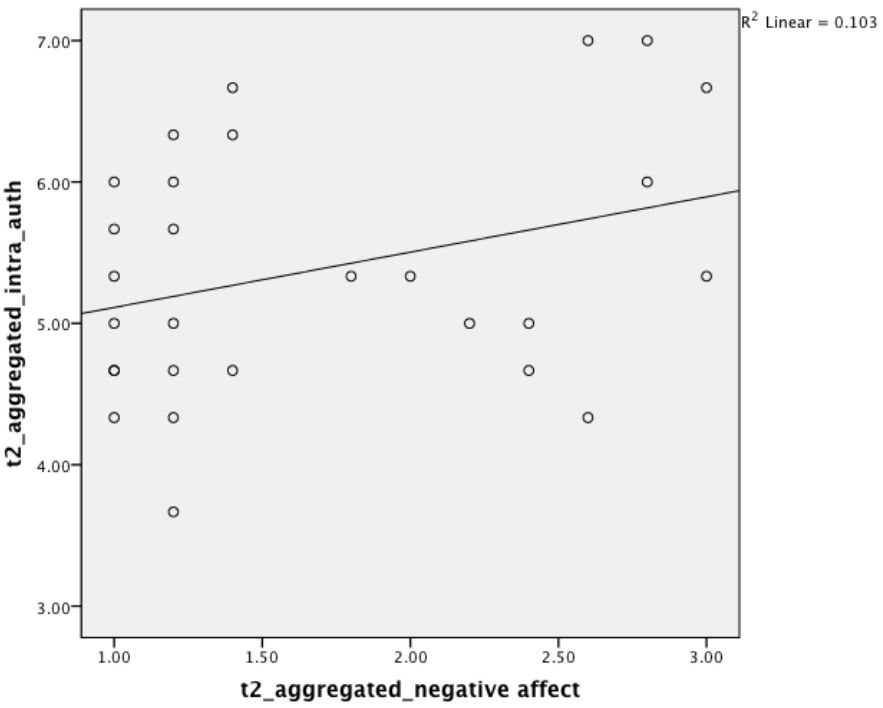
Correlation between social identification and flow



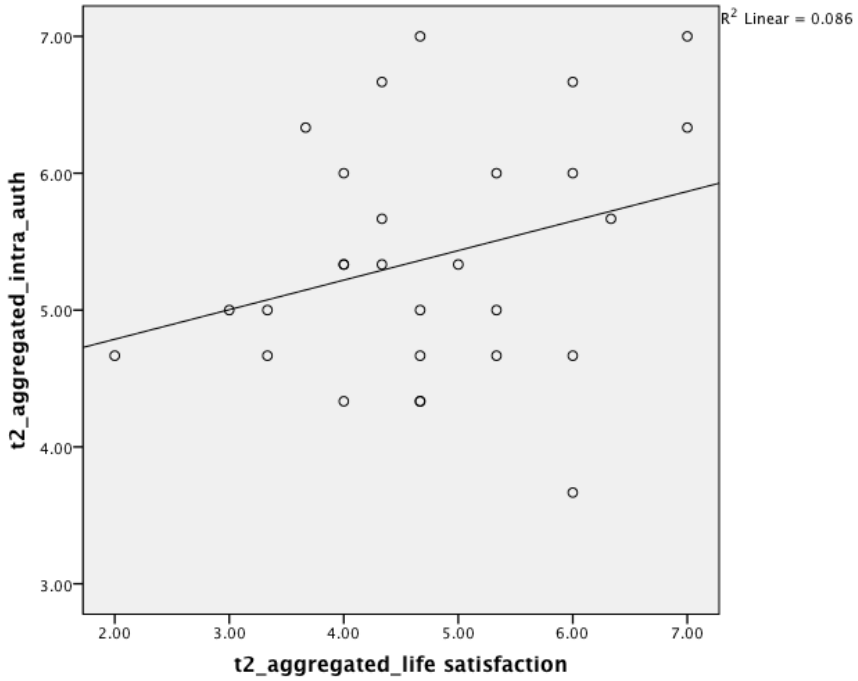
Correlation between intrapersonal authenticity and positive affect



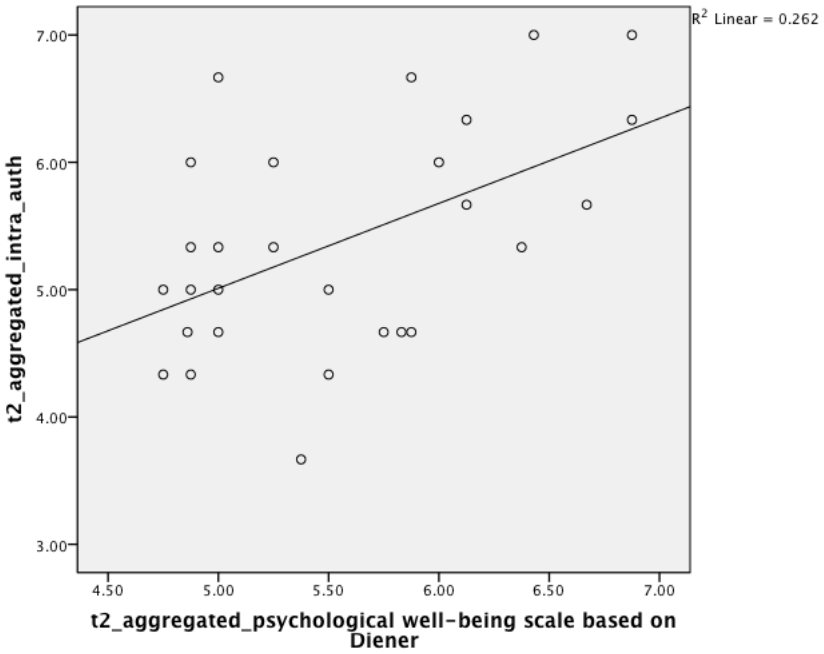
Correlation between intrapersonal authenticity and negative affect



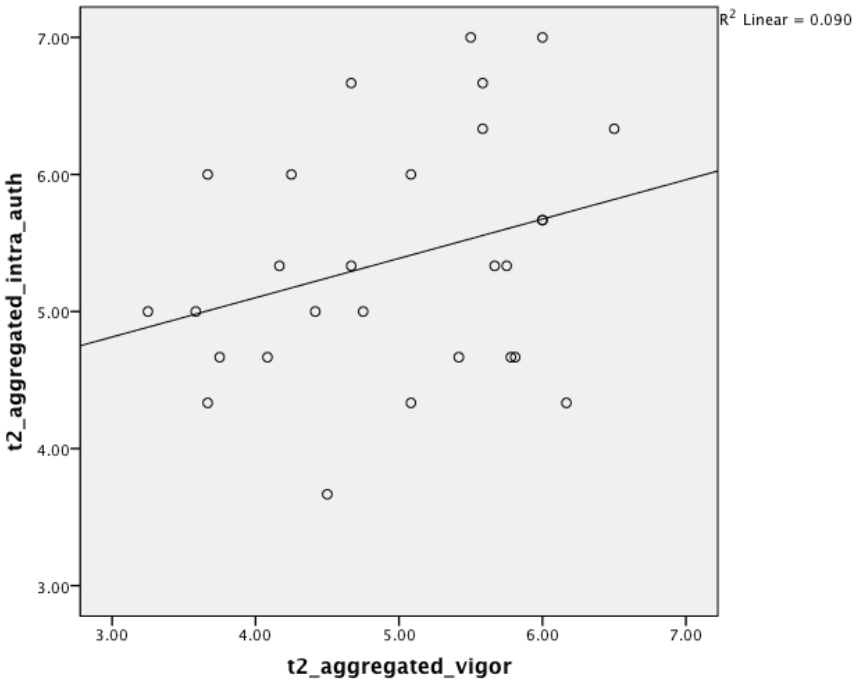
Correlation between intrapersonal authenticity and life satisfaction



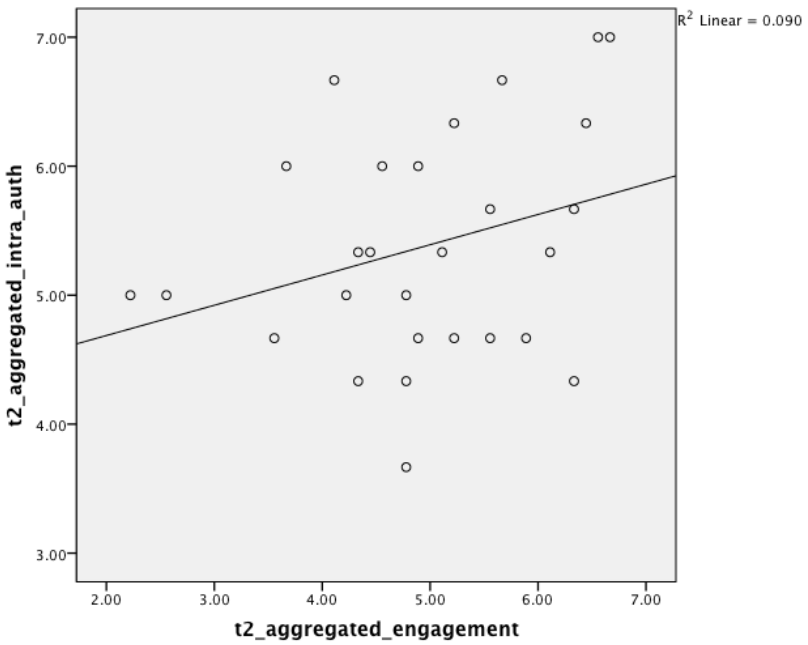
Correlation between intrapersonal authenticity and eudaimonic well-being



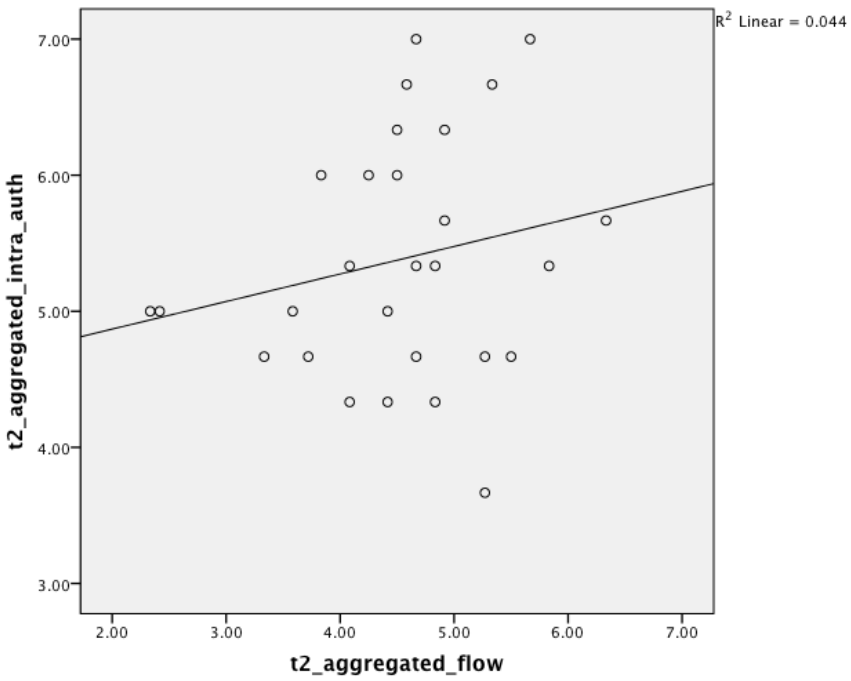
Correlation between intrapersonal authenticity and vigour



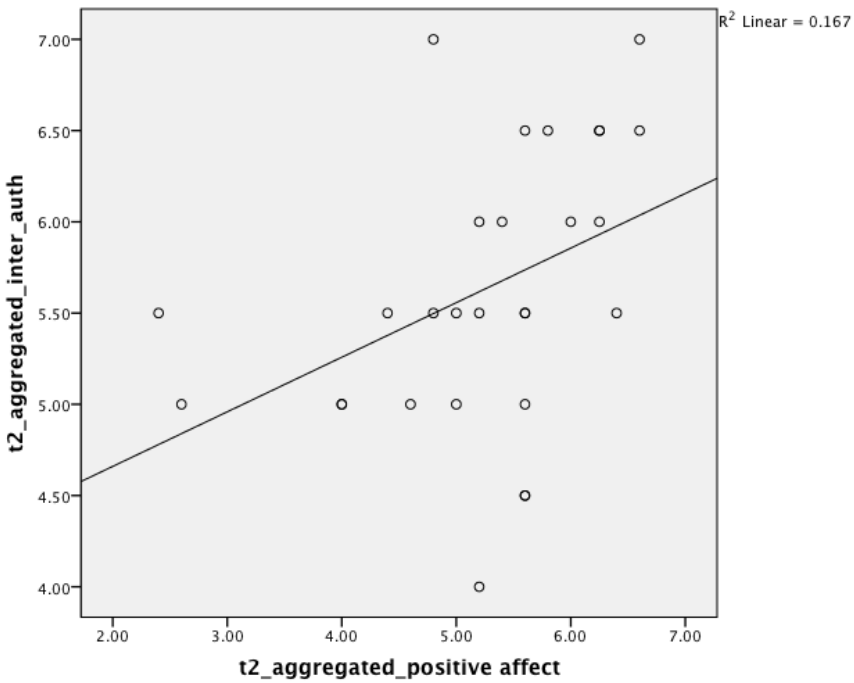
Correlation between intrapersonal authenticity and work engagement



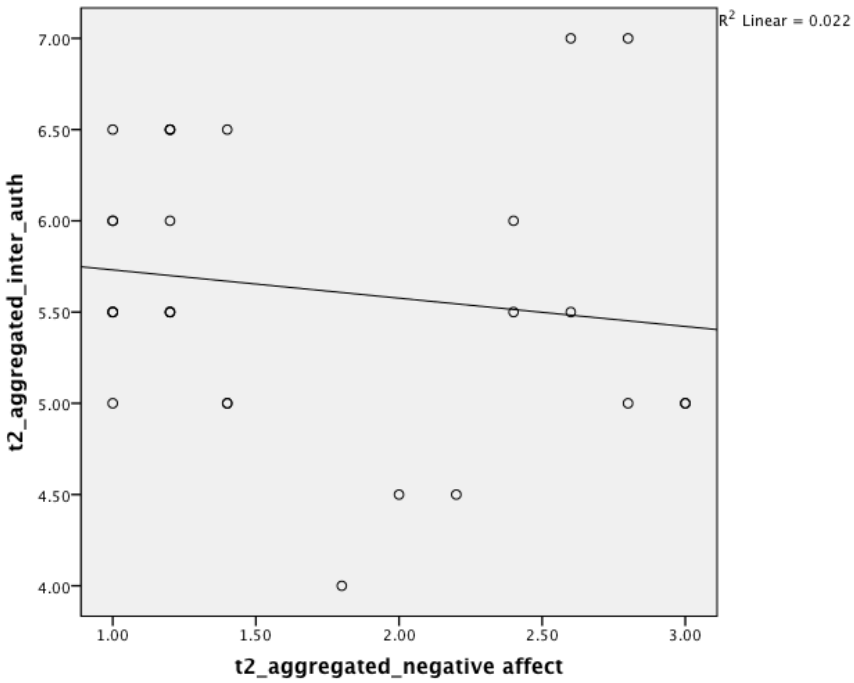
Correlation between intrapersonal authenticity and flow



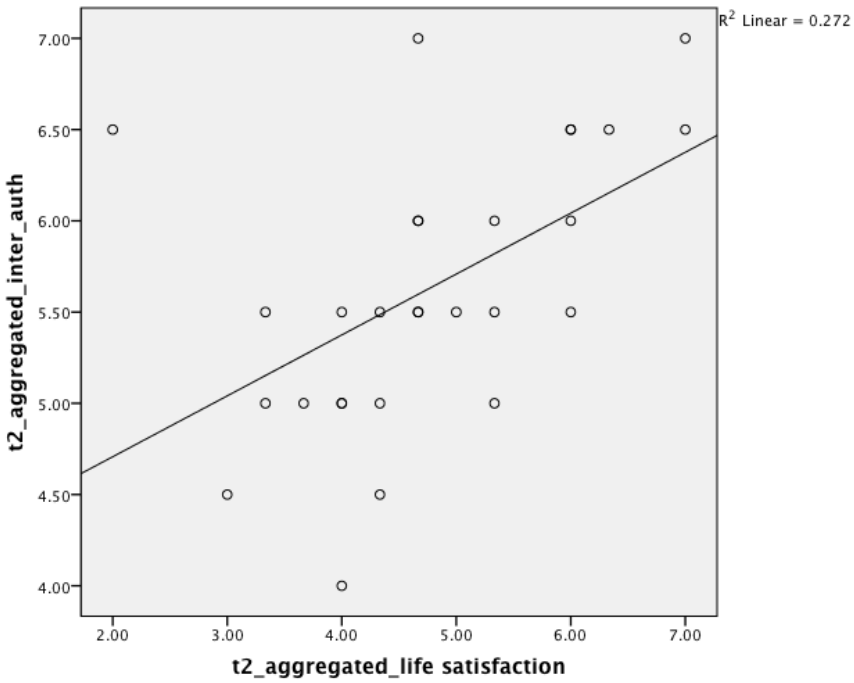
Correlation between interpersonal authenticity and positive affect



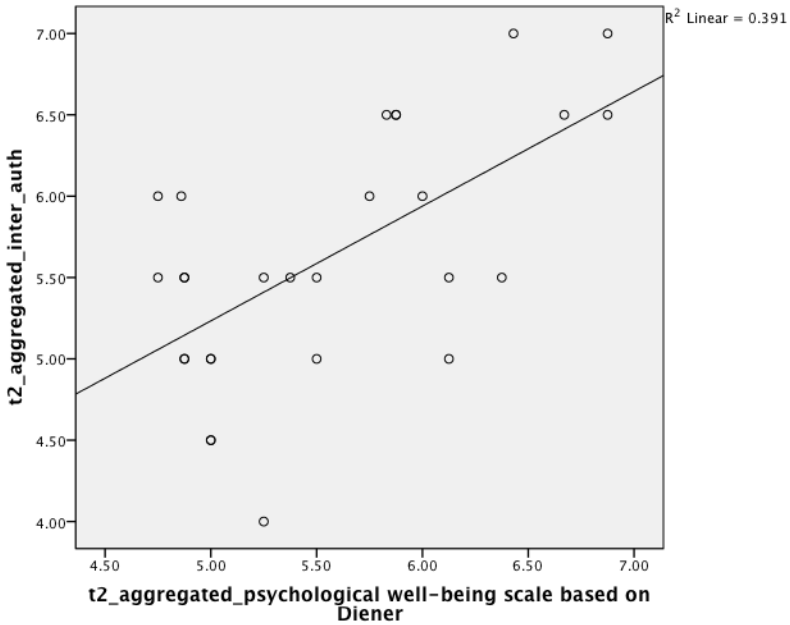
Correlation between interpersonal authenticity and negative affect



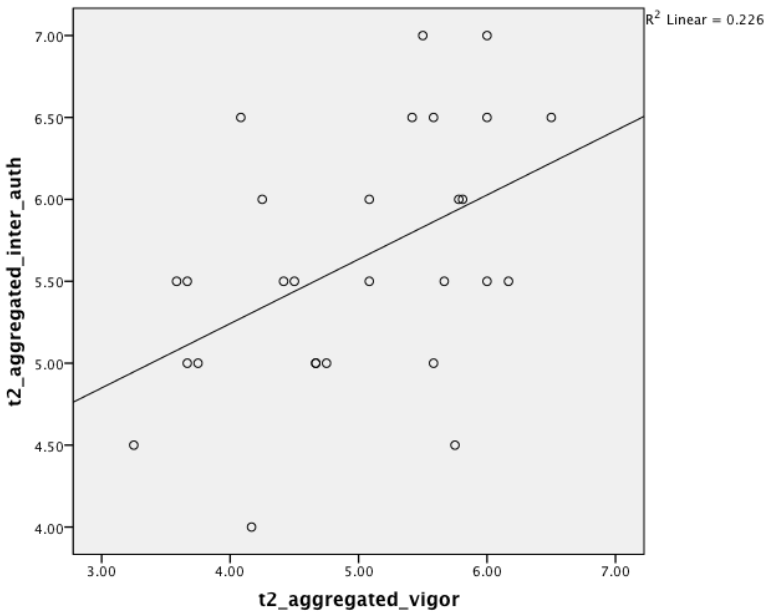
Correlation between interpersonal authenticity and life satisfaction



Correlation between interpersonal authenticity and eudaimonic well-being



Correlation between interpersonal authenticity and vigour



A7. Levene Statistics from Correlations

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
t2_aggregated_worksetting control variables	.106	28	.200*	.962	28	.389
t2_aggregated_negative affect	.260	28	.000	.817	28	.000
t2_aggregated_positive affect	.139	28	.174	.899	28	.011
t2_aggregated_life satisfaction	.135	28	.200*	.975	28	.726
t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.186	28	.014	.903	28	.014
t2_aggregated_vigor	.147	28	.125	.944	28	.143
t2_aggregated_engagement	.084	28	.200*	.958	28	.304
t2_aggregated_flow	.131	28	.200*	.962	28	.390
t2_aggregated_authenticity	.160	28	.065	.923	28	.041

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

A8. Regression Analyses

A8.1 Positive affect as outcome variable

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL CHANGE ZPP
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_WB_Aff_pos
  /METHOD=STEPWISE t1_WB_Aff_pos t2_id t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth
  /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED) (*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
  /RESIDUALS DURBIN NORMPROB(ZRESID)
  /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)
  /SAVE MAHAL.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_aggregated_positive affect	5.2268	1.04576	28
t1_aggregated_positive affect	5.1393	1.09294	28
T2_aggregated_identity	5.4898	.75586	28
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.3810	.88292	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.6250	.76528	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_positive affect	t1_aggregated_positive affect	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_positive affect	1.000	.431	.518	.100
	t1_aggregated_positive affect	.431	1.000	.351	.397
	T2_aggregated_identity	.518	.351	1.000	.373
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.100	.397	.373	1.000
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.409	.523	.354	.256
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_positive affect	.	.011	.002	.307
	t1_aggregated_positive affect	.011	.	.034	.018
	T2_aggregated_identity	.002	.034	.	.025
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.307	.018	.025	.
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.015	.002	.032	.094
N	t2_aggregated_positive affect	28	28	28	28
	t1_aggregated_positive affect	28	28	28	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28	28	28	28

t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28	28	28	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28	28	28	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_positive affect	.409
	t1_aggregated_positive affect	.523
	T2_aggregated_identity	.354
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.256
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_positive affect	.015
	t1_aggregated_positive affect	.002
	T2_aggregated_identity	.032
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.094
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.
N	t2_aggregated_positive affect	28
	t1_aggregated_positive affect	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model		Variables Removed	Method
1	t1_aggregated_positive affect T2_aggregated_identity t2_aggregated_intra_auth t2_aggregated_inter_auth [b]	.	Stepwise

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_positive affect

c. All requested variables entered.

3.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2
1	.627[a]	.394	.288	.88221	.394	3.735	4	23

Model Summary[b]

Model	Change Statistics	Durbin-Watson
	Sig. F Change	
1	.018[a]	1.858

a. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity, t1_aggregated_positive affect

b. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_positive affect

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.626	4	2.907	3.735	.018[b]
	Residual	17.901	23	.778		
	Total	29.527	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_positive affect

b. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity, t1_aggregated_positive affect

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order
1	(Constant)	.629	1.604		.392	.699	
	t1_aggregated_positive affect	.264	.194	.276	1.363	.186	.431
	T2_aggregated_identity	.615	.255	.444	2.414	.024	.518
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	-.257	.218	-.217	-1.183	.249	.100
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.223	.266	.163	.835	.412	.409

Coefficients[a]

Model		Correlations		Collinearity Statistics	
		Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)				
	t1_aggregated_positive affect	.273	.221	.643	1.555
	T2_aggregated_identity	.450	.392	.778	1.285
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	-.239	-.192	.780	1.282
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.172	.136	.693	1.442

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_positive affect

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	t1_aggregated_positive affect	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
1	1	4.940	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.025	13.978	.05	.78	.05	.04
	3	.017	17.162	.04	.01	.02	.80
	4	.011	21.591	.06	.05	.84	.08
	5	.007	26.353	.85	.16	.09	.08

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
1	1	.00
	2	.00
	3	.17
	4	.28
	5	.55

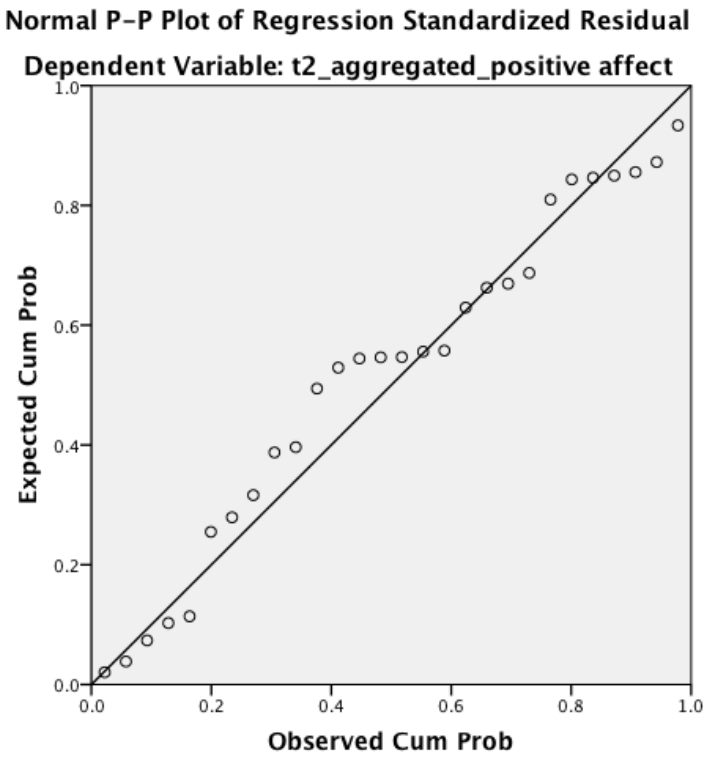
a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_positive affect

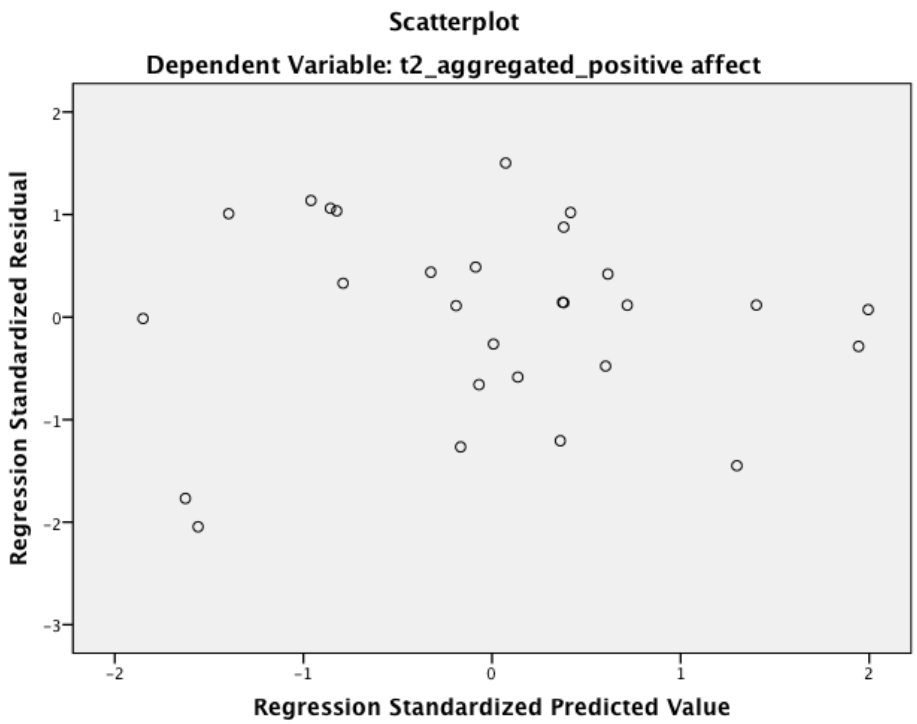
Residuals Statistics[a]

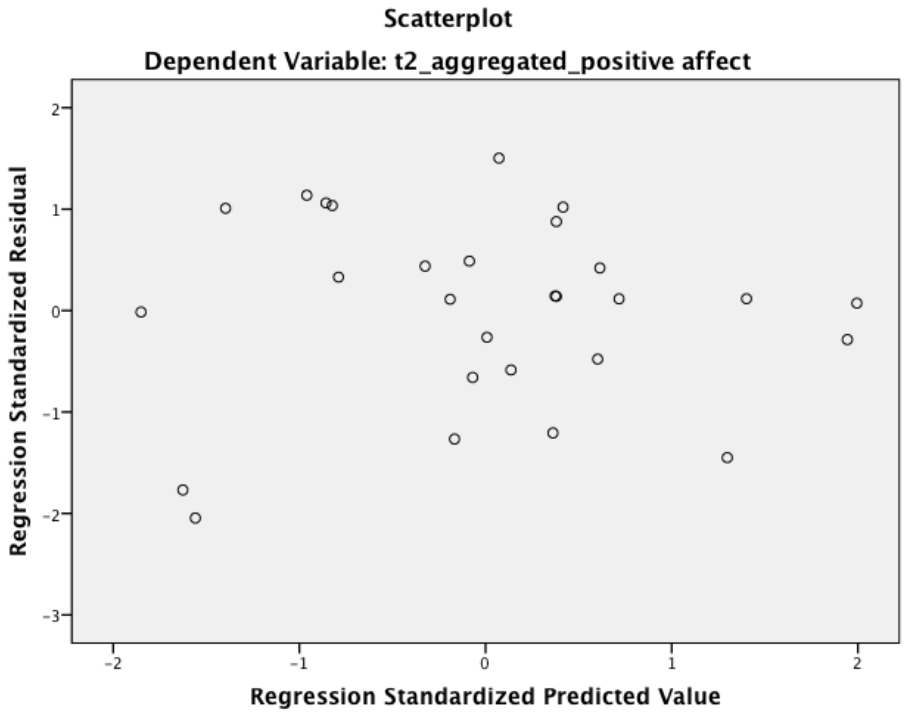
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	4.0127	6.5356	5.2268	.65621	28
Std. Predicted Value	-1.850	1.995	.000	1.000	28
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.177	.608	.360	.098	28
Adjusted Predicted Value	3.8615	6.6060	5.2005	.72569	28
Residual	-1.80385	1.32585	.00000	.81425	28
Std. Residual	-2.045	1.503	.000	.923	28
Stud. Residual	-2.327	1.623	.012	1.033	28
Deleted Residual	-2.33672	1.73846	.02627	1.02838	28
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.603	1.686	-.002	1.078	28
Mahal. Distance	.125	11.850	3.857	2.554	28
Cook's Distance	.000	.369	.056	.094	28
Centered Leverage Value	.005	.439	.143	.095	28

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_positive affect

Charts


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_positive affect
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob
0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_positive affect
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2
-3


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_positive affect
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2
-3
-2
-1
0
1
2

A8.2 Negative affect as outcome variable

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL CHANGE ZPP
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_WB_Aff_neg
  /METHOD=STEPWISE t1_WB_Aff_neg t2_id t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth
  /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED) (*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
  /RESIDUALS DURBIN NORMPROB(ZRESID)
  /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)
  /SAVE MAHAL.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_aggregated_negative affect	1.6857	.72506	28
t1_aggregated_negative affect	2.8714	.99363	28
T2_aggregated_identity	5.4898	.75586	28
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.3810	.88292	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.6250	.76528	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_negative affect	t1_aggregated_negative affect	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_negative affect	1.000	.143	.291	.321
	t1_aggregated_negative affect	.143	1.000	.142	.300
	T2_aggregated_identity	.291	.142	1.000	.373
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.321	.300	.373	1.000
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	-.147	.017	.354	.256
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_negative affect	.	.233	.067	.048
	t1_aggregated_negative affect	.233	.	.236	.060
	T2_aggregated_identity	.067	.236	.	.025
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.048	.060	.025	.
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.228	.466	.032	.094
N	t2_aggregated_negative affect	28	28	28	28
	t1_aggregated_negative affect	28	28	28	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28	28	28	28

t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28	28	28	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_negative affect	-.147
	t1_aggregated_negative affect	.017
	T2_aggregated_identity	.354
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.256
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_negative affect	.228
	t1_aggregated_negative affect	.466
	T2_aggregated_identity	.032
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.094
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.
N	t2_aggregated_negative affect	28
	t1_aggregated_negative affect	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model		Variables Removed	Method
1	t1_aggregated_negative affect T2_aggregated_identity t2_aggregated_intra_auth t2_aggregated_inter_auth [b]	.	Stepwise

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_negative affect

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2
1	.479[a]	.229	.095	.68975	.229	1.709	4	23

Model Summary[b]

Model	Change Statistics	Durbin-Watson
	Sig. F Change	
1	.182[a]	1.365

a. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t1_aggregated_negative affect, T2_aggregated_identity, t2_aggregated_intra_auth

b. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_negative affect

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.252	4	.813	1.709	.182[b]
	Residual	10.942	23	.476		
	Total	14.194	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_negative affect

b. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t1_aggregated_negative affect, T2_aggregated_identity, t2_aggregated_intra_auth

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order
1	(Constant)	.548	1.261		.435	.668	
	t1_aggregated_negative affect	.015	.141	.021	.108	.915	.143
	T2_aggregated_identity	.283	.198	.295	1.431	.166	.291
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.237	.170	.288	1.388	.178	.321
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	-.308	.188	-.325	-1.640	.115	-.147

Coefficients[a]

Model		Correlations		Collinearity Statistics	
		Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)				
	t1_aggregated_negative affect	.022	.020	.904	1.107
	T2_aggregated_identity	.286	.262	.787	1.270
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.278	.254	.778	1.285
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	-.324	-.300	.852	1.174

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_negative affect

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	t1_aggregated_negative affect	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
1	1	4.884	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.081	7.764	.01	.92	.01	.00
	3	.016	17.500	.03	.06	.01	.91
	4	.011	20.993	.00	.00	.82	.07
	5	.008	24.930	.97	.01	.16	.01

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
1	1	.00
	2	.02
	3	.19
	4	.43
	5	.37

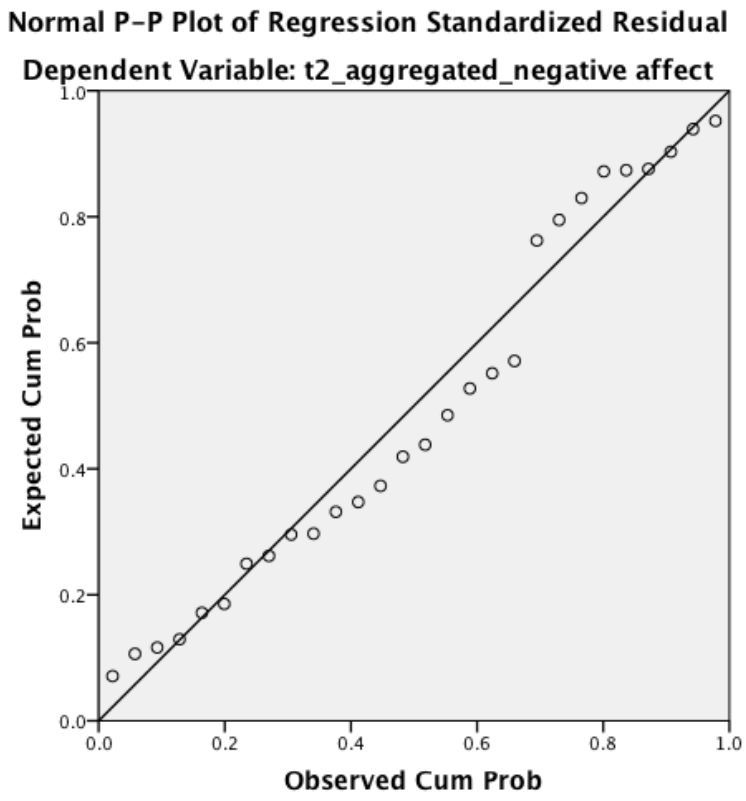
a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_negative affect

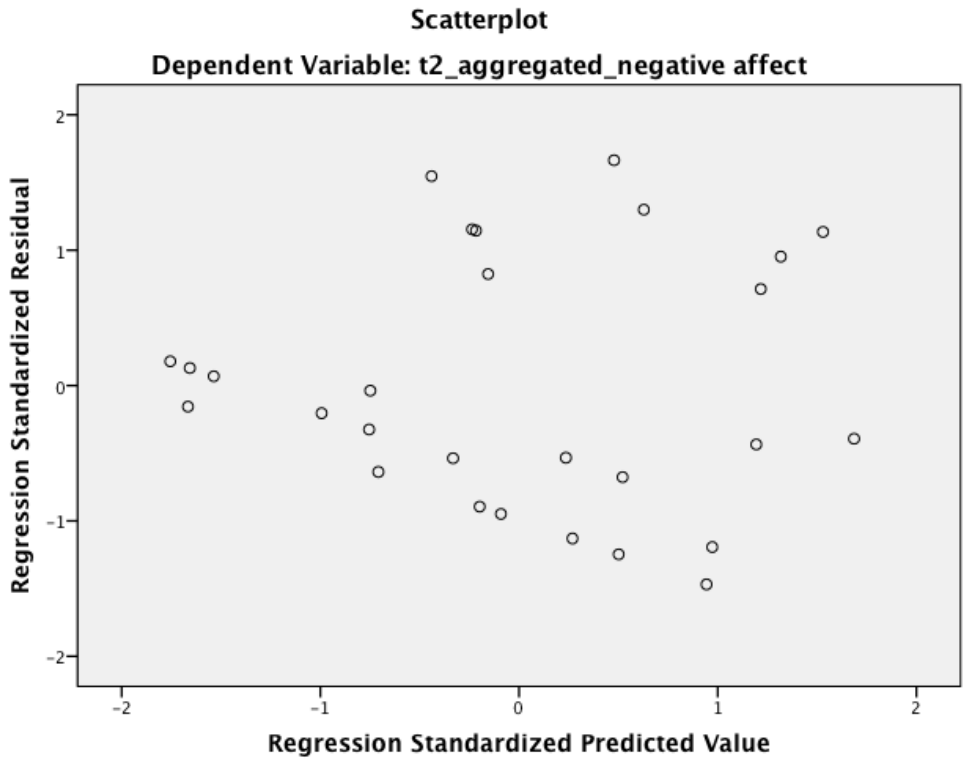
Residuals Statistics[a]

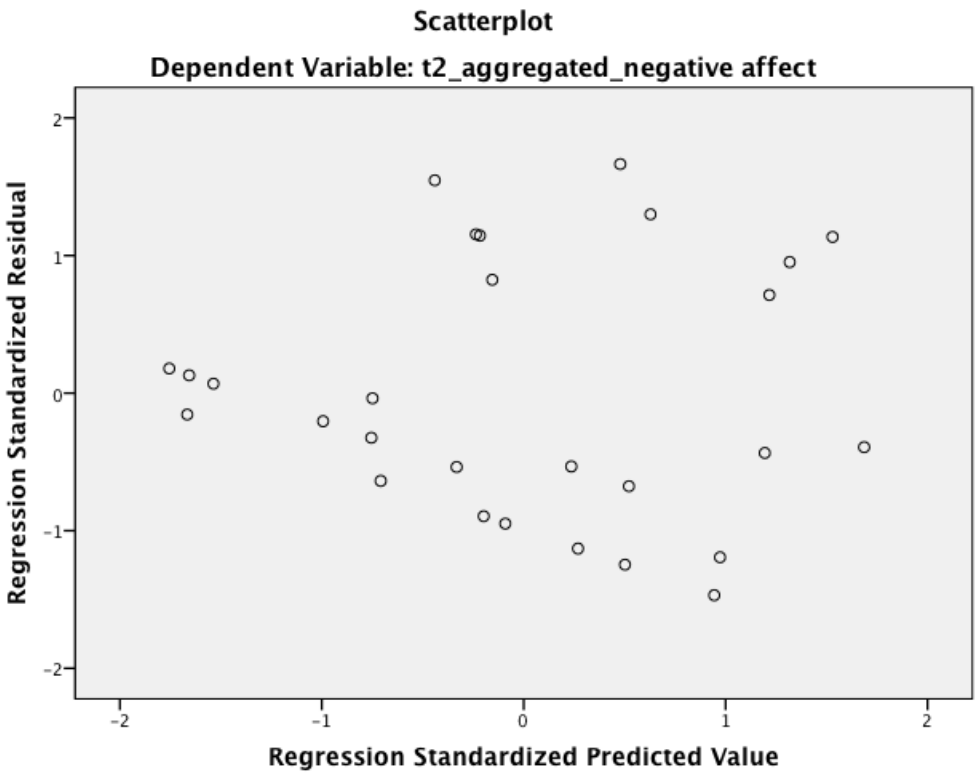
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.0764	2.2709	1.6857	.34704	28
Std. Predicted Value	-1.756	1.686	.000	1.000	28
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.136	.441	.281	.079	28
Adjusted Predicted Value	1.0475	2.3949	1.6778	.35656	28
Residual	-1.01315	1.14833	.00000	.63661	28
Std. Residual	-1.469	1.665	.000	.923	28
Stud. Residual	-1.546	1.720	.005	.995	28
Deleted Residual	-1.12201	1.22594	.00787	.74505	28
Stud. Deleted Residual	-1.597	1.802	.012	1.013	28
Mahal. Distance	.085	10.063	3.857	2.616	28
Cook's Distance	.000	.170	.034	.038	28
Centered Leverage Value	.003	.373	.143	.097	28

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_negative affect

Charts


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_negative affect
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob
0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_negative affect
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_negative affect
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2
-2
-1
0
1
2

A8.3 Life Satisfaction as outcome variable

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL CHANGE ZPP
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT T2_lsat
  /METHOD=STEPWISE T1_WB_Lsat_3 t2_id t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth
  /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED) (*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
  /RESIDUALS DURBIN NORMPROB(ZRESID)
  /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)
  /SAVE MAHAL.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_aggregated_life satisfaction	4.7500	1.19541	28
Life Satisfaction	5.4286	1.03382	28
T2_aggregated_identity	5.4898	.75586	28
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.3810	.88292	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.6250	.76528	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_life satisfaction	Life Satisfaction	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_life satisfaction	1.000	.599	.454	.292
	Life Satisfaction	.599	1.000	.267	.288
	T2_aggregated_identity	.454	.267	1.000	.373
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.292	.288	.373	1.000
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.521	.398	.354	.256
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_life satisfaction	.	.000	.008	.066
	Life Satisfaction	.000	.	.085	.069
	T2_aggregated_identity	.008	.085	.	.025
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.066	.069	.025	.
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.002	.018	.032	.094
N	t2_aggregated_life satisfaction	28	28	28	28
	Life Satisfaction	28	28	28	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28	28	28	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_life satisfaction	.521
	Life Satisfaction	.398
	T2_aggregated_identity	.354
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.256
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_life satisfaction	.002
	Life Satisfaction	.018
	T2_aggregated_identity	.032
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.094
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.
N	t2_aggregated_life satisfaction	28
	Life Satisfaction	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model		Variables Removed	Method
1	Life Satisfaction T2_aggregated_identity t2_aggregated_intra_auth t2_aggregated_inter_auth [b]	.	Stepwise

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2
1	.712[a]	.506	.421	.90996	.506	5.899	4	23

Model Summary[b]

Model	Change Statistics	Durbin-Watson
	Sig. F Change	
1	.002[a]	2.178

a. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, Life Satisfaction, T2_aggregated_identity

b. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	19.539	4	4.885	5.899	.002[b]
	Residual	19.045	23	.828		
	Total	38.583	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, Life Satisfaction, T2_aggregated_identity

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order
1	(Constant)	-2.431	1.664		-1.461	.158	
	Life Satisfaction	.493	.190	.427	2.602	.016	.599
	T2_aggregated_identity	.384	.262	.243	1.469	.155	.454
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.016	.219	.012	.072	.943	.292
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.410	.261	.263	1.574	.129	.521

Coefficients[a]

Model		Correlations		Collinearity Statistics	
		Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)				
	Life Satisfaction	.477	.381	.798	1.253
	T2_aggregated_identity	.293	.215	.783	1.277
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.015	.011	.818	1.223
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.312	.231	.771	1.297

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	Life Satisfaction	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
1	1	4.942	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.023	14.633	.01	.84	.05	.14
	3	.016	17.383	.04	.09	.06	.74
	4	.011	21.460	.01	.06	.73	.08
	5	.008	24.979	.93	.00	.16	.03

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
1	1	.00
	2	.00
	3	.19
	4	.46
	5	.35

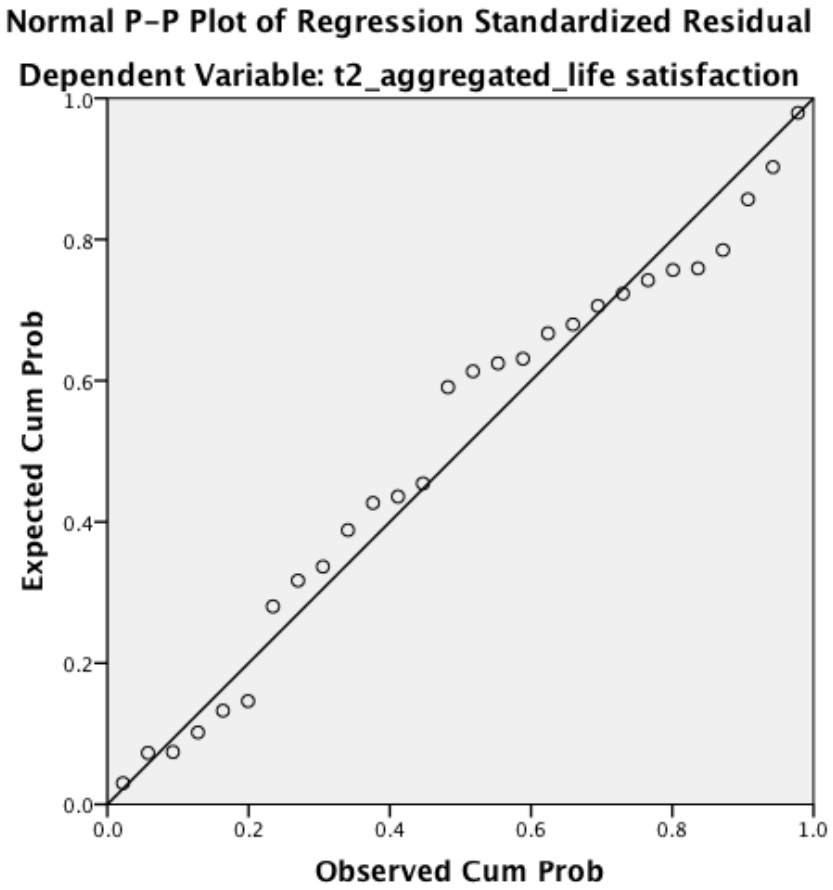
a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction

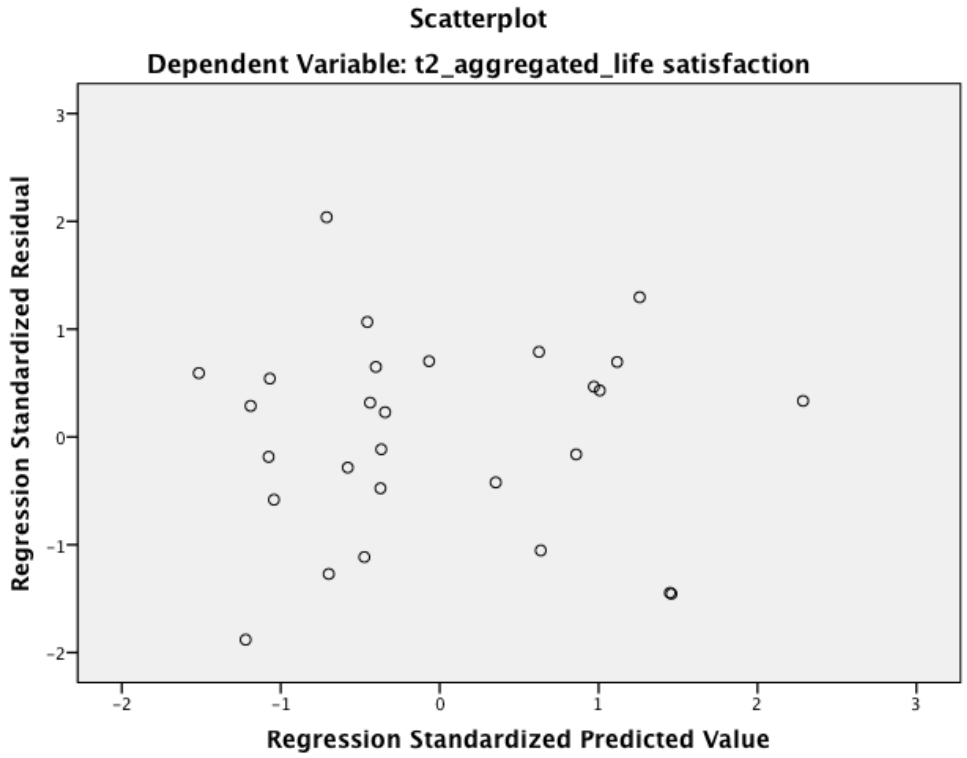
Residuals Statistics[a]

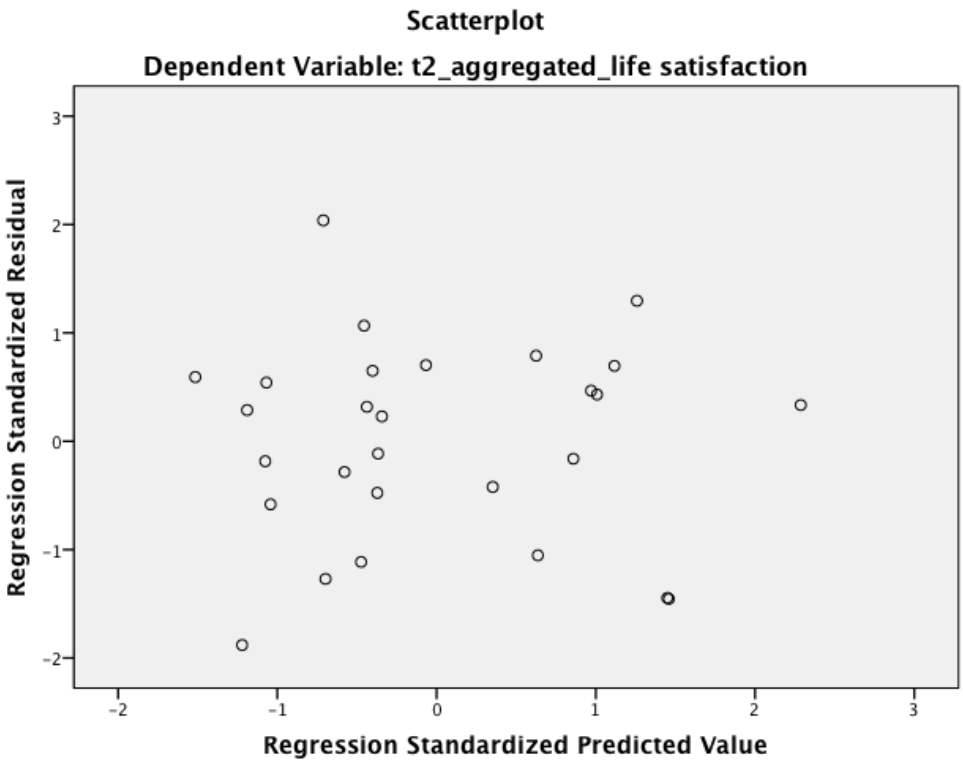
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3.4607	6.6953	4.7500	.85068	28
Std. Predicted Value	-1.516	2.287	.000	1.000	28
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.190	.611	.371	.103	28
Adjusted Predicted Value	3.2349	6.5760	4.8028	.87943	28
Residual	-1.71142	1.85507	.00000	.83986	28
Std. Residual	-1.881	2.039	.000	.923	28
Stud. Residual	-2.539	2.265	-.025	1.063	28
Deleted Residual	-3.11875	2.28893	-.05281	1.12883	28
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.927	2.512	-.037	1.129	28
Mahal. Distance	.217	11.219	3.857	2.531	28
Cook's Distance	.001	1.060	.080	.203	28
Centered Leverage Value	.008	.416	.143	.094	28

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction

Charts


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob
0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
-2
-1
0
1
2
3


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
3
2
1
0
-1
-2
-2
-1
0
1
2
3

A8.4 Eudaimonic well-being as outcome variable

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL CHANGE ZPP
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_PWB_D
  /METHOD=STEPWISE t1_PWB_D t2_id t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth
  /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED) (*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
  /RESIDUALS DURBIN NORMPROB(ZRESID)
  /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)
  /SAVE MAHAL.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	5.5550	.67817	28
t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	5.5238	.70523	28
T2_aggregated_identity	5.4898	.75586	28
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.3810	.88292	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.6250	.76528	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	1.000	.658	.262	.512
	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.658	1.000	.197	.385
	T2_aggregated_identity	.262	.197	1.000	.373
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.512	.385	.373	1.000
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.625	.635	.354	.256
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.	.000	.089	.003
	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.000	.	.158	.022
	T2_aggregated_identity	.089	.158	.	.025
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.003	.022	.025	.
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.000	.000	.032	.094
N	t2_aggregated_psychological well-being Diener	28	28	28	28
	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being Diener	28	28	28	28

T2_aggregated_identity	28	28	28	28
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28	28	28	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28	28	28	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.625
	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.635
	T2_aggregated_identity	.354
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.256
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.000
	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.000
	T2_aggregated_identity	.032
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.094
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.

N	t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	28
	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model		Variables Removed	Method
1	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener T2_aggregated_identity t2_aggregated_intra_auth t2_aggregated_inter_auth [b]	.	Stepwise

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2
1	.764[a]	.583	.510	.47451	.583	8.038	4	23

Model Summary[b]

Model	Change Statistics	Durbin-Watson
	Sig. F Change	
1	.000[a]	1.936

a. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity, t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener

b. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.239	4	1.810	8.038	.000[b]
	Residual	5.179	23	.225		
	Total	12.418	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener

b. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity, t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order
1	(Constant)	.998	.918		1.088	.288	
	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.306	.177	.318	1.726	.098	.658

T2_aggregated_identity	-.040	.137	-.045	-.293	.772	.262
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.242	.119	.315	2.030	.054	.512
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.317	.163	.358	1.951	.063	.625

Coefficients[a]

Model		Correlations		Collinearity Statistics	
		Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)				
	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.339	.232	.533	1.877
	T2_aggregated_identity	-.061	-.039	.773	1.294
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.390	.273	.753	1.327
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.377	.263	.538	1.858

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	t1_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth

	1	4.955	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.018	16.679	.01	.05	.02	.64
1	3	.014	18.801	.02	.11	.61	.22
	4	.008	24.966	.82	.00	.12	.03
	5	.005	31.719	.16	.84	.25	.11

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
	1	.00
	2	.13
1	3	.01
	4	.27
	5	.58

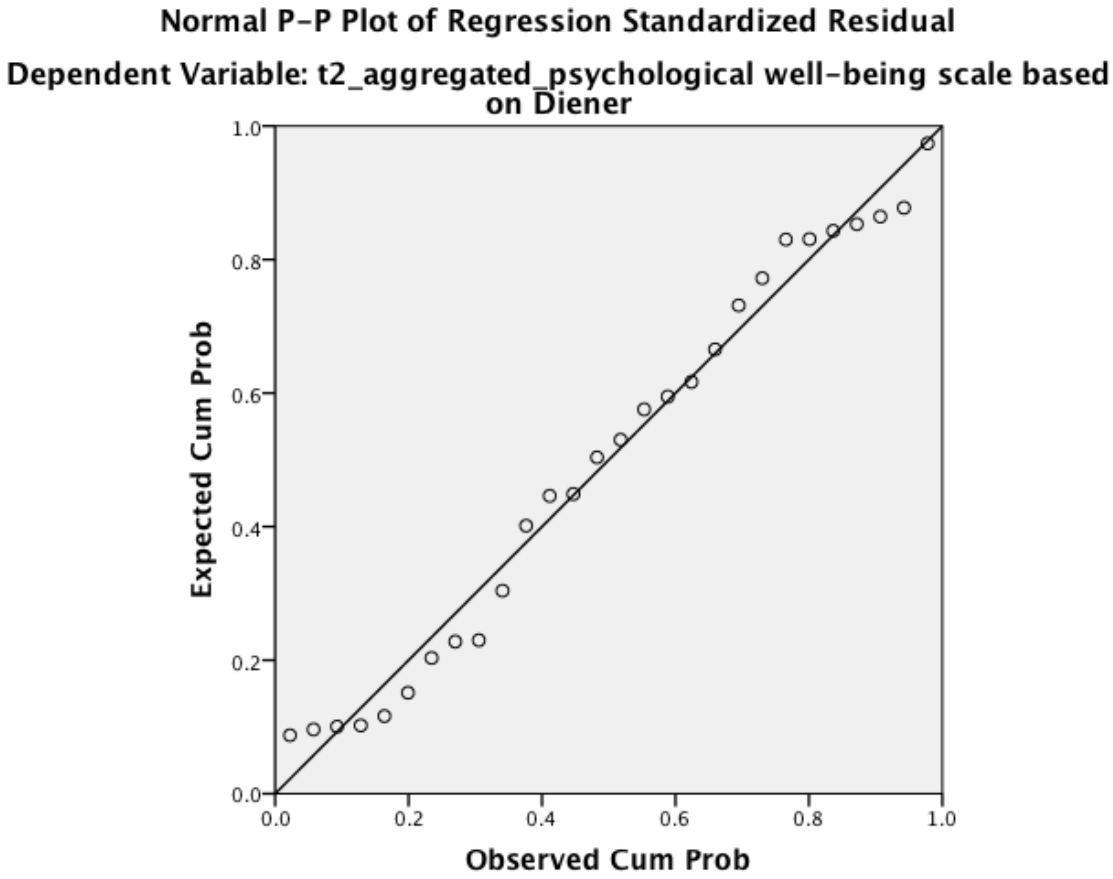
a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener

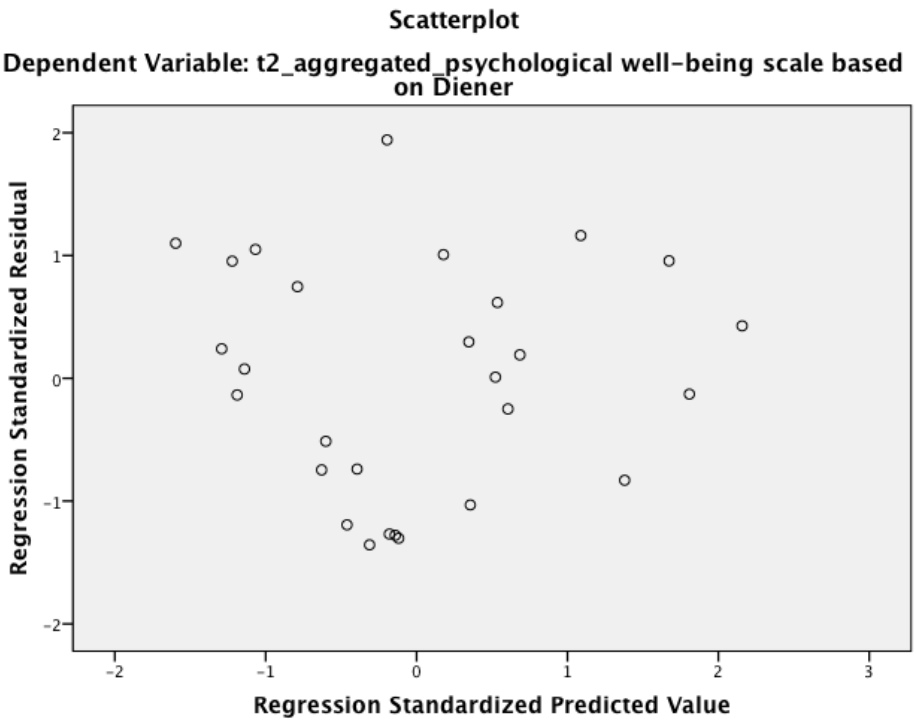
Residuals Statistics[a]

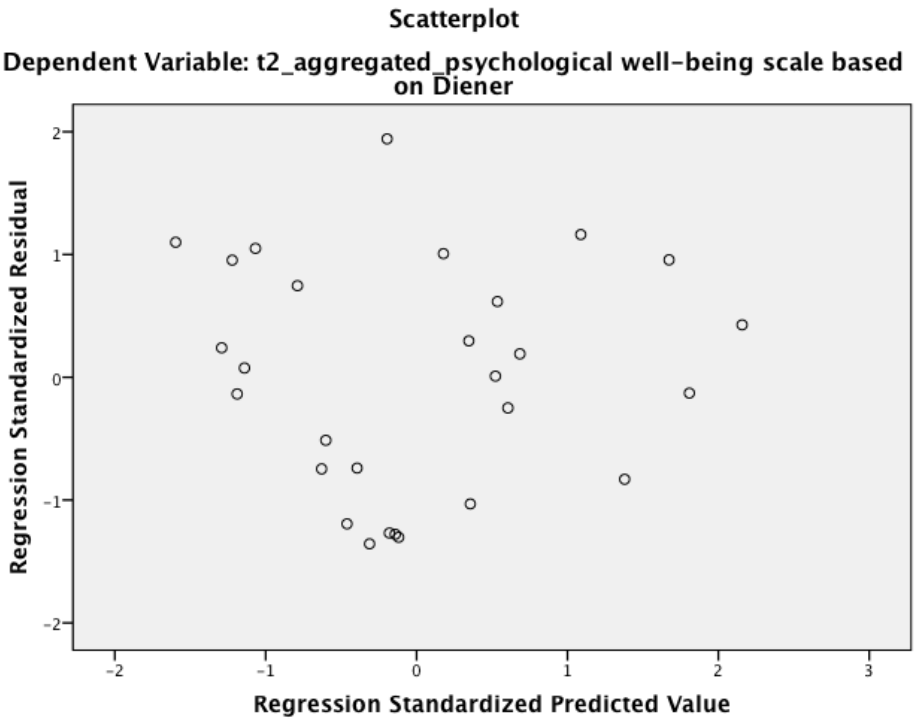
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	4.7282	6.6721	5.5550	.51779	28
Std. Predicted Value	-1.597	2.157	.000	1.000	28
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.096	.302	.194	.050	28
Adjusted Predicted Value	4.5844	6.5943	5.5595	.52339	28
Residual	-.64356	.92130	.00000	.43795	28
Std. Residual	-1.356	1.942	.000	.923	28
Stud. Residual	-1.473	1.983	-.004	.999	28
Deleted Residual	-.78572	.96091	-.00446	.51509	28
Stud. Deleted Residual	-1.514	2.130	-.003	1.019	28
Mahal. Distance	.149	9.945	3.857	2.340	28
Cook's Distance	.000	.125	.035	.032	28
Centered Leverage Value	.006	.368	.143	.087	28

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener

Charts


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob
0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
-2
-1
0
1
2
3


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2
-2
-1
0
1
2
3

A8.5 Vigour as outcome variable

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL CHANGE ZPP
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_vigor
  /METHOD=STEPWISE t1_vigor t2_id t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth
  /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED) (*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
  /RESIDUALS DURBIN NORMPROB(ZRESID)
  /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)
  /SAVE MAHAL.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_aggregated_vigor	4.9764	.92586	28
t1_aggregated_vigor	4.7768	1.20443	28
T2_aggregated_identity	5.4898	.75586	28
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.3810	.88292	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.6250	.76528	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_vigor	t1_aggregated_vigor	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_vigor	1.000	.290	.418	.301
	t1_aggregated_vigor	.290	1.000	.464	.466
	T2_aggregated_identity	.418	.464	1.000	.373
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.301	.466	.373	1.000
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.475	.257	.354	.256
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_vigor	.	.067	.014	.060
	t1_aggregated_vigor	.067	.	.006	.006
	T2_aggregated_identity	.014	.006	.	.025
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.060	.006	.025	.
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.005	.093	.032	.094
N	t2_aggregated_vigor	28	28	28	28
	t1_aggregated_vigor	28	28	28	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28	28	28	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_vigor	.475
	t1_aggregated_vigor	.257
	T2_aggregated_identity	.354
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.256
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_vigor	.005
	t1_aggregated_vigor	.093
	T2_aggregated_identity	.032
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.094
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.
N	t2_aggregated_vigor	28
	t1_aggregated_vigor	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model		Variables Removed	Method
1	t1_aggregated_vigor T2_aggregated_identity t2_aggregated_intra_auth t2_aggregated_inter_auth [b]	.	Stepwise

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2
1	.556[a]	.310	.189	.83356	.310	2.578	4	23

Model Summary[b]

Model	Change Statistics	Durbin-Watson
	Sig. F Change	
1	.064[a]	1.703

a. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity, t1_aggregated_vigor

b. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.164	4	1.791	2.578	.064[b]
	Residual	15.981	23	.695		
	Total	23.145	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor

b. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity, t1_aggregated_vigor

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order
1	(Constant)	.251	1.518		.165	.870	
	t1_aggregated_vigor	.032	.161	.042	.201	.842	.290
	T2_aggregated_identity	.287	.252	.234	1.136	.268	.418
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.108	.211	.103	.512	.614	.301
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.429	.227	.355	1.893	.071	.475

Coefficients[a]

Model		Correlations		Collinearity Statistics	
		Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)				
	t1_aggregated_vigor	.042	.035	.682	1.466
	T2_aggregated_identity	.230	.197	.706	1.415
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.106	.089	.742	1.347
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.367	.328	.853	1.172

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	t1_aggregated_vigor	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
1	1	4.929	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.037	11.537	.04	.79	.01	.00
	3	.016	17.693	.00	.09	.04	.90
	4	.011	21.416	.01	.04	.67	.03
	5	.007	25.637	.95	.08	.29	.07

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
1	1	.00
	2	.05
	3	.15
	4	.55
	5	.25

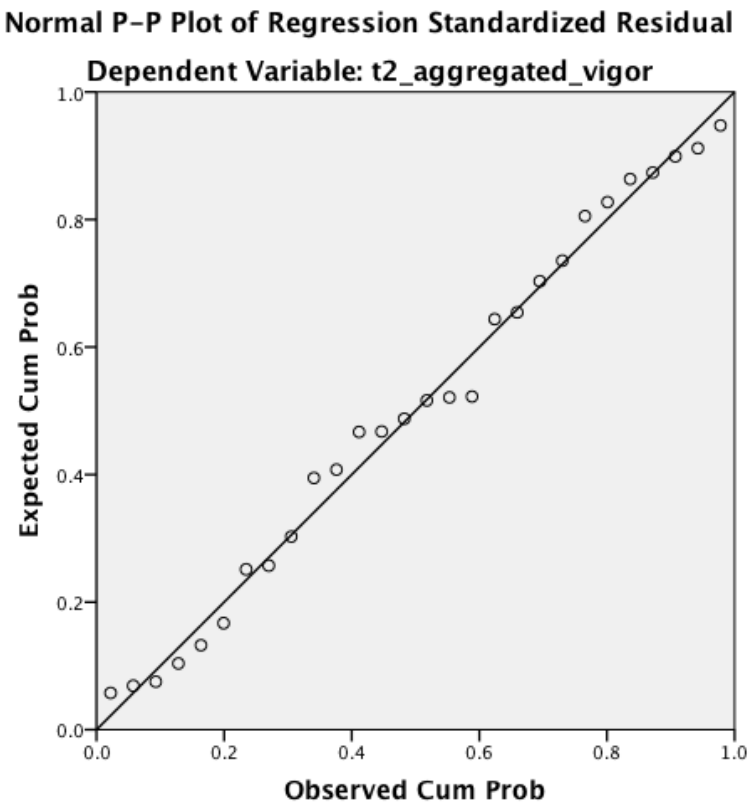
a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor

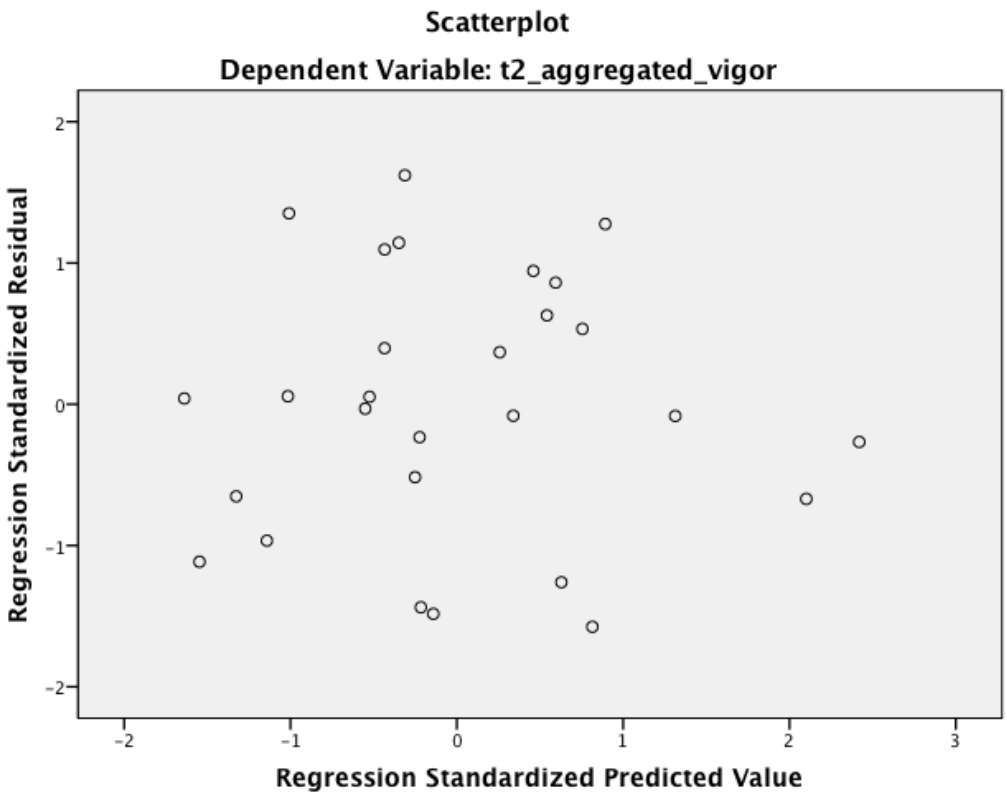
Residuals Statistics[a]

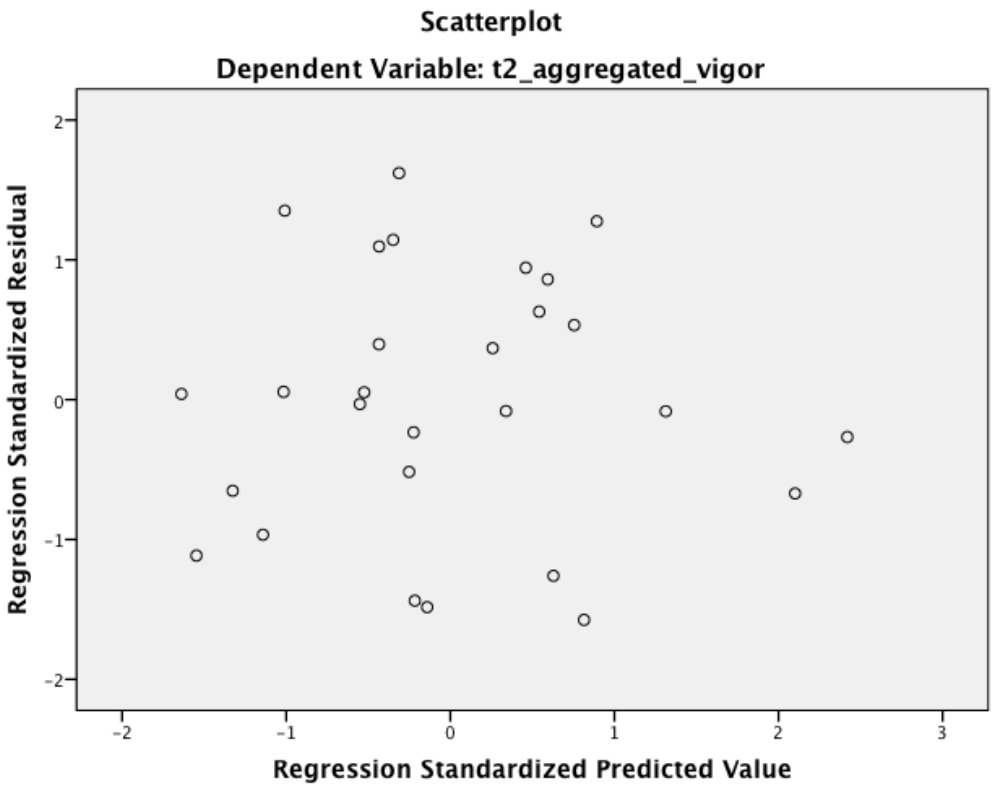
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	4.1325	6.2225	4.9764	.51510	28
Std. Predicted Value	-1.638	2.419	.000	1.000	28
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.180	.532	.342	.084	28
Adjusted Predicted Value	4.0591	6.3061	4.9441	.56554	28
Residual	-1.31288	1.35112	.00000	.76934	28
Std. Residual	-1.575	1.621	.000	.923	28
Stud. Residual	-1.732	1.759	.017	1.027	28
Deleted Residual	-1.58748	1.59161	.03236	.95817	28
Stud. Deleted Residual	-1.816	1.850	.017	1.052	28
Mahal. Distance	.299	10.043	3.857	2.262	28
Cook's Distance	.000	.279	.052	.067	28
Centered Leverage Value	.011	.372	.143	.084	28

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor

Charts


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob
0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2
3


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2
-2
-1
0
1
2
3

A8.6 Work engagement as outcome variable

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL CHANGE ZPP
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_engage
  /METHOD=STEPWISE t1_engage t2_id t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth
  /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED) (*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
  /RESIDUALS DURBIN NORMPROB(ZRESID)
  /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)
  /SAVE MAHAL.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_aggregated_engagement	4.9563	1.13042	28
t1_aggregated_engagement	4.9226	1.21334	28
T2_aggregated_identity	5.4898	.75586	28
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.3810	.88292	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.6250	.76528	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_engagement	t1_aggregated_engagement	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_engagement	1.000	.640	.612	.300
	t1_aggregated_engagement	.640	1.000	.707	.407
	T2_aggregated_identity	.612	.707	1.000	.373
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.300	.407	.373	1.000
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.575	.373	.354	.256
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_engagement	.	.000	.000	.060
	t1_aggregated_engagement	.000	.	.000	.016
	T2_aggregated_identity	.000	.000	.	.025
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.060	.016	.025	.
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.001	.025	.032	.094
N	t2_aggregated_engagement	28	28	28	28
	t1_aggregated_engagement	28	28	28	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28	28	28	28

t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28	28	28	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_engagement	.575
	t1_aggregated_engagement	.373
	T2_aggregated_identity	.354
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.256
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_engagement	.001
	t1_aggregated_engagement	.025
	T2_aggregated_identity	.032
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.094
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.
N	t2_aggregated_engagement	28
	t1_aggregated_engagement	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model		Variables Removed	Method
1	t1_aggregated_engagement T2_aggregated_identity t2_aggregated_intra_auth t2_aggregated_inter_auth [b]	.	Stepwise

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_engagement

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2

1	.757[a]	.573	.499	.80024	.573	7.719	4	23

Model Summary[b]

Model	Change Statistics	Durbin-Watson
	Sig. F Change	
1	.000[a]	1.667

a. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity, t1_aggregated_engagement

b. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_engagement

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	19.773	4	4.943	7.719	.000[b]
	Residual	14.729	23	.640		
	Total	34.502	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_engagement

b. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity, t1_aggregated_engagement

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order
1	(Constant)	-1.557	1.529		-1.018	.319	
	t1_aggregated_engagement	.308	.186	.331	1.655	.112	.640
	T2_aggregated_identity	.385	.293	.258	1.316	.201	.612
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	-.031	.194	-.024	-.160	.874	.300
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.542	.220	.367	2.459	.022	.575

Coefficients[a]

Model		Correlations		Collinearity Statistics	
		Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)				
	t1_aggregated_engagement	.326	.225	.464	2.154
	T2_aggregated_identity	.265	.179	.484	2.065
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	-.033	-.022	.810	1.234
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.456	.335	.835	1.197

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_engagement

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	t1_aggregated_engagement	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
1	1	4.934	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.034	12.119	.05	.53	.00	.03
	3	.017	17.126	.02	.00	.01	.86
	4	.010	22.333	.17	.05	.29	.08
	5	.005	30.026	.76	.42	.70	.03

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
1	1	.00
	2	.04
	3	.21
	4	.65
	5	.10

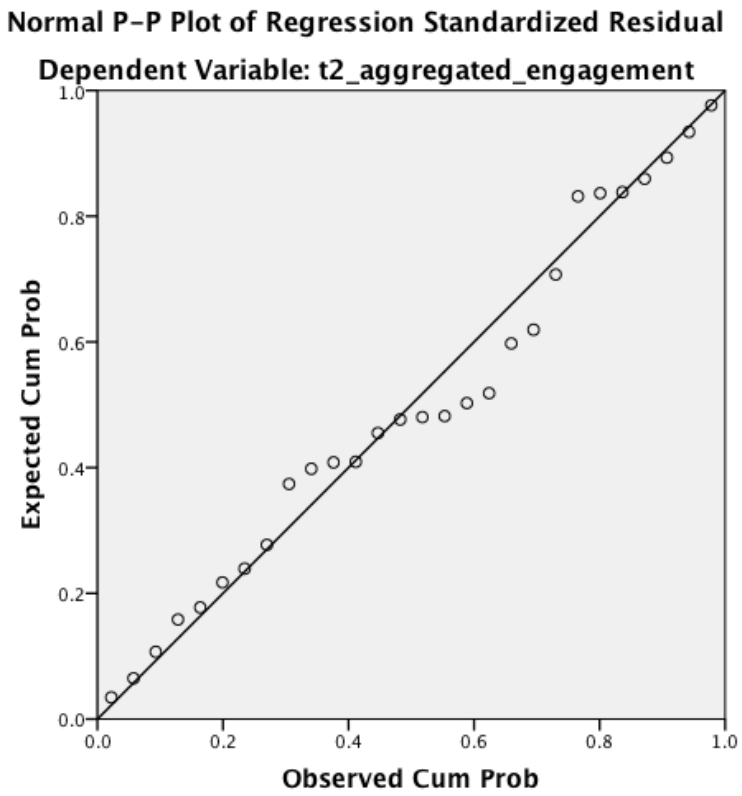
a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_engagement

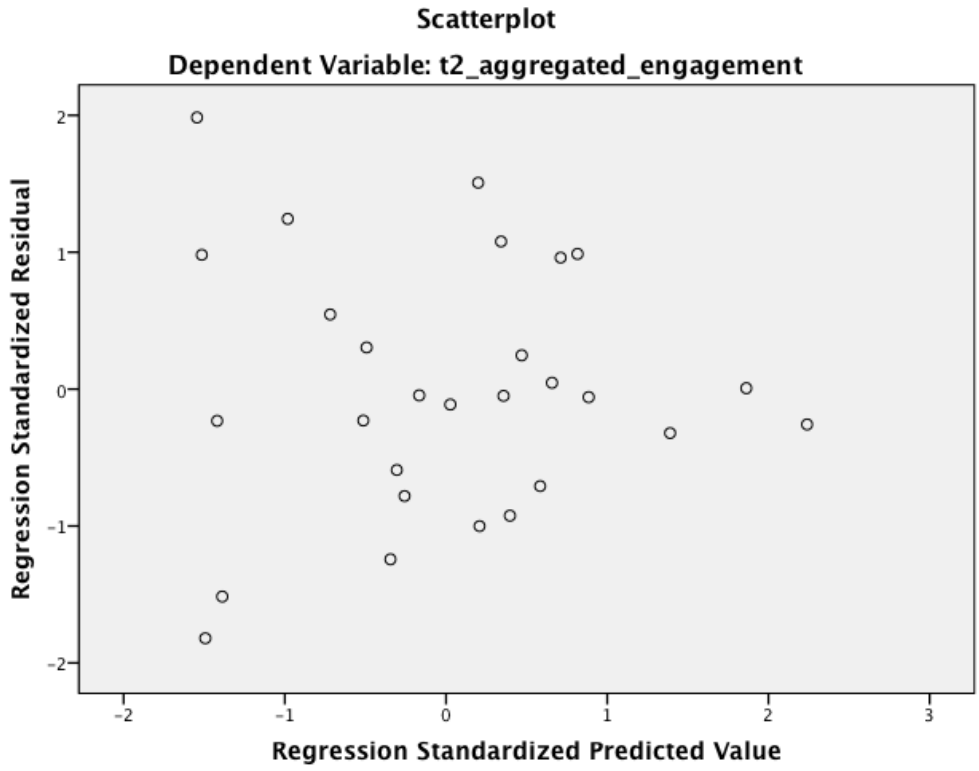
Residuals Statistics[a]

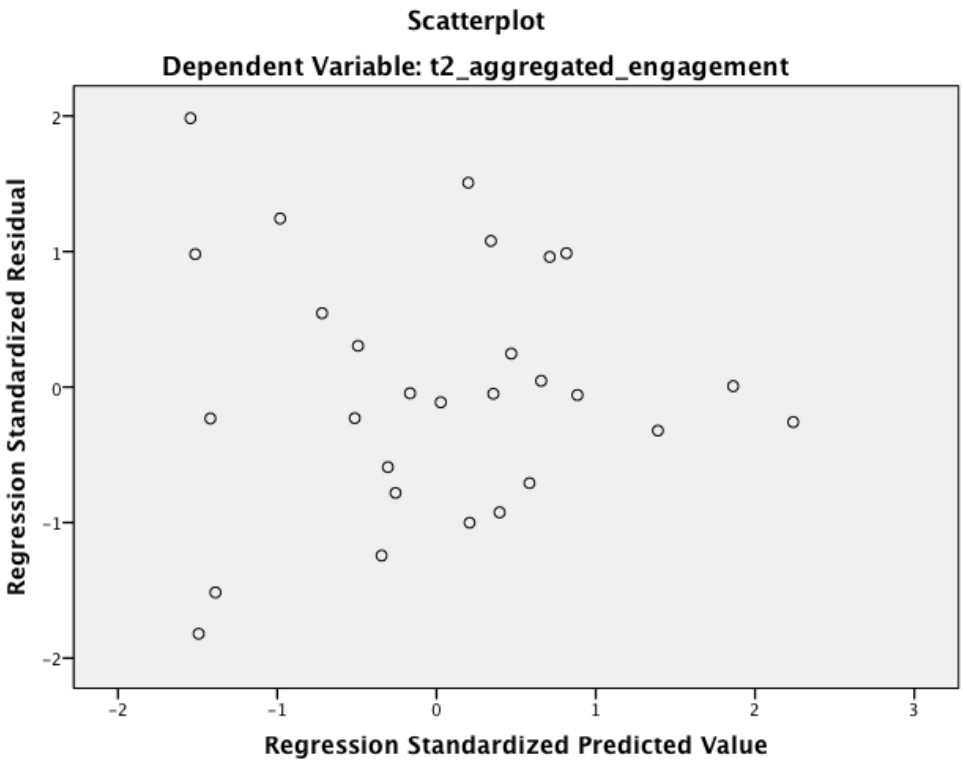
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3.6343	6.8733	4.9563	.85577	28
Std. Predicted Value	-1.545	2.240	.000	1.000	28
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.184	.453	.330	.076	28
Adjusted Predicted Value	3.0360	6.9506	4.9234	.89335	28
Residual	-1.45622	1.58792	.00000	.73859	28
Std. Residual	-1.820	1.984	.000	.923	28
Stud. Residual	-2.074	2.328	.019	1.037	28
Deleted Residual	-1.89167	2.18621	.03293	.93423	28
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.250	2.605	.025	1.085	28
Mahal. Distance	.468	7.674	3.857	2.051	28
Cook's Distance	.000	.408	.056	.093	28
Centered Leverage Value	.017	.284	.143	.076	28

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_engagement

Charts


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_engagement
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob
0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_engagement
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
-2
-1
0
1
2
3


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_engagement
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2
-2
-1
0
1
2
3

A8.7 Flow as outcome variable

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL CHANGE ZPP
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_flow
  /METHOD=STEPWISE t1_flow t2_id t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth
  /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED) (*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
  /RESIDUALS DURBIN NORMPROB(ZRESID)
  /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)
  /SAVE MAHAL.
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_aggregated_flow	4.5271	.91756	28
t1_aggregated_flow	4.5714	.98906	28
T2_aggregated_identity	5.4898	.75586	28
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.3810	.88292	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.6250	.76528	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_flow	t1_aggregated_flow	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_flow	1.000	.618	.594	.210
	t1_aggregated_flow	.618	1.000	.439	.316
	T2_aggregated_identity	.594	.439	1.000	.373
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.210	.316	.373	1.000
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.405	.179	.354	.256
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_flow	.	.000	.000	.141
	t1_aggregated_flow	.000	.	.010	.050
	T2_aggregated_identity	.000	.010	.	.025
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.141	.050	.025	.
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.016	.180	.032	.094
N	t2_aggregated_flow	28	28	28	28
	t1_aggregated_flow	28	28	28	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28	28	28	28

Correlations

		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_aggregated_flow	.405
	t1_aggregated_flow	.179
	T2_aggregated_identity	.354
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.256
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_aggregated_flow	.016
	t1_aggregated_flow	.180
	T2_aggregated_identity	.032
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.094
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.
N	t2_aggregated_flow	28
	t1_aggregated_flow	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t1_aggregated_flow, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity[b]	.	STEPWISE

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_flow

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2
1	.750[a]	.563	.487	.65701	.563	7.415	4	23

Model Summary[b]

Model	Change Statistics	Durbin-Watson
	Sig. F Change	
1	.001[a]	2.009

a. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t1_aggregated_flow, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity

b. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_flow

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	12.804	4	3.201	7.415	.001[b]
	Residual	9.928	23	.432		
	Total	22.732	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_flow

b. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t1_aggregated_flow, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, T2_aggregated_identity

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order
1	(Constant)	-.642	1.196		-.537	.597	
	t1_aggregated_flow	.427	.145	.460	2.950	.007	.618
	T2_aggregated_identity	.436	.201	.359	2.167	.041	.594
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	-.132	.159	-.127	-.835	.412	.210
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.273	.178	.228	1.532	.139	.405

Coefficients[a]

Model		Correlations		Collinearity Statistics	
		Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)				
	t1_aggregated_flow	.524	.407	.780	1.282
	T2_aggregated_identity	.412	.299	.693	1.444
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	-.172	-.115	.816	1.226
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.304	.211	.857	1.167

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_flow

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	t1_aggregated_flow	T2_aggregated_identity	t2_aggregated_intra_auth
1	1	4.935	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.030	12.906	.02	.86	.00	.02
	3	.017	17.172	.02	.01	.02	.91
	4	.010	21.987	.00	.12	.80	.04
	5	.008	24.954	.95	.00	.18	.03

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		t2_aggregated_inter_auth
1	1	.00
	2	.07
	3	.18
	4	.42
	5	.33

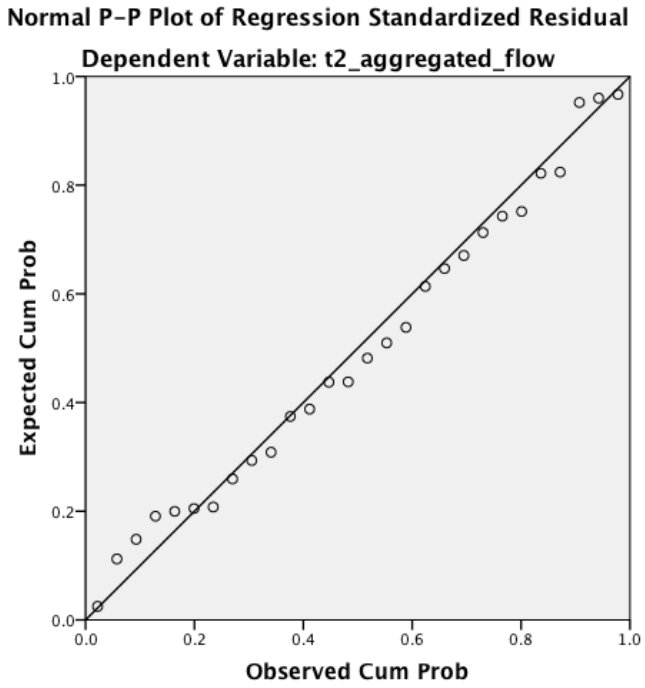
a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_flow

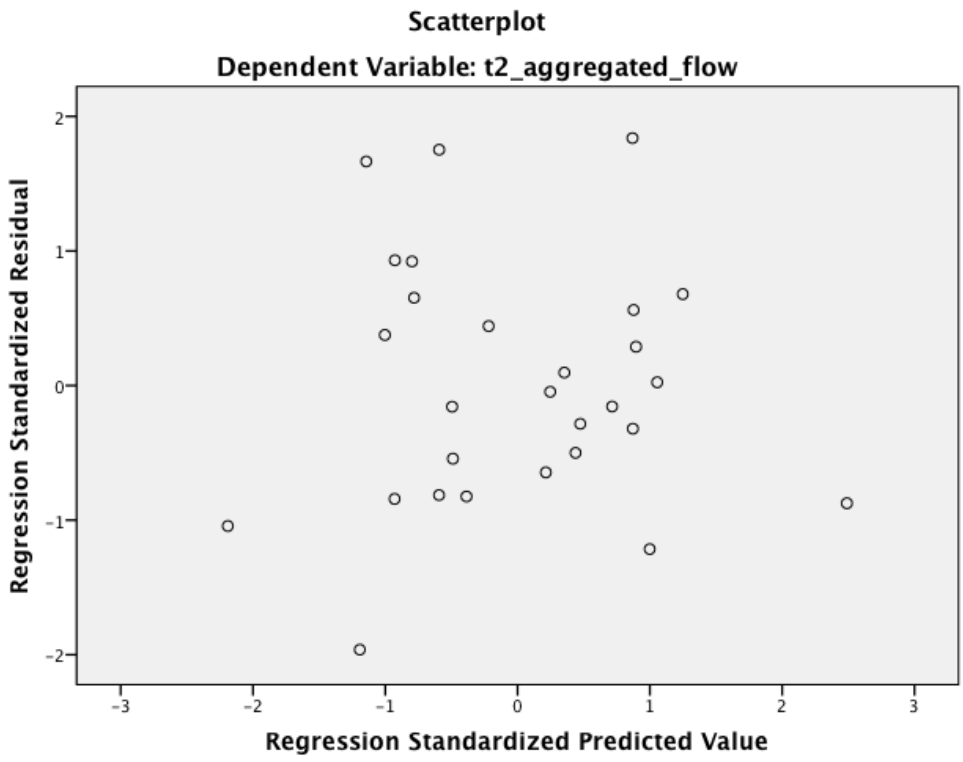
Residuals Statistics[a]

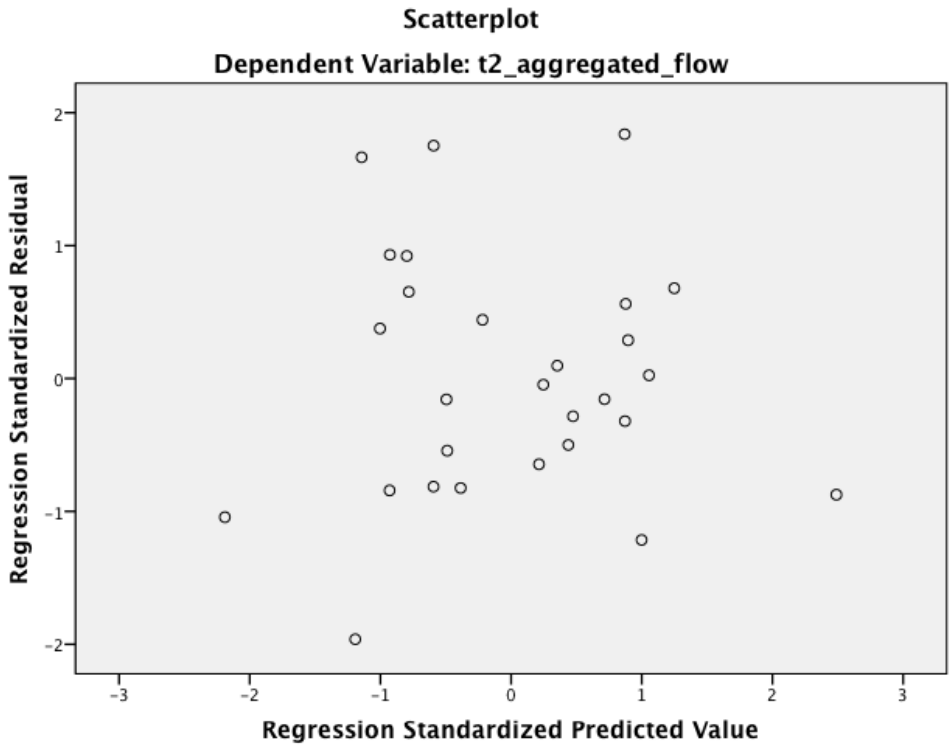
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3.0189	6.2412	4.5271	.68863	28
Std. Predicted Value	-2.190	2.489	.000	1.000	28
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.161	.380	.271	.062	28
Adjusted Predicted Value	3.2847	6.5167	4.5198	.71005	28
Residual	-1.28935	1.20823	.00000	.60640	28
Std. Residual	-1.962	1.839	.000	.923	28
Stud. Residual	-2.138	2.141	.005	1.033	28
Deleted Residual	-1.53019	1.63807	.00737	.76221	28
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.336	2.340	.013	1.081	28
Mahal. Distance	.648	8.058	3.857	2.143	28
Cook's Distance	.000	.326	.054	.076	28
Centered Leverage Value	.024	.298	.143	.079	28

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_flow

Charts


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_flow
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob
0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_flow
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2
-3
-2
-1
0
1
2
3


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_flow
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
2
1
0
-1
-2
-3
-2
-1
0
1
2
3

A8.8 Spirituality as predictor of life satisfaction

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT T2_lsat
  /METHOD=ENTER spirituality.
```

SPSS Output

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	spirituality[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.521[a]	.271	.243	1.03987

a. Predictors: (Constant), spirituality

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	10.469	1	10.469	9.681	.004[b]
	Residual	28.115	26	1.081		
	Total	38.583	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), spirituality

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.273	.514		6.368	.000
	spirituality	.380	.122	.521	3.111	.004

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_life satisfaction

A8.9 Other well-being variables predicting vigour

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_vigor
  /METHOD=STEPWISE t2_WB_Aff_pos t2_PWB_D t2_flow t2_engage.
```

SPSS Output

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	t2_aggregated_engagement, t2_aggregated_positive affect, t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener, t2_aggregated_flow[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.876[a]	.768	.727	.48354

a. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_engagement, t2_aggregated_positive affect, t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener, t2_aggregated_flow

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	17.767	4	4.442	18.998	.000[b]
	Residual	5.378	23	.234		
	Total	23.145	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor

b. Predictors: (Constant), t2_aggregated_engagement, t2_aggregated_positive affect, t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener, t2_aggregated_flow

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.322	.913		1.449	.161
	t2_aggregated_positive affect	.037	.123	.042	.302	.766
	t2_aggregated_psychological well-being scale based on Diener	.048	.196	.035	.245	.808
	t2_aggregated_flow	-.109	.182	-.108	-.596	.557
	t2_aggregated_engagement	.743	.188	.908	3.950	.001

a. Dependent Variable: t2_aggregated_vigor

A8.10 Regression with sub-dimensions of vigour

Syntax

```
DATASET ACTIVATE DataSet1.
DATASET CLOSE DataSet2.
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_vigor_physical
  /METHOD=ENTER t1_vigour_physical t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth t2_id
  /RESIDUALS HISTOGRAM(ZRESID) NORMPROB(ZRESID).
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_vigor_physical	4.6960	1.06006	25
t1_vigour_physical	4.4800	1.30288	25
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.3733	.85158	25
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.5400	.74889	25
T2_aggregated_identity	5.3639	.68950	25

Correlations

		t2_vigor_physical	t1_vigour_physical	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_vigor_physical	1.000	.195	.257	.126
	t1_vigour_physical	.195	1.000	.395	.161
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.257	.395	1.000	.193
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.126	.161	.193	1.000
	T2_aggregated_identity	.172	.438	.385	.207
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_vigor_physical	.	.176	.107	.274
	t1_vigour_physical	.176	.	.025	.221
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.107	.025	.	.177
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.274	.221	.177	.
	T2_aggregated_identity	.205	.014	.029	.160
N	t2_vigor_physical	25	25	25	25
	t1_vigour_physical	25	25	25	25

t2_aggregated – intra_auth	25	25	25	25
t2_aggregated – inter_auth	25	25	25	25
T2_aggregated_identity	25	25	25	25

Correlations

		T2_aggregated_identity
Pearson Correlation	t2_vigor_physical	.172
	t1_vigour_physical	.438
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.385
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.207
	T2_aggregated_identity	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_vigor_physical	.205
	t1_vigour_physical	.014
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.029
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.160
	T2_aggregated_identity	.
N	t2_vigor_physical	25
	t1_vigour_physical	25
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	25
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	25
	T2_aggregated_identity	25

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	T2_aggregated_identity, t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, Vigor_physical[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_physical

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.288[a]	.083	-.101	1.11221

a. Predictors: (Constant), T2_aggregated_identity, t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, t1_vigour_physical

b. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_physical

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.230	4	.557	.451	.771[b]
	Residual	24.740	20	1.237		
	Total	26.970	24			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_physical

b. Predictors: (Constant), T2_aggregated_identity, t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, t1_vigour_physical

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Colline-arity Statistics
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance
1	(Constant)	2.197	2.340		.939	.359	
	t1_vigour_physical	.072	.202	.088	.355	.727	.746
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.239	.302	.192	.791	.438	.779
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.092	.313	.065	.296	.771	.940
	T2_aggregated_identity	.071	.382	.046	.187	.854	.744

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics
		VIF
1	(Constant)	
	t1_vigour_physical	1.340
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	1.284
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.064
	T2_aggregated_identity	1.345

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_physical

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	t1_vigour_physical	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	t2_aggregated_inter_auth
1	1	4.915	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.052	9.762	.02	.84	.00	.03
	3	.016	17.572	.01	.08	.72	.35
	4	.011	20.854	.03	.02	.25	.35
	5	.006	28.041	.94	.06	.02	.26

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		T2_aggregated_identity
1	1	.00
	2	.00
	3	.00
	4	.57
	5	.43

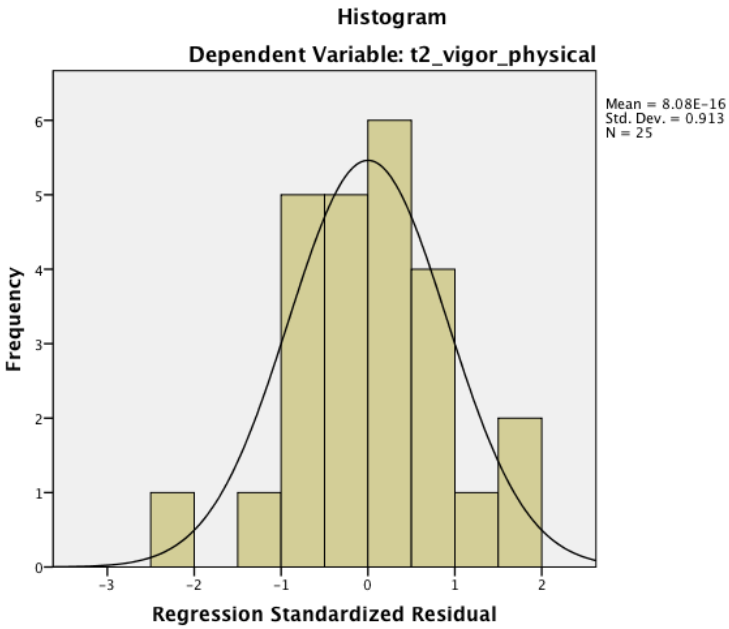
a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_physical

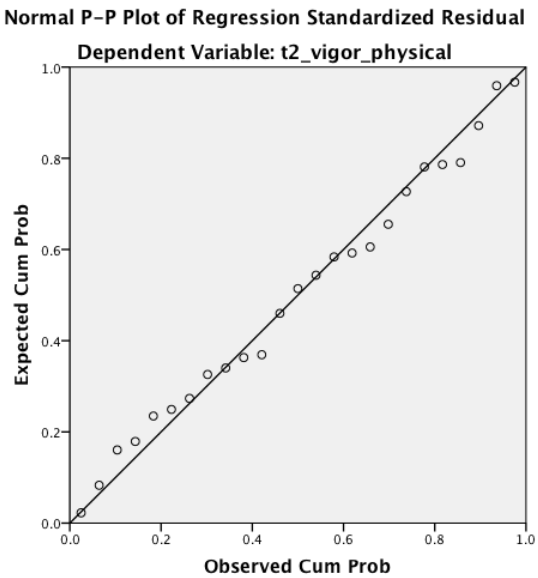
Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	4.1650	5.4042	4.6960	.30479	25
Residual	-2.22692	2.04287	.00000	1.01530	25
Std. Predicted Value	-1.742	2.323	.000	1.000	25
Std. Residual	-2.002	1.837	.000	.913	25

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_physical

Charts


Histogram
Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_physical
Mean = 8.08E-16
Std. Dev. = 0.913
N = 25
Frequency
Regression Standardized Residual


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_physical
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob

Syntax

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REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_vigor_cognitive
  /METHOD=ENTER T1_WB_Vig_6_cog1 t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth t2_id
  /RESIDUALS HISTOGRAM(ZRESID) NORMPROB(ZRESID).
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_vigor_cognitive	5.0714	.98698	28
Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	4.8571	1.17739	28
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.3810	.88292	28
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.6250	.76528	28
T2_aggregated_identity	5.4898	.75586	28

Correlations

		t2_vigor_cognitive	Vigor_Cognitive livelines s	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_vigor_cognitive	1.000	.200	.095	.478
	Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	.200	1.000	.411	.103
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.095	.411	1.000	.256
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.478	.103	.256	1.000
	T2_aggregated_identity	.178	.349	.373	.354
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_vigor_cognitive	.	.153	.315	.005
	Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	.153	.	.015	.301
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.315	.015	.	.094
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.005	.301	.094	.
	T2_aggregated_identity	.182	.035	.025	.032
N	t2_vigor_cognitive	28	28	28	28
	Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28	28	28	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28	28	28	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28	28	28	28

Correlations

		T2_aggregated_identity
Pearson Correlation	t2_vigor_cognitive	.178
	Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	.349
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.373
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.354
	T2_aggregated_identity	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_vigor_cognitive	.182
	Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	.035
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.025
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.032
	T2_aggregated_identity	.
N	t2_vigor_cognitive	28
	Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	28
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	28
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	28
	T2_aggregated_identity	28

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	T2_aggregated_identity, t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, Vigor_cognitive[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_cognitive

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.512[a]	.262	.133	.91887

a. Predictors: (Constant), T2_aggregated_identity, Vigor_Cognitive liveliness, t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth

b. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_cognitive

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.882	4	1.721	2.038	.122[b]
	Residual	19.419	23	.844		
	Total	26.302	27			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_cognitive

b. Predictors: (Constant), T2_aggregated_identity, Vigor_Cognitive liveliness, t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance
1	(Constant)	1.492	1.672		.893	.381	
	Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	.169	.170	.202	.997	.329	.783
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	-.116	.231	-.104	-.501	.621	.752
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.637	.250	.494	2.545	.018	.852

T2_aggregated_identity	-.037	.271	-.028	-.136	.893	.743

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics
		VIF
1	(Constant)	
	Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	1.278
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	1.330
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.173
	T2_aggregated_identity	1.346

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_cognitive

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	Vigor_Cognitive liveliness	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	t2_aggregated_inter_auth
1	1	4.928	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.038	11.338	.02	.81	.00	.06
	3	.015	17.864	.01	.12	.97	.11
	4	.011	21.503	.00	.06	.01	.47
	5	.008	24.920	.97	.00	.02	.36

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		T2_aggregated_identity
1	1	.00
	2	.01
	3	.03
	4	.80
	5	.15

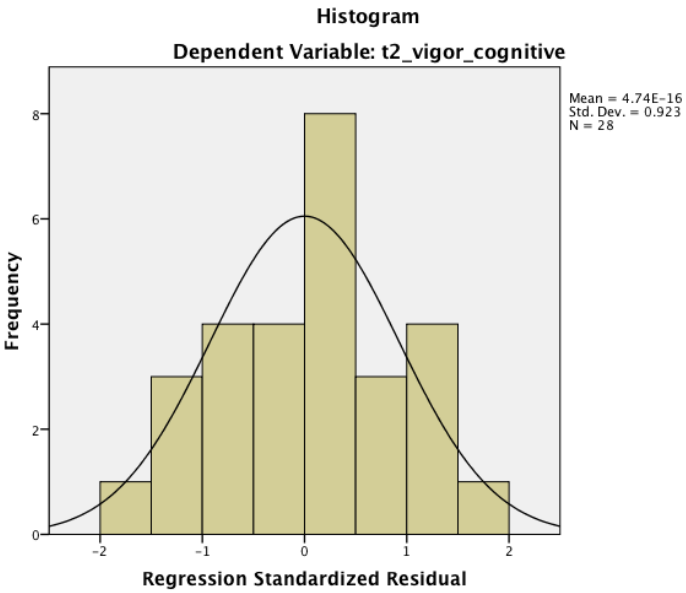
a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_cognitive

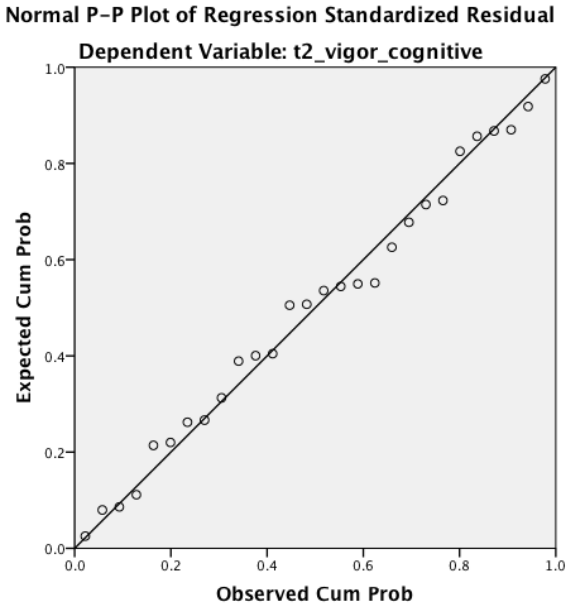
Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3.9097	5.9186	5.0714	.50488	28
Residual	-1.79566	1.81218	.00000	.84808	28
Std. Predicted Value	-2.301	1.678	.000	1.000	28
Std. Residual	-1.954	1.972	.000	.923	28

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_cognitive

Charts


Histogram
Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_cognitive
Mean = 4.74E-16
Std. Dev. = 0.923
N = 28
Frequency
Regression Standardized Residual


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_cognitive
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob

Syntax

```
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA COLLIN TOL
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT t2_vigor_emotional
  /METHOD=ENTER T1_WB_Vig_9_emo1 t2_intra_auth t2_inter_auth t2_id
  /RESIDUALS HISTOGRAM(ZRESID) NORMPROB(ZRESID).
```

SPSS Output

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
t2_vigor_emotional	5.0833	1.13722	27
Vigor_Emotional energy	5.0741	1.35663	27
t2_aggregated_intra_auth	5.4074	.88835	27
t2_aggregated_inter_auth	5.5926	.76002	27
T2_aggregated_identity	5.4709	.76349	27

Correlations

		t2_vigor_emotional	Vigor_Emotional energy	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	t2_aggregated_inter_auth
Pearson Correlation	t2_vigor_emotional	1.000	.370	.371	.580
	Vigor_Emotional energy	.370	1.000	.506	.366
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.371	.506	1.000	.303
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.580	.366	.303	1.000
	T2_aggregated_identity	.520	.375	.403	.335
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_vigor_emotional	.	.029	.028	.001
	Vigor_Emotional energy	.029	.	.004	.030
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.028	.004	.	.062
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.001	.030	.062	.
	T2_aggregated_identity	.003	.027	.019	.044
N	t2_vigor_emotional	27	27	27	27
	Vigor_Emotional energy	27	27	27	27
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	27	27	27	27
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	27	27	27	27
	T2_aggregated_identity	27	27	27	27

Correlations

		T2_aggregated_identity
Pearson Correlation	t2_vigor_emotional	.520
	Vigor_Emotional energy	.375
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.403
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.335
	T2_aggregated_identity	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	t2_vigor_emotional	.003
	Vigor_Emotional energy	.027
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.019
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.044
	T2_aggregated_identity	.
N	t2_vigor_emotional	27
	Vigor_Emotional energy	27
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	27
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	27
	T2_aggregated_identity	27

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	T2_aggregated_identity, t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, Vigor_emotional[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_emotional

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.683[a]	.467	.370	.90273

a. Predictors: (Constant), T2_aggregated_identity, t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, Vigor_Emotional energy

b. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_emotional

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	15.697	4	3.924	4.815	.006[b]
	Residual	17.928	22	.815		
	Total	33.625	26			

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_emotional

b. Predictors: (Constant), T2_aggregated_identity, t2_aggregated_inter_auth, t2_aggregated_intra_auth, Vigor_Emotional energy

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance
1	(Constant)	-1.942	1.664		-1.167	.256	
	Vigor_Emotional energy	.040	.159	.048	.252	.803	.676
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	.111	.241	.087	.463	.648	.686

t2_aggregated_inter_auth	.640	.258	.428	2.479	.021	.814
T2_aggregated_identity	.482	.265	.324	1.821	.082	.767

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics
		VIF
1	(Constant)	
	Vigor_Emotional energy	1.480
	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	1.459
	t2_aggregated_inter_auth	1.229
	T2_aggregated_identity	1.305

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_emotional

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	Vigor_Emotional energy	t2_aggregated_intra_auth	t2_aggregated_inter_auth
1	1	4.926	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.041	11.022	.04	.81	.00	.02
	3	.015	18.225	.01	.09	.79	.27
	4	.011	20.703	.00	.01	.15	.30
	5	.007	25.710	.95	.09	.06	.40

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Variance Proportions
		T2_aggregated_identity
1	1	.00
	2	.02
	3	.00
	4	.80
	5	.18

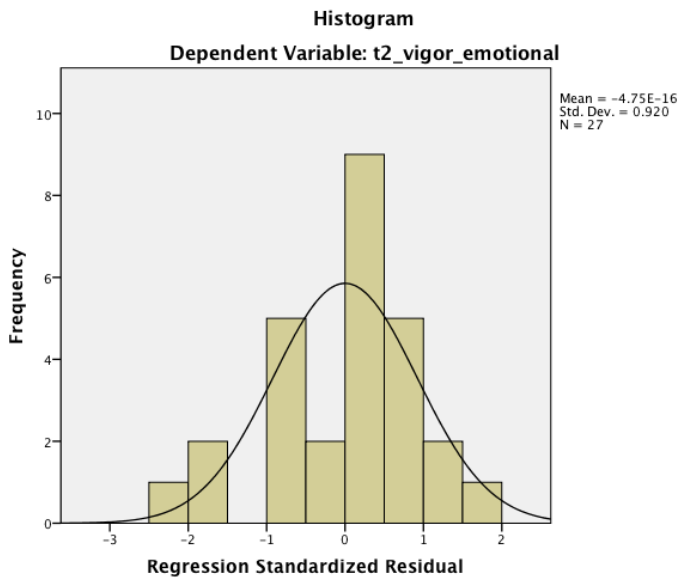
a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_emotional

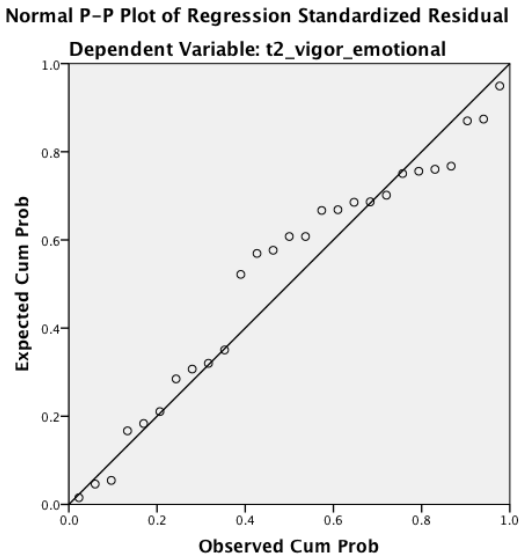
Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3.8142	6.9766	5.0833	.77699	27
Residual	-1.95331	1.47762	.00000	.83039	27
Std. Predicted Value	-1.633	2.437	.000	1.000	27
Std. Residual	-2.164	1.637	.000	.920	27

a. Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_emotional

Charts


Histogram
Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_emotional
Mean = -4.75E-16
Std. Dev. = 0.920
N = 27
Frequency
Regression Standardized Residual


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: t2_vigor_emotional
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob