

What Does Well-Being Mean in Management Research?

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Desired degree conferral date: 18.09.2024

Thesis submission date: 25.06.2024

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ABSTRACT

Previous literature agrees on the importance of well-being in current managerial contexts, with the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory frequently cited to illustrate its impact on job performance. Nonetheless, there is no concordant definition of “well-being” among the authors. Through an extensive literature analysis, this thesis identifies that well-being is most often defined as an affective mental state, encompassing hedonic aspects such as pleasure and eudaimonic aspects such as purpose, regarding one’s physical, mental, and financial health. Contributing to the contemporary understanding of well-being, this analysis evaluates terms used to describe what it feels like to be well. For a deeper understanding of employees’ well-being, the current definition must be expanded to include explicit terms of feelings. Consequently, a more comprehensive definition of well-being emerges: Well-being is a person’s affective state, consisting of one’s hedonic experience of pleasure and avoidance of pain and one’s eudaimonic sense of purpose in life while striving for achievement and success. This state includes subjective satisfaction judgments, health, high engagement, and the absence of stress, feelings of exhaustion, or burnout symptoms.

INTRODUCTION

Relevance of Well-Being in Management

Achieving optimal well-being among an organization's workforce is essential in modern management practices, as it not only enhances individual satisfaction and fulfillment but also serves as a linchpin for organizational success and sustainability in an increasingly competitive environment. In early management research, Schneider (1987) questioned the conventional point of view about the environmental situation of an organization that conditions the behavior of the people within. His perspective marked a pivotal shift in the existing premise. Rather than attributing organizational outcomes solely to external factors, Schneider pointed out that individuals within an organization play an important role. Referring to the attraction-selection-attrition, ASA, framework, he argued that the initial founders of a firm set the foundation for employee behavior. They attract people with similar characteristics, select those who align with their interests and values, and, naturally, those who do not fit depart (Schneider, 1987). The ASA model helps to understand that, over time, the people within organizations fundamentally shape its identity: "The people make the place" (Schneider, 1987).

This perspective underscores the importance of the workforce within an organization, stating that the employees are its most valuable asset. One can find many definitions of well-being, wellness, or mental health similar to the one by Tetrick and Winslow (2015): "[...] functioning at the highest possible level of one's self". It should be every firm's goal to have its workforce functioning in the best way possible, which is only achievable if they feel well. Therefore, managers must pay attention to their employees' well-being and set it as a core objective.

The contemporary organizational environment places heightened significance on employee well-being, especially in the light of our digital advancement where many employees never completely log off from their work when getting home (Butts, Becker, &

Boswell, 2016). This phenomenon, referred to as “the new night shift” by Stone (2014), underlines the pervasive nature of work-related engagement beyond office hours. It is widely acknowledged that the workplace is among the most prominent contributors to individuals’ experienced stress levels (Pfeffer & Carney, 2018). Sonnentag (2015) conducted research and found that this psychological detachment from the workplace and work plays a pivotal role in mitigating negative well-being aspects such as exhaustion. This is not only a local issue but appears to be a global concern. Factors such as strain, exhaustion, and stress in the workplace have been shown to decrease job performance by numerous studies (Baer, Dhensa-Kahlon, Colquitt, Rodell, Outlaw, & Long, 2015). More specific evidence is provided by Sonnentag (2015). She writes about a two-year investigation, which detected that well-being is a predictor for job performance. Consequently, the exploration of well-being has unfolded as a crucial focal point within organizational behavior research on an international scale (Zheng, Zhu, Zhao, & Zhang, 2015).

Managerial Background: What Do We Know? What Don’t We Know?

The concept of well-being encapsulates both emotional and physical wellness and reflects the individual’s sense of general satisfaction and contentment. Research so far has shown that well-being is subjective and that there cannot be one clear definition of the term itself. Each individual has their own perception of well-being and its importance. Nonetheless, extensive research indicates that well-being enhances employees’ performance (Oerlemans & Bakker, 2011). As the engagement is contagious in the organizational environment (Oerlemans & Bakker, 2011), it is worthwhile to invest in employee well-being as it holds significant potential for optimizing productivity.

Despite the abundance of literature on well-being, many articles tend to overlook the necessity of defining the term explicitly. Predominantly, one can find enumerations of adjectives and attributes which are associated with well-being without reaching a consensus on its essential constituents. There is no clear agreement on which terms belong and which do

not. Regarding these attributes, there is also not a clear distinction between what is an input or an initiator, what is a component, and what is an output of well-being.

It is known that well-being can be split into physical, psychological, and economic well-being. Especially in earlier management history, the main focal point was on physical well-being and health (Jawad & Scott-Jackson, 2016). Health was considered the fundamental aspect of job performance. However, there has been a notable shift towards recognizing the importance of psychological well-being, not only within managerial contexts but also across society as a whole. Surprisingly, financial and economic well-being has received less attention in management journals, despite its critical role in ensuring individual stability and survival.

Goal of the Thesis

This paper concentrates on bringing order to the large number of studies and investigations that exist on the topic of well-being in management research. It aims to determine which areas of well-being are already often covered, spot the congruencies and differences among the literature, come up with a generalized definition of the term “well-being” itself, and finally to determine which areas are also important and may be forgotten when talking about well-being. Even though a literature review is only theoretical work, it makes its contribution to practice by demonstrating the relevance of well-being in the work environment, especially for managers who wish to increase an organization’s performance and by providing clarity to a broad topic. Over 50 articles directly targeting the topic of well-being are analyzed, focused on more recent papers starting from 2012 up to 2023, to conclude how it is defined nowadays. Unanswered questions will be pointed out to create a more comprehensive definition of well-being.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The goal is to investigate the meaning of Well-Being in contemporary management. As already mentioned previously, a generalized definition arises through the process. Some sub-questions may need to be acknowledged first to help answer the main research question of this study. The research questions should act as a guideline for the thesis. It is fundamental to always keep them in mind during the process of answering them.

Q1: How Is “Well-Being” Defined in Current Management Research?

This is the major question of this thesis. This thesis focuses on exploring the definition of well-being as portrayed in contemporary management research. It aims to investigate the various conceptualizations and interpretations of well-being within the context of management literature. Through a thorough analysis of existing articles, this thesis seeks to clarify the diverse perspectives and understandings of well-being as articulated by scholars in the field of management.

Q2: What Are the Main Aspects of Well-Being and Which Aspects Are Still Missing?

To delve deeper into the research on well-being in management research, this sub-question aims to analyze the fundamental components of well-being as used in existing literature. Through a comprehensive literature review of scholarly works, the study seeks to identify the key dimensions that are commonly used to describe well-being. Additionally, it attempts to point out any potential gaps in the current understanding of well-being. This helps to get a more nuanced portrait of the multifaceted construct of well-being.

Q3: How Can We Change the Definition of Well-Being to Make It More Comprehensive?

In this last step, this thesis aims to redefine well-being based on the collected data. Especially important are the areas where the current definition may be limited or incomplete. By synthesizing insights from diverse perspectives, the thesis aims to propose modifications or enhancements to the existing definition of well-being.

THEORY

Literature Corpus

For the purpose of this thesis, over 50 articles were reviewed. In order to navigate the large number of sources on the topic of well-being and to stick to the managerial environment, most of the articles were taken from management journals. Some books/book chapters have been added to the literature corpus throughout the analysis to provide additional information about the current definition of well-being. Books/book chapters were chosen by taking the ones which were cited in the used management journal articles to keep the sources within reasonable limits. Most of the sources are from a more recent time frame.

Definition of Terms and Concepts

There are some commonly used terms and concepts surrounding well-being in the field of management research. This chapter deals with the most important of these.

Important terms. As there are many technical terms used in research articles, Table 1 serves to provide an overview of the most important definitions. It includes terms that are often used in the research field of well-being describing symptoms, conditions, and other technical terms.

TABLE 1

Definitions of Important Terms in Well-Being Research

Term	Definition	Source
Absorption	“[...] being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly.”	(Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014)
Affective commitment	“[...] an employee’s “emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” [...].” It “is an indicator for	(Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016)

	well-being because it reflects employee's "positive affection toward the organization" [...] "and shares conceptual similarity with job satisfaction" [...]."	
Burnout	"[...] a "state of mental and physical exhaustion caused by one's professional life", [...] "the extinction of motivation or incentive, especially where one's devotion to a cause or relationship fails to produce the desired results." Characterized by "low levels of energy and poor identification with one's work"."	(Bakker et al., 2014)
Daily need fulfillment	"[...] an integral dimension of well-being that assesses actors' satisfaction of their needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence."	(Foulk, Lanaj, Tu, Erez, & Archambeau, 2018)
Dedication	"[...] being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge."	(Bakker et al., 2014)
Emotion work	"[...] the management of feelings and emotional displays in response to emotion work requirements, [...]."	(Zapf, Kern, Tschan, Holman, & Semmer, 2021)
Emotional exhaustion	"[...] the central component of burnout – is a chronic feeling of emotional and physical depletion." Feeling "drained and "used up" from their work."	(Baer et al., 2015)

Flourishing	Being “filled with emotional vitality” and “functioning positively in the private and social realms” of one’s life.	(Maitlis, 2020)
Job demands	“[...] physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs.”	(Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)
Job resources	“[...] physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands and the associated [...] costs, or stimulate personal growth, learning, and development.”	(Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)
Job satisfaction	“[...] an evaluative state resulting from “appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” [...] and is the most commonly examined indicator of well-being at work [...].”	(Koopman et al., 2016)
Life satisfaction	“[...] a person’s evaluation of their own life and its prospects, which is also subject to adaption.”	(Jawad & Scott-Jackson, 2016)
Mental disorder	“[...] “a major disturbance in an individual’s thinking, feelings, or behavior” that causes	(Kensbock, Alkærsg, & Lomberg, 2022)

	problems “in social, work, or family activities” [...].”	
Mental health	“[...] individuals’ psychological distress and well-being.”	(Wanberg, Zhu, Kanfer, & Zhang, 2012)
Mindfulness	“[...] a particular state of consciousness – one in which an individual focuses attention on present-moment events.”	(Sutcliffe, Vogus, & Dane, 2016)
Neurotic	“Neurotic individuals are emotionally unstable and prone to psychological distress [...].”	(Maslach & Leiter, 2008)
Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)	“[...] “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” [...].”	(Koopman et al., 2016)
Perceived organizational support (POS)	“[...] employees’ perception that the organization values their contributions and care about their well-being.”	(Eisenberger, Rhoades Shanock, & Wen, 2019)
Self-determination theory (SDT)	Theory that “suggests that fulfillment of the innate and fundamental needs for relatedness, competence, and autonomy enhance levels of vitality [...] and contributes to greater levels of well-being.”	(Trougakos, Hideg, Cheng, & Beal, 2014)

Self-efficacy	“[...] an individual’s sense that he or she has the ability to perform well in a given job function [...].”	(Tost, Hardin, Roberson, & Gino, 2022)
Strain	“The negative consequences of [...] stressors [...], which include affective, physical, or behavioral reactions to stress [...].”	(Eisenberger et al., 2019)
Thriving	“[...] “the psychological state in which individuals experience both a sense of vitality and a sense of learning” [...].”	(Maitlis, 2020)
Trusting	“[...] being willing to accept vulnerability to the actions of another party based on positive expectations about their attributes [...].”	(Baer et al., 2015)
Vigor	“[...] high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties.”	(Bakker et al., 2014)
Wellness	“[...] functioning at the highest possible level of one’s self.”	(Tetrick & Winslow, 2015)
Work detachment	“[...] an “individuals’ sense of being away from the work situation”.”	(Bono, Glomb, Shen, Kim, & Koch, 2013)
Work engagement	“[...] “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” [...].”	(Bakker et al., 2014)

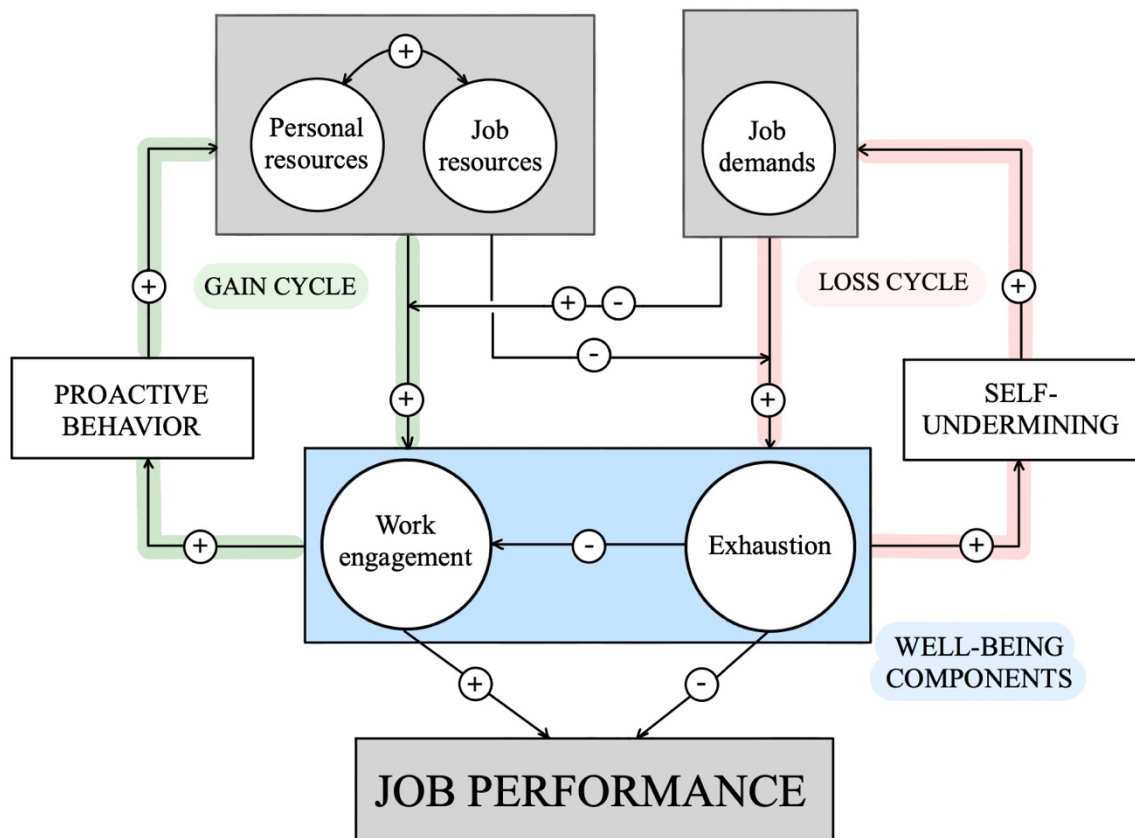
Workaholism	“[...] an inner drive to work hard [...]” “[...] working excessively and working compulsively [...]. [...] working excessively captures the individual’s belief that he or she needs to work hard, and this personal norm exceeds expectations in the employee’s social context [...]. Working compulsively refers to the employee’s preoccupation with work, whereby he or she finds it difficult to detach from work and feel guilty when not working.”	(Ten Brummelhuis, Rothbard, & Uhrich, 2017)
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The job demands-resources theory. The job demands-resources theory (JD-R) by Bakker and Demerouti (2007) is structured as a “dual pathway” model (Bakker et al., 2014) which demonstrates the linkage between job demands, job resources, and organizational outcomes particularly job performance, mediated by employee well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands are aspects of a job that are associated with costs, either psychological or physiological, and can therefore hinder you from achieving goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources on the other hand are aspects of a job that are helpful in the process of achieving goals (Sonnentag, 2015). According to the JD-R model, every job characteristic can be classified as either a job demand or a job resource, serving as key indicators of employee well-being within the model. This makes the JD-R model flexible and applicable to every job environment (Bakker et al., 2014). Due to this advantage, the JD-R theory has become one of the most popular theories in management research on behalf of well-being. Burnout/exhaustion and work engagement emerge as the two major outcomes of job demands and resources, representing the well-being components in the model. Furthermore, empirical evidence spanning over two decades has supported and extended the

original model, leading to the incorporation of the gain and loss cycle (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2023), thus enriching its explanatory power. Figure 1 illustrates the linkages between the components of the theory and their reciprocal influence on each other.

FIGURE 1

The JD-R Model



Note. Reproduced from Bakker et al. (2023).

Maslach and Leiter (2008) introduced the “Burnout-Engagement Continuum”, a conceptual framework which outlines individuals’ psychological attitude toward their work, spanning from the negative experience of burnout to the favorable experience of engagement. They posit three dimension which allow them to categorize people’s affective state. The first dimension is exhaustion versus energy, the second cynicism versus involvement, and the third inefficacy versus efficacy. Their theory contributes to our comprehension of the two major well-being outputs used in the JD-R model, namely burnout/exhaustion and work engagement, and explains their interrelation.

Burnout as one of the main consequences of job demands describes a state of psychological and physical fatigue caused by one's job. It is characterized by exhaustion and cognitive weariness. Challenges encountered in researching burnout include the absence of a standardized measuring method, complicating the differentiation between the severity of burnout symptoms. Additionally, burnout and depression exhibit numerous similarities and are highly correlated. Again, a distinction is rather difficult. (Bakker et al., 2023)

Work engagement on the other hand is a positive work-related mindset that leads to a high level of physical and emotional participation in one's work. Work engagement has several characteristics: vigor, perseverance and high energy – even in challenging situations – dedication, strong and enthusiastic participation, and a fully focused absorption of the work. Unlike job satisfaction, which is a major aspect of hedonic well-being at work, work engagement represents the eudaimonic aspect of work-related well-being. It is defined by high levels of activation and therefore characterized by excitement and energy. (Bakker et al., 2023)

In more recent management research, the thought of individual factors, particularly personality traits, shaping one's well-being has gained attention. Earlier studies mostly relied on the theory that only environmental aspects are the reason behind employees' organizational behavior. However, the emergence of the "Big Five personality traits" (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) has prompted a shift in perspective. In an upgraded version of the JD-R model, personality has found its place. It serves as an additional moderator, influencing the impact of job demands and resources on daily well-being and job performance. (Bakker et al., 2023)

The conservation of resources theory. Another theory that is closely associated with the JD-R theory is the conservation of resources theory (COR) by Steven E. Hobfoll (1998). As the name implies, this theory suggests that people are willing to conserve and protect their

current resources and seek to acquire new ones. A longstanding issue is that the most important component of this theory, resources, cannot be defined clearly.

Initially, Hobfoll (1998) himself defined resources as “objects, states, conditions, and other things that people value”. There are two major problems with this definition. Firstly, it is overly broad, including almost anything. Secondly, the concept of “value” is inherently subjective, varying depending on individual experiences and preferences. To address these concerns, Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, and Westman (2014) came up with a more precise definition of resources. According to them, resources are “anything perceived by the individual to help attain his or her goals”. This more recent definition is still not completely clear by any means. But the goal-based perspective brings some objectivity to the notion of what people “value”.

Another widely recognized definition of job resources in management literature comes from Bakker and Demerouti (2007). They defined job resources as “physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands and the associated costs, or stimulate personal growth, learning, and development.” Certainly, this definition provides a clearer delineation. However, the precise definition of resources remains somewhat elusive.

After clarifying what is meant by resources, it is necessary to examine the relationship between COR theory and well-being. There exist several strategies on how to measure resources, including observing outcomes following resource gain or loss. Emotional exhaustion and engagement are among the major outcomes studied in this context. Emotional exhaustion and engagement are quite similar to the two well-being components burnout and work engagement of the JD-R model. However, a challenge with this approach is that the allocability of resources and well-being outcomes can be difficult.

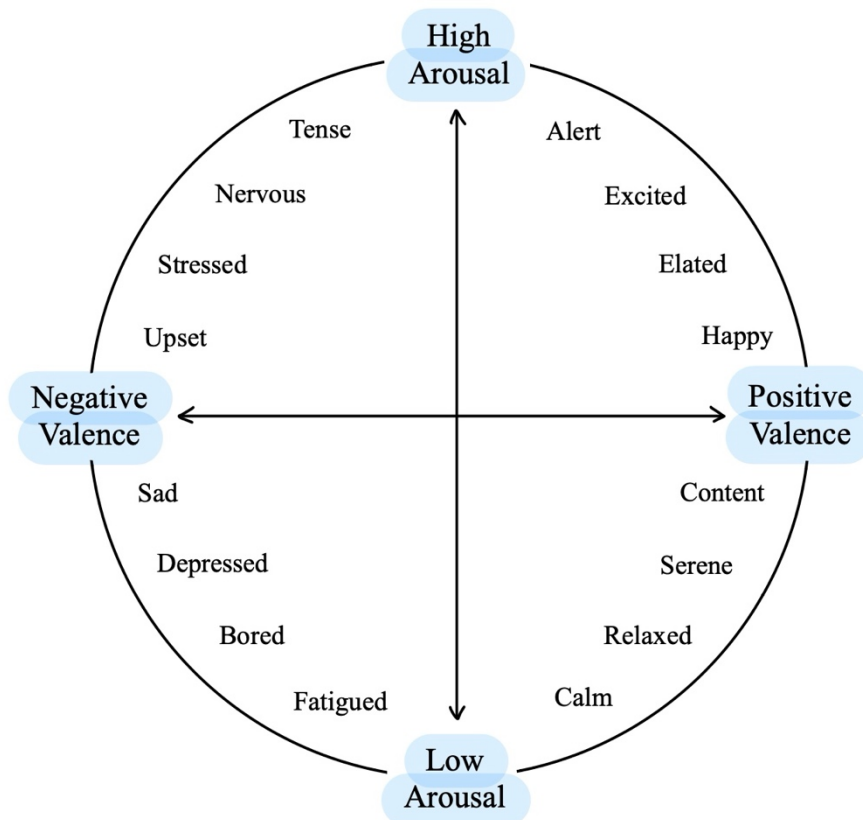
The positive-negative asymmetry effect. A third concept frequently discussed in organizational behavior is the positive-negative asymmetry effect, also called negativity bias.

Essentially, it states that humans tend to disproportionately focus on the negative, rather than the positive. This seems to be true in various aspects of our lives, including our workplace. Butts et al. (2015) provide several illustrations from everyday work experiences. For instance, email communication. When an employee receives an email from their supervisor, they tend to overemphasize the negative aspects of the email, and even though the email was generally more positive, the negative is what sticks in their mind longer. This highlights the importance of managers being mindful when giving feedback to their employees, as there is a risk that the employee's well-being will be negatively influenced and consequently lead to a decrease in performance. Another manifestation of the positive-negative asymmetry is that a pay cut is given a higher weighting than an equivalent pay rise. (Butts et al., 2015)

If we apply this concept to JD-R theory, we see that it is more detrimental for individuals to lose their resources than it is beneficial for them to acquire the exact same resources. Being aware of this phenomenon can be helpful in terms of motivation as humans tend to be willing to invest resources to avoid losing others (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Notably, the negativity bias is especially pronounced among neurotic individuals. At the end of the day, they will recall all the negative events which leave little space for positive information. Therefore, they are at higher risk for mental illnesses such as burnout or depression. (Bakker et al., 2023)

The affective circumplex model. As will be declared at a later point, many authors refer to well-being as an affective state. The affective circumplex model by James A. Russell (1980) is a circular model which shows the relation between a "level-of arousal" and a "pleasure-displeasure" dimension through a self-proclaimed evaluation of one's affective state (Russell, 1980). Figure 2 illustrates how the model categorizes emotions and moods into sectors of high-positive, low-positive, high-negative, and low-negative (Robbins & Judge, 2023).

FIGURE 2
The Affective Circumplex Model



Note. Reproduced from Robbins and Judge (2023).

Due to the circular form, emotions can be arranged with a fluid transition between sectors. Feelings with a high arousal can be seen as more intense, being alert requires a much more vigilant state of mind than being calm does. The advantage of this model is that every emotion can be comprehended as a coordination of the two dimensions which highlights that our emotions are not isolated but rather correlated (Oerlemans & Bakker, 2011).

Literature Review

Facets of well-being. Most prominently, well-being is split up into physical, psychological, and financial viewpoints, each shedding light on different aspects of individuals' experiences. They each play a crucial role in people's overall satisfaction and functioning within an organizational context.

According to Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016), historical organizational research solely focused on physical well-being through the lens of health. More recent studies, such as those by Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016), have emphasized the importance of the dynamic between physical health and work conditions. Adverse work environments can lead to stress and result in not only physical but also mental health issues (Jawad & Scott-Jackson, 2016).

Over the last ten years, the awareness of mental health issues has grown. Psychological well-being has emerged as a pivotal aspect of organizational research. Bono et al. (2013) support this statement and they add the third perspective, the financial one, to the construct of well-being. By stating that “work stress physically and psychologically damages workers and economically burdens organizations and societies” they are looking at well-being from all three perspectives. Even though they write about the firm’s financial well-being and not the individuals’, it is related to employees’ well-being. Financial stability and the ability to fulfill basic needs for living are fundamental prerequisites for overall well-being (Greenhaus & Kossak, 2014). Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016) support the view that economic well-being is a requirement for general well-being by arguing that the absence of a sufficient salary will negatively influence employees’ well-being. As research showed, insufficient income is one of the most reported sources of stress (Tetrick & Winslow, 2015).

It is evident that the three facets of well-being – physical, psychological, and financial – are linked. When one facet leads to stress, this can in-turn lead to a decrease in the other two components of well-being (Pfeffer & Carney, 2018). This interdependence highlights the necessity of adopting a holistic approach, addressing all facets comprehensively to foster a supportive and constructive work environment.

Well-being as the absence of ill-being. Many researchers in the field of organizational behavior and management do not directly provide a definition of the term well-being. They conceptualize well-being as the absence of ill-being. But this raises the question: what defines ill-being? Ill-being can be defined in various terms describing a

negative affective state. This could be stress, exhaustion, burnout, or general negative emotions. Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016) suggest that well-being is experienced when individuals are free from “mild or severe mental disorder or stress”. Similarly, Foulk et al. (2018) describe well-being as “a state in which employees are free from tension and anxiety”.

Defining well-being as the absence of ill-being has been widely utilized in the past. However, its prevalence has diminished over the last two decades, reflecting the increased recognition of well-being as a significant component in organizational contexts.

Definition of well-being. Another approach to categorize well-being is by distinguishing between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. While hedonic well-being focuses on happiness and pleasure, the eudaimonic perspective describes well-being in terms of meaningfulness and purpose in life (Sonnentag, 2015). Opportunities for personal growth and accomplishment, for example, fit into the eudaimonic category of well-being.

Management scholars often refer to hedonic well-being as subjective well-being. Rogers, Corley, and Ashforth (2017) describe subjective well-being in terms of being “satisfied with his or her job”, experiencing “frequent positive emotions, and infrequent negative emotions”. Oerlemans and Bakker (2011) define subjective well-being similarly. As this type of well-being is subjective, it is up to the individual themselves to determine what is needed to feel well. Therefore, an evaluation must take place (Oerlemans & Bakker, 2011). In the managerial context, it is all about the question of how satisfied the employees are with their job and work environment. According to Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016), an important note in defining well-being is that it is a rather long-term phase of feeling satisfied rather than momentary happiness or just “the absence of ill-being”.

Opposing subjective well-being, objective well-being is measured in quantitative factors such as medical physical health measures or salary (Jawad & Scott-Jackson, 2016). Objective well-being is more comparable between individuals but it is not even nearly as expressive as subjective well-being.

Looking at the eudaimonic point of view, Zheng et al. (2015) state that fully functioning in psychological terms is a basic requirement to utilize one's full potential. According to them, "self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, positive relations with others, environment mastery, and autonomy" (Zheng et al., 2015) are the six key dimensions of eudaimonic well-being.

Generally, it can be said that well-being is a "multidimensional construct" (Foulek et al., 2018) describing people's cognitive and affective state (Methot, Rosado-Solomon, Downes, & Gabriel, 2021). Therefore, it is not enough to only target one perspective when defining well-being. A combination of hedonic and eudaimonic viewpoints must be included.

Is well-being due to circumstances or is it a personal offset? Another discussion which is often held in management research is about the individual's contributions to their well-being. For example, Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016) debate whether well-being can be seen as a given personality trait or if it is just the result of external impacts. Talking about "subjective well-being", "the individual's perception of their own well-being" [...] as "a tripartite structure comprising life satisfaction, frequent experiences of positive affect (happiness) and infrequent experiences of negative affect" [...], Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016) mention studies to both sides of the argument. They say that well-being can be influenced by changes in one's environment and on the other hand, that well-being is crucially dependent on "individual dispositions" (Jawad & Scott-Jackson, 2016).

Theories such as JD-R support the assumption that external circumstances and the environmental situation at the workplace lead to employees' well-being. As declared above, job demands and resources are at the root of well-being outcomes like burnout and engagement. They both have an influence on people's stress levels and motivation which then leads to burnout or engagement, personal growth, and accomplishment at work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Other organizational variables which influence stress as a well-being indicator are workload, control, reward, and fairness (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Sonnentag

(2015) supports this theoretical prediction with her research on the dynamics of well-being. She wrote about several studies which were able to show that being exposed to job demands at work significantly increased strain throughout the day. She also looked at job resources and their relation to positive well-being. Indeed, she was able to collect studies which proved that especially the job resource “autonomy” is responsible for an increase in employees’ well-being. As the JD-R model expects, the results were indicated in observed increased work engagement. Regarding the cross-over effects of JD-R, Sonnentag (2015) was only able to gather some studies showing the buffering effect of job resources on negative well-being symptoms.

Bakker et al. (2023), the inventors of the JD-R model, are still doing research on different extensions of their model. One of their extensions is the inclusion of personality as a stable moderating variable. There exists scientific evidence that not only external, situational aspects but also internal, personal aspects contribute to employees’ well-being. Looking at other studies conducted about personality influencing well-being in management, the Big Five personality factors were most often referred to. Ong and Johnson (2023) are one example of researchers who added the perspective of the individual’s character to the JD-R model. Referring to the “Big Five” character traits, it was found out that especially extroversion and neuroticism are linked to characteristics of affectivity and are therefore somewhat responsible for how humans react to the job stressors they are exposed to. These character traits can also help in gaining job resources. Halbesleben et al. (2014) point out why it is important to include personality into the research on well-being. Linked to the JD-R theory, they say that the value of resources is dependent on individual perception. Furthermore, how they use them and acquire new ones is dependent on their characteristics.

The article by Maslach and Leiter (2008) on “early predictors of job burnout and engagement” talks about the same issue from a more psychological perspective. They have reviewed several studies on the topic of personality traits and concluded that the only

consistent finding up to this point was that the component “neuroticism” from the Big Five model is related to burnout.

Maslach and Leiter (2008), as well as the other authors mentioned above, agree on the statement that organizational/environmental aspects can be truly demonstrated compared to individual aspects. However, recent literature proves that personality is somewhat responsible for employees’ well-being as well.

METHOD

After having heard what the research questions are, the literature analysis served the purpose of filtering out the most important statements regarding the definition of well-being. The scientific method on which this analysis is based will now be discussed.

The Content-Structuring Qualitative Content Analysis

The approach used in a content-structuring content analysis is a systematic and scientific one. It provides a rough guideline on how to proceed whilst collecting and reviewing all relevant literature. This procedure is based on the previously stated research questions which should always be kept in mind.

As a first step, it is important to collect as much literature as needed to gain a comprehensive overview of the whole topic, but one must be aware to have boundaries and only include literature relevant to the research questions. Not every piece of literature that has been read needs to appear in the references. If, for example, an article is relevant to the overall topic but not specifically for the research question, do not be afraid of neglecting this article in the final work. As mentioned in the chapter “literature corpus”, over 50 managerial articles discussing well-being were selected and analyzed.

The heart of content-structuring content analyses lies in categorization. Kuckartz and Rädiker (2022) distinguish between two approaches of categorization: deductive and inductive. Deductive categories are being made before reading and analyzing the literature. These categories refer to predefined research questions and serve as a main structure.

Inductive categorization on the other hand happens simultaneously with the process of reading when additional aspects are being identified and new categories emerge. Therefore, when applying a deductive-inductive method, some categories exist since the beginning and others are being added throughout the process. The categorization of well-being was done in this mixed approach.

When reading articles, papers, book chapters, and other sources, important passages should be highlighted and notes can be taken. This is helpful for the next step of the analysis. The collected data is being evaluated and tagged with the appropriate code, referring to a specific category. If an important text passage doesn't fit into one of the existing categories (deductive), a new one is created (inductive).

The ultimate aim of this procedure is to create an analytic overview and collection of the most essential text passages which will be a big help later in the process of writing a thesis. By doing so, all the significant passages of the read sources are classified into categories which each refer to one of the research questions. The categories facilitate the process due to its structure. The structure of the categories acts as a basis for the structure of the thesis. It shows which aspects are being dealt with in the literature and should therefore be included in the thesis chapters, which leads us to the final phase of a content-structuring content analysis.

In this last step, it is all about bringing the data together in a continuous text. In this phase, notes taken come in handy. With their help and the categories, an outline of the paper can be made. The categories should all fit into a chapter of the thesis; however, it is possible that a category is used in several chapters. As in every other part of the process, the research questions of the paper should be at the basis of the structure. (Kuckartz & Rädiker, 2022)

Justification of the Used Method

As this thesis is a literature review of management-related articles, most data used is of qualitative and not quantitative nature. Therefore, it is essential to use a method that is

useful for such qualitative data. This means that no numerical data is analyzed but rather texts with sensory content and different opinions and points of view from the authors about a specific topic – in this case well-being. The focus is on merging and drawing conclusions from a large amount of data which serves as a reduction of complexity. To be representative all viewpoints about the topic must be included and limitations must be addressed. The qualitative part of this thesis is mainly targeting research question 1.

Categorization System

As previously emphasized, the categories lay the foundation for the research work. “Content analysis stands or falls by its categories [...] since the categories contain the substance of the investigation, a content analysis can be no better than its system of categories.” (Berelson, 1984). The categories of a deductive-inductive research method stem from the guiding research questions.

The categories used in this study are of either thematic, evaluative scaling, analytical, or theoretical nature. Predominantly, thematic categories prevail, delineating specific patterns of thought or perspectives. Evaluative scaling categories undertake a classification, with hedonic and eudaimonic being the sole representatives in this study, capturing the two major facets of well-being. As a result of an intensive literature review, analytical categories emerge, encapsulating particular research findings. Finally, theoretical categories mostly bear on existing theories or models, such as the Job Demands-Resources Model proposed by Bakker and Demerouti (2007). It is noteworthy that, according to Kuckartz and Rädiker (2022), there are three more categories which are not incorporated in this work for reasons of relevance.

Table 2 demonstrates an overview of the utilized categories, their corresponding research question, a description of the content of this category, and an exemplary text passage. The whole categorization can be found in Appendix 1.

TABLE 2
Categorization System

Code	Title	Referring research question	Description	Example
A1	The Importance of well-being in organizational contexts	Q1	In this category fall all text passages indicating the relevance of well-being in organizational contexts. They will be used specifically in the introduction.	Employees' well-being is critical to the survival and development of organizations around the world (Spreitzer & Porath, 2012), and it has emerged as an important research topic in organizational behavior and related areas.
A2	Effects of employees' well-being on the financial performance of organizations	Q1	Concluding from category A1, A2 specifically focuses on the financial outcomes due to employees' well-being.	Indeed, several studies have shown a negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and job performance.
B1	Direct definition of well-being	Q1	Text passages directly defining well-being are indicated with code B1.	So, under this definition, well-being is an aggregate of purpose, autonomy, control, satisfaction with life

				and happiness, whereas in fact, autonomy, control and purpose are input factors rather than components.
B2	Hedonic well-being	Q1	In some literature, well-being is split up into hedonic and eudaimonic aspects. B2 contains quotations of hedonic definitions and aspects.	The first perspective adopts a hedonic view and focuses on well-being as pleasure or happiness.
B3	Eudaimonic well-being	Q1	In some literature, well-being is split up into hedonic and eudaimonic aspects. B3 contains quotations of eudaimonic definitions and aspects.	The second perspective adopts an eudaimonic view that regards well-being as (a) personal growth and self-realization, (b) authenticity and personal expressiveness, and (c) the pursuit of meaning in life.
B4	Satisfaction as a big well-being indicator	Q2	Excerpts from the literature that view satisfaction as a rather big part of well-being fall into this category.	The focus on job satisfaction and job burnout as the well-being outcomes is work-centric [...].

C	Well-being as the absence of ill-being	Q1	Sometimes, articles which do not directly define well-being describe it simply as the absence of ill-being.	A major theme in the earlier literature and practice relating to well-being, was that well-being was essentially the absence of mild or severe mental disorder or stress.
D	Well-being as a dynamic construct / changing over time	Q1	One point of view on well-being is that it can change over time. Papers with this point of view belong into category D.	Well-being can change over time and also fluctuate within weeks, days, or even hours.
E	Well-being mostly due to the circumstances / as a reaction to the environment	Q1	Closely related to D, E includes text passages stating that well-being is due to external circumstances.	They found a significant lagged relationship between stressors [e.g., job demands, workload, responsibilities] assessed at time 1 and strain assessed at time 2, controlling for time-1 strain, which indicates that strain increases after exposure to job stressors

F	Well-being as a given character trait / mental offset	Q1	Opposing E, F includes text passages that show that well-being is related to one's personal characteristics.	Echoing findings from the culture-fit literature, we found that trait positive affectivity moderated the effect of employees' ratings of a culture of love on employees' outcomes.
G	Definition of a term referring to well-being	Q1	In this category are quotations of definitions of terms which are not directly well-being but referring to well-being or used to describe well-being by the authors.	The other component of well-being investigated in this study is " relaxation ", which refers to a state in which employees are free from tension and anxiety. [...] it [relaxation] energizes employees and protects them from stressful experiences.
H	Definition of a term referring to unwell-being	Q1	Category H includes text passages which give hints to code C and define terms used to describe ill- or unwell-being.	A mental disorder is "a major disturbance in an individual's thinking, feelings, or behavior" that causes problems "in social, work, of family activities" [...].
I	Psychological well-being	Q2	Category I includes paragraphs targeting psychological well-being aspect.	Research has established that work stress physically and psychologically damages workers and economically burdens organizations and societies.

J	Physical well-being	Q2	Category J includes paragraphs describing well-being in terms of physical health.	[...] many studies of well-being in organizational contexts define the construct purely in terms of health and physical well-being, [...].
K	Economic well-being	Q2	Category K includes paragraphs targeting economic well-being aspects.	Low salaries and lack of opportunity for growth were the most commonly reported source of work stress, and these sources of stress have been relatively stable over at least the past four years [...].
L	Trade-off between the different sorts of well-being	Q2	Category L refers to categories I, J, and K and indicates text passages where those aspects of well-being show interdependencies.	Moreover, constantly thinking of work primarily in terms of its monetary aspects separated people from the non-economic meaning of that work; that is, the intrinsic interest in and sense of accomplishment from doing something for itself. Consequentially, work might become more stressful because its meaning and purpose would be lost in its close association with an external reinforcer – money.

M	Implications referring to mindfulness	Q3	This category includes statements in relation to mindfulness and its potential influence on well-being.	Scholars assert that mindfulness may serve to reduce employee stress because mindfulness facilitates adaptive responding to stressful events by allowing individuals to attend to the event in an accepting, nonjudgmental manner [...].
N	Other implications	Q3	Text passages that show potential outcomes for well-being and organizations fit into this category. Like category A1 it shows the importance of well-being and is mainly used for the introduction.	For example, Trougakos et al. (2008) found that low-effort activities (e.g., relaxing) during work breaks resulted in higher levels of positive emotions and lower levels of negative emotions during these breaks, providing preliminary evidence that within-day work breaks have important implications for recovery.
O	The Job Demands-Resources Model	Q1	The JD-R model is often used in management research in relation to strain and motivation, two major well-being aspects. Code O marks	This dual process model [JD-R] reflects two mechanisms by which job demands and resources can lead to strain or motivation that subsequently affects organizational and individual outcomes.

			literature excerpts describing the JD-R model.	
P	Positive-negative asymmetry effect	Q1	Text passages which highlight the differences between negative and positive affects fit into this category.	In her model of emotions in e-mail, Byron (2008) proposed a negativity bias, whereby individuals overemphasize negative (rather than positive) information conveyed in e-mail.
Q	The circumplex Model of Affect	Q1	Marked with the code Q are segments that speak about the circumplex model of affect. This model is closely related to the differentiation between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being.	Russell's (1980, 2003) circumplex model proposes that affective states arise from two fundamental neurophysiological systems, one related to a pleasure–displeasure continuum and the other to arousal, activation, or alertness.

Note. Sample papers are Zheng et al. (2015); Baer et al. (2015); and Tetrick et al. (2015).

Based on some examples given in Table 2, it becomes clear that there are text passages which do not only target one single category but more. The example in code “I” targets all three important aspects of well-being: physical, psychological, and economical. In the categorization it is therefore marked with all three codes, “I”, “J”, and “K”.

Quantitative Evaluation

In a second step of this research, terms mentioned to describe well-being in the analyzed journals were kept track of in a frequency table. This was helpful to evaluate the term well-being itself regarding attributes which are part of feeling well for individuals in the workplace. To achieve greater significance, all the terms mentioned were categorized as either hedonic or eudaimonic and as an either physical, emotional, or financial aspect. This step was specifically helpful to answer research question 2. In Appendix 2 you will find the list showing both, terms used for well-being and terms used for unwell-being. Bhav and Lefter (2018), Bruning and Campion (2018), Erhardt and Ragins (2019), and other references which are not directly referred to in this article have been included in the quantitative evaluation of terms used to describe wellbeing.

The combination of the quantitative and qualitative analysis will finally answer the third research question.

RESULTS

Stemming from the literature analysis, the following results arise. In this chapter, analyzed findings are presented, aiming to provide a more cohesive understanding on how well-being is currently defined in management research. By doing so, trends and limitations are pointed out. This evaluation is fundamental for the upcoming discussion where these results will be critically debated, and research questions will be answered. The data used for the calculations can be found in Appendix 2.

Most Used Definitions of Well-Being

A multifaceted concept. What everyone agrees on in management research is that well-being is defined as a multifaceted concept. In Foulk et al.'s (2018) words, it is a “multidimensional construct”. In their research about actors' psychology, they specifically focus on the two components “daily need fulfillment and relaxation”. Bono et al. (2013) refer to the four major well-being components: mastery, purpose, social relationships, and positive

self-regard. Furthermore, emotional exhaustion, satisfaction, affective commitment, and moods were mentioned as well-being aspects (Koopman et al., 2016). There is no specific number of facets of well-being as there exists a myriad. The multidimensional view reflects the complexity and variety of factors that contribute to employees' well-being. This multidimensional condition is described as "a person's affective state" by Methot et al. (2021), Sonnentag, Cheng, and Parker (2022), and several more well-being researchers. As mentioned in the literature analysis, the affective state of a person is a construct of different dimensions referring to one's feelings and emotions with high-arousal positive affect being strived for in the workplace (Sonnentag et al., 2022). It may seem obvious that an increase in negative psychological experiences like emotional exhaustion will lead to a decrease in psychological well-being. What is more interesting, however, is the interaction of the three factors. Sonnentag et al. (2022) provide evidence for cross-sectional effects, demonstrating that psychological aspects like exhaustion also influence physical health in the long term. Additionally, Baer et al. (2015) explained the relation between psychological and physical health with financial well-being. They suggest that high well-being in terms of physical and psychological aspects could mitigate the negative influence of economic issues on employees' overall well-being.

Health. A fundamental component of well-being is health, which influences physical as well as psychological well-being. Griffin and Curcuruto (2016) suggest that well-being means experiencing high levels of health and safety, highlighting its importance for general welfare. Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016) propose that people's health is one of the few objective well-being components as it can be quantitatively measured using medical tests and assessments. As we will see in an upcoming chapter, the literature analysis was able to show that health is widely accepted as a major well-being component (see Figure 3). Physical and mental vitality, functioning, and safety is what defines health as a crucial constituent of

human well-being. Therefore, it is essential to recognize health as a fundamental pillar of individuals' overall quality of life and a requirement to individuals' well-being.

Above-average functioning. Closely related to and building on health is the concept of above-average functioning. Colbert, Bono, and Purvanova (2016) equate well-being with complete functioning. Maitlis (2020) supports the statement that people's functioning, or even more extreme, their "functioning at a level beyond normal expectations", is an essential well-being component. Both authors agree that fully functioning is not comprehensive enough to describe such a broad term as well-being as one can be fully functioning but still not experience well-being in a psychological way, for example. Nonetheless, they insist that it is an essential indicator of employees' well-being in the organizational context. Apart from that, functioning is rather said to be an outcome than a component of well-being in general managerial literature. Conclusively, even though some authors describe well-being in terms of being fully functioning, above-average functioning is too weak to be an overall accepted definition of well-being in the managerial environment.

Hedonic vs. eudaimonic well-being. The literature analysis has shown that well-being is often defined as the hedonic perspective, referring to experiencing pleasure and avoiding pain as much as possible, combined with the eudaimonic perspective regarding opportunities for personal growth and development and life's purpose (e.g., Sonnentag, 2015). According to several studies, almost any component of well-being can be described as either hedonic or eudaimonic, which makes the allocation of well-being components more comprehensive. Linking this way of defining well-being with the JD-R theory, the well-being outcome "exhaustion" represents the hedonic side and "work engagement" the eudaimonic one (Bakker et al., 2023). What adds to the comprehension of this definition is that it is inclusive of physical, psychological, and to some extent also economic factors. Several authors like Rogers et al. (2017), Sawyer and Clair (2022), Zheng et al. (2015), and others distinguish hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. Hence, the definition of well-being as a summation of

the hedonic perspective as the experience of pleasure and avoidance of pain and the eudaimonic perspective of experiencing purpose in life is one of the most prominent approaches in contemporary research.

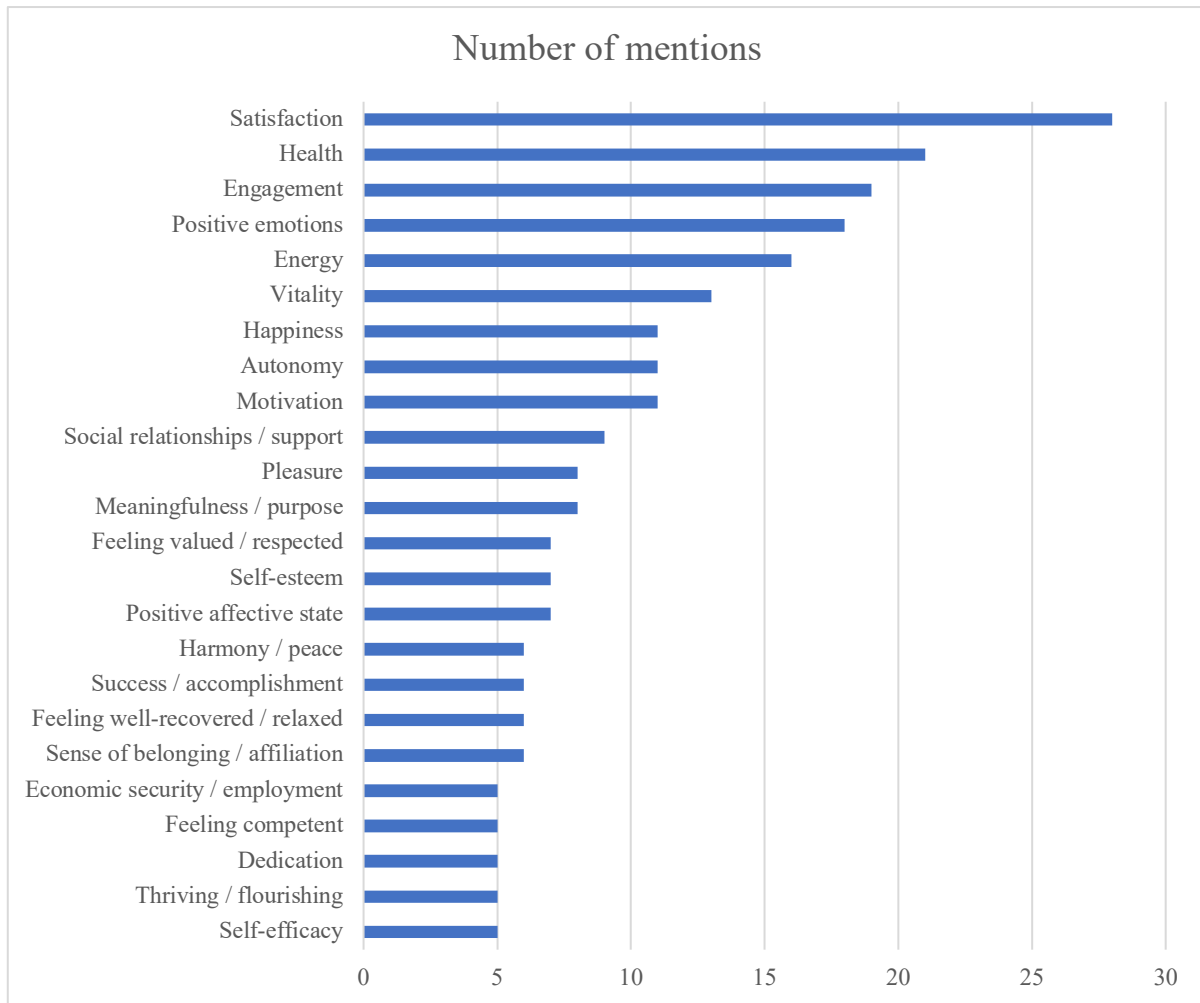
Subjective well-being. The definition of an individual experiencing subjective well-being “if he or she is (a) satisfied with his or her job and (b) experiences frequent positive emotions and infrequent negative emotions” (Rogers et al., 2017) was encountered most frequently when analyzing the literature existing on well-being in management research. What makes this definition so popular is the inclusion of several facets. It represents both sides: the presence of well-being as well as the absence of ill-being. Satisfaction as part “a” of the definition represents the subjective/individualistic viewpoint of well-being because it is based on personal expectations and experiences. Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016), Oerlemans and Bakker (2011), and Sonnentag (2015) as five well-known organizational behavior researchers all used the same definition. Especially the first part referring to evaluative judgements on one’s personal satisfaction is very popular in well-being research. The quantitative evaluation of terms used to describe well-being in managerial contexts further supports this finding (see Figure 3).

Evaluation of Terms Used for Well-Being

In many journals there is no clear definition of the term well-being. It is rather circumscribed using other terms to express feelings, moods, and behaviors. The analysis of 48 management journals shows a frequency distribution of the terms used to describe well-being in the managerial environment. The purpose of this analysis is to present a general image of how well-being is seen by researchers in this field. Figure 3 illustrates the distribution of the most important well-being components.

FIGURE 3

Distribution of Terms Used to Describe Well-Being

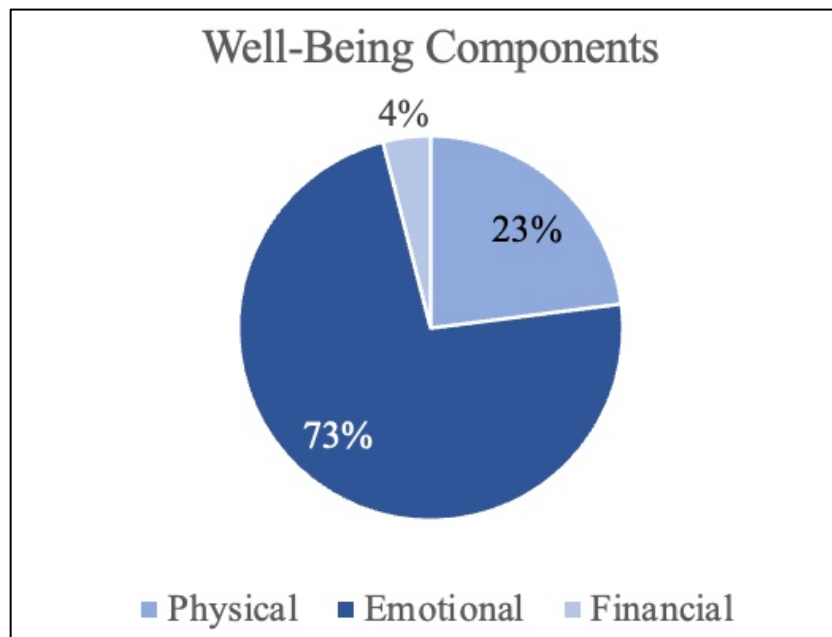


Other terms mentioned less than five times were enthusiasm, control/mastery, sleep quality, personal growth, being proactive, creativity/innovation (mentioned four times), calmness, joy, resilience, fulfillment, contentment, optimism (mentioned three times), tranquility, serenity, empowerment, comfort, learning (mentioned twice), and safety (only mentioned once).

Referring to the literature analysis, it has turned out that well-being can be defined in terms of physical, emotional, and financial components. Figure 4 categorizes all terms used to describe well-being into these three categories. The share of each component was calculated by adding up all the numbers of mentions of terms referring to the same constituent to give the more often mentioned terms higher weighting.

FIGURE 4

Shares of Physical, Emotional, and Financial Components of Well-Being

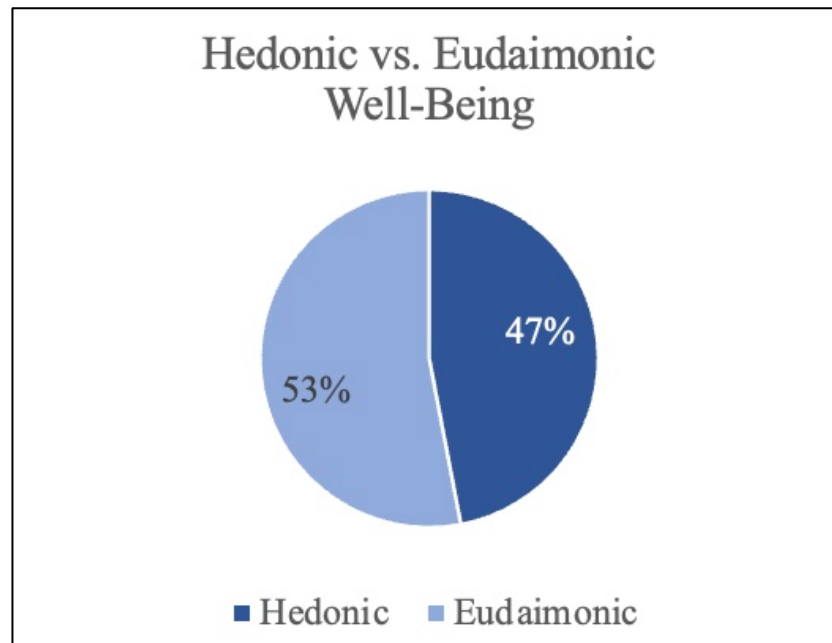


The largest section is the “emotional” one. This category includes psychological forms of well-being, encompassing feelings, mental health, and emotional states such as being satisfied or feeling happy. If we look at Figure 3, “Satisfaction” and “Engagement” are the top two components of emotional well-being. This confirms that people’s psyche has gained attention in managerial environments. Physical attributes including health, fitness, and overall bodily conditions represent 23% of the chart. According to the data used, this aspect of well-being is still essential, but less significant than emotional well-being. Out of the quantitative evaluation, “Health” and “Vitality” (see figure 3) are the highest contributors to this category’s share. Financial well-being with only 4% receives the lowest recognition. Factors such as financial stability, security, and satisfaction are not often spoken about in current management research. “Success/Accomplishment” and “Economic security/employment” are the only two well-being components regarding one’s financial well-being targeted in the analyzed articles.

Figure 5 compares the two fundamental approaches of well-being: hedonic and eudaimonic. Shares were calculated in the same manner as for physical, emotional, and economic well-being.

FIGURE 5

Hedonic vs. Eudaimonic Well-Being



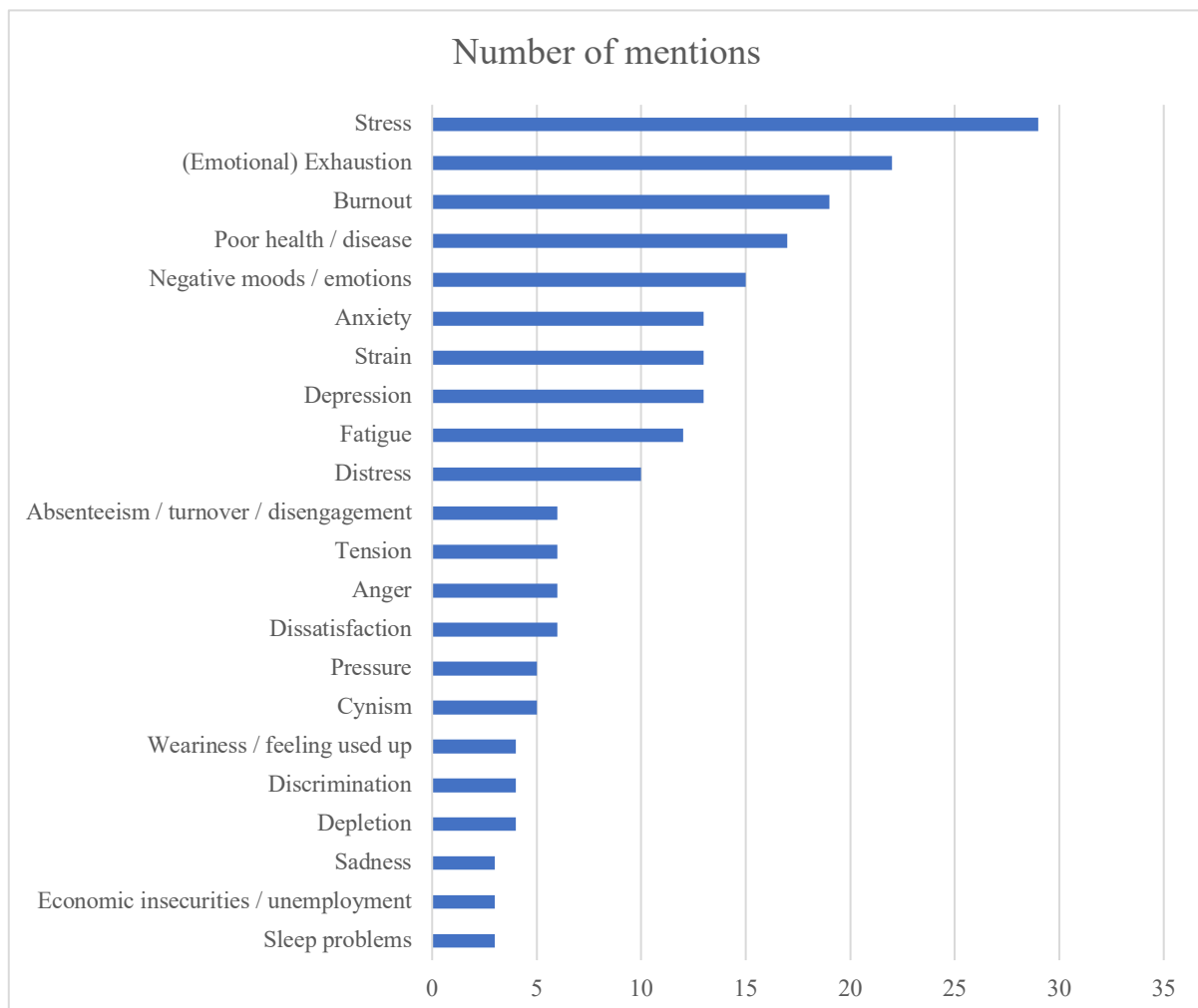
The distribution of 53% eudaimonic and 47% hedonic implies that managers must consider both sides in the workplace. Pleasure as a major hedonic well-being component as well as purpose as an eudaimonic one are important for employees to feel well. From the most mentioned terms in managerial research, “Satisfaction” represents the major hedonic component and “Engagement” the main eudaimonic constituent of well-being (see Figure 3). However, it must be clarified that some terms do not fit into one of the two categories as they can have an influence on both sides of well-being. Health, for example, can be seen in a hedonic way because it brings you immediate pleasure but also in an eudaimonic one as it is supportive for long-term purpose.

Evaluation of Terms Used for Unwell-Being

As stated in the theory chapter, some journals more thoroughly describe ill-being, or unwell-being. Well-being is then said to be the absence of ill-being, respectively the absence of ill-being indicators. Therefore, the analysis made for terms used to describe well-being was also done for terms used to describe unwell-being, contributing to a more cohesive and complete understanding of well-being. Figure 6 illustrates the distribution of the most mentioned components of unwell-being.

FIGURE 6

Distribution of Terms Used to Describe Unwell-Being



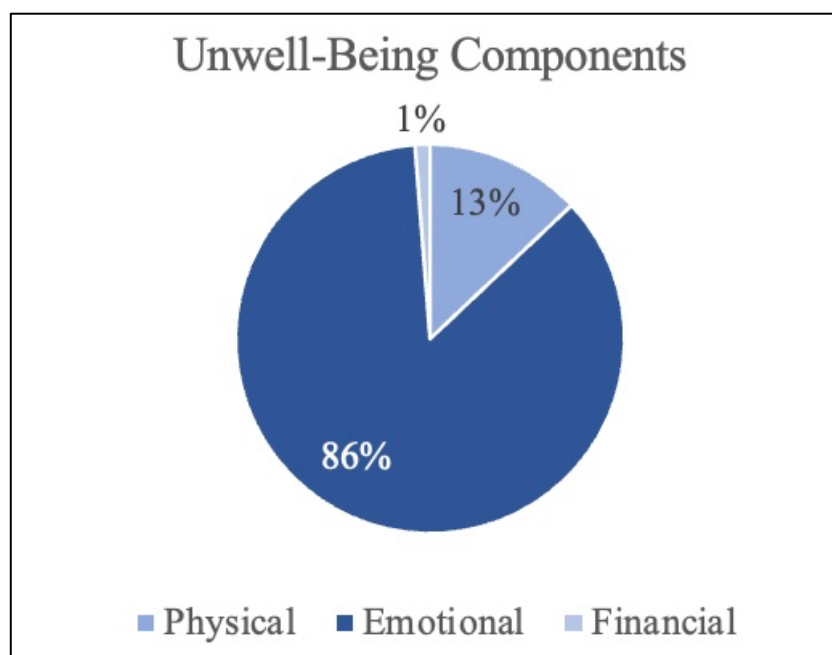
Other terms mentioned less than three times were feeling loaded, vulnerability, fear/worry, upset, hostility, frustration, feeling incompetent (mentioned twice), discouraged,

boredom, unhappiness, feeling hopeless, experiencing dissonance, drained, disturbed, and disharmony (mentioned once).

If we now split up terms used for ill-being into physical, emotional, and financial categories, Figure 7 shows a similar but even more extreme picture than Figure 4. The shares were calculated according to the description in the previous chapter.

FIGURE 7

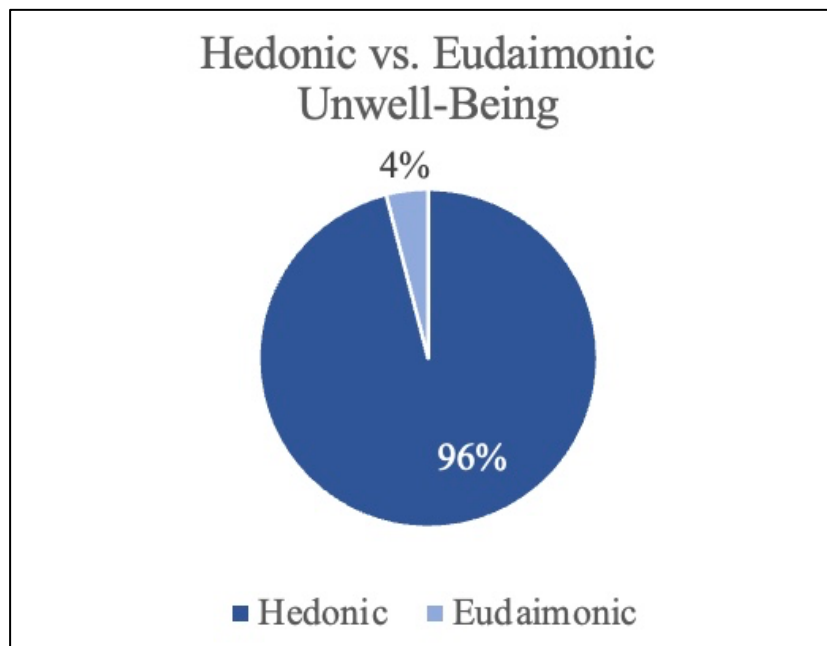
Shares of Physical, Emotional, and Financial Components of Unwell-Being



Over 85% of the weighted terms fall into the category of emotional/psychological well-being. This includes feelings of stress, anxiety, or depression. We still have a share of 13% of physical terms which is still a significant contributor to our overall ill-being. In this category are components like disease, physical pain, or fatigue. The financial role in unwell-being is small. Economic insecurities were only mentioned once and have not been discussed further.

Different from well-being components, in the distinction between hedonic and eudaimonic for terms describing unwell-being the hedonic perspective is clearly overrepresented. Figure 8 illustrates these findings.

FIGURE 8

Hedonic vs. Eudaimonic Unwell-Being

Hedonic unwell-being associated with the immediate minimization of pain and discomfort seeking pleasure and happiness takes up 96% of the pie chart. In the managerial context this indicates that most of the well-being problems are caused by factors such as stress, negative emotions, and so on. Looking at Figure 6, “Absenteeism/Turnover/Disengagement” was almost the only component clearly fitting into the eudaimonic side of unwell-being. That only 4% of the unwell-being is stated in terms of eudaimonia signifies that only a few employees struggle with a lack of purpose at work.

Satisfaction as the Main Well-Being Indicator

Figure 3 indicates that “Satisfaction” is the most mentioned component of well-being in management research. According to Jawad and Scott-Jackson (2016), general satisfaction, or life satisfaction, refers to “a person’s evaluation of their own life and its prospects, which is also subject to adaptation”. Satisfaction is seen as a “quality-of-life-factor” (Barsade & O’Neill, 2014) and is described by Rogers et al. (2017) as an affective, emotional experience. Shifting it to the work environment, job satisfaction is a work-centric outcome of well-being

(Grandey & Gabriel, 2015) where life satisfaction and job satisfaction strongly correlate. Koopman et al. (2016) confirm that if employees are satisfied at work they tend to be satisfied with life in general. Conversely, workers who are satisfied with life in general tend to be more satisfied at work as well as they experience an overall positive fundamental attitude.

As we saw in the chapter “Most used definitions of well-being”, overall satisfaction as an evaluation of one’s life is a big part of an often-used definition. This evaluation of one’s life could take place as a comparison to others (Jawad & Scott-Jackson, 2016); are my conditions better or worse than someone else’s? Individuals are weighing their experienced positive and negative emotions against each other. If negative emotions predominate positive emotions, individuals will not be able to feel satisfied. Basic human needs must be satisfied to be able to experience well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Oerlemans and Bakker (2011) have shown that employees’ job satisfaction not only leads to individual well-being but also to the economic well-being of the organization as a whole by increasing worker engagement and performance.

In the next chapter, we will discuss why satisfaction is highlighted in so many studies on well-being.

DISCUSSION

Research on well-being, especially in management contexts, has highlighted its importance in the last two decades. Several studies point out that employees’ well-being is a main contributor to their own and the organization’s performance. Throughout a thorough literature review, the importance of well-being and its definition in current managerial papers has been analyzed and results have been concluded. As there is no general agreement on one definition of the term “well-being”, this thesis aims to identify a new way of defining it, taking all points of view into consideration to achieve high comprehension. In this section, the results will be interpreted and used to answer the three underlying research questions.

Interpretation: What Does Well-Being Mean in Management Research?

Q1: How is “Well-Being” defined in current management research? As the literature analysis has shown, well-being is defined in many different but somewhat overlapping ways. Results show that emotional aspects are viewed as the most important components of employee well-being with physical attributes following. According to the reviewed data, financial aspects, while still relevant, were the least relevant contributors to individuals’ overall well-being. Even though the analyzed data is limited, results regarding this distribution are significant as the picture looks almost the same for well-being and unwell-being aspects.

Looking at Figures 5 and 8, hedonic well-being is dominant. An explanation of the dominance that hedonic aspects have in expressing well-being could be that those aspects seem to be more tangible than eudaimonic ones or that there simply come to mind more terms for describing hedonic well-being in comparison to eudaimonic well-being. Nonetheless, managers must recognize both the hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives of well-being to profit from a deeper understanding of their workforce’s feelings and well-being.

Therefore, it can be said that currently, “well-being” is defined as an affective mental state, consisting of hedonic aspects such as pleasure and eudaimonic aspects such as purpose, regarding one’s physical, mental, and economic health. However, this affective state of mind is dependent on the individual’s subjectivity and therefore varies from person to person. Consequently, a general definition of well-being that fits everyone cannot be made.

Q2: What are the main aspects of well-being and which aspects are still missing?

According to Figure 3, overall acceptance about satisfaction as the main component of well-being exists. Surprisingly, health, which could be expected to be most important, only takes second place. Thinking about this, one possible explanation could be that health alone does not lead to well-being. Satisfaction, on the other hand, is a more intense perception of one’s

current state. For individuals, health is one part that is needed to feel satisfied, thus, health is included in satisfaction as a feeling to express well-being. As we can see, health is one of the most important aspects of well-being, yet health alone is not enough to experience true well-being. This compares to Herzberg's two factor model (*see Robbins & Judge, 2023*) in which case health can be seen as a hygiene factor but not as a motivator.

Looking at well-being from the other perspective, talking about what hinders people from feeling well, Figure 6 indicates that stress is the most prominent cause of unwell-being. As we saw, stress is the most common source for many other negative feelings like burnout or exhaustion, which are also highly related to unwell-being. Hence, it makes sense that it is the top one indicator for unwell-being, hindering employees from feeling well at work.

Implication for Managers

As it has been clearly demonstrated by now how important well-being is in the organizational environment, this chapter discusses what this means in concrete terms for people in supervisory positions in their management roles. Additionally, the last research question will be answered by expanding on the current definition of well-being.

Q3: How can we change the definition of well-being to make it more comprehensive? As a base, we take the current definition of well-being combined by several organizational behavior researchers' definitions. It seems this definition might still be too loose as it is only a general statement and does not state explicit criteria that must be met to feel well. Thus, the current definition must be expanded with the most important components used to circumscribe well-being. Referring to the previous chapter (see answer to Question 2) satisfaction, health, engagement, and general positive emotions are key to well-being. Managers must recognize the importance of those well-being aspects because they are proven to significantly increase organizational outcomes. What also plays a central role in one's experience of well-being is the absence of stress, exhaustion, and burnout symptoms. A more comprehensive definition of well-being could be: Well-being is a person's affective state,

consisting of one's hedonic experience of pleasure whilst avoiding pain and one's eudaimonic sense of purpose in life while striving for achievement and success, comprising subjective satisfaction judgments, health, and high engagement, meanwhile experiencing no stress, feelings of exhaustion, or burnout symptoms.

Nonetheless, it cannot be forgotten that the experience of well-being is as individual as humans, and defining such an individual term cannot fit everyone's perspective, which can therefore be problematic.

Limitations

As already declared, this paper is a purely theoretical work, including no empirical study. Still, it does refer to evidence-based empiricism by other authors. This means that the newly stated definition in its expanded version has not been applied in the work environment. This theoretical research is not able to ensure its acceptance by the working force.

Furthermore, the investigation is limited to the managerial context, focusing on management journals from more recent years. There exists an endless number of data targeting well-being. Apart from focusing on managerial articles, the important ones had to be differentiated from the less important ones. Even though attention was paid to this challenge, it cannot be assured that every important study was included.

Another limitation is that this thesis targets employees in general and not a specific industry, sector, or job which makes the results of this study less precise than if it was about one job in particular, reducing its informative value.

Recommendations for Further Research

Financial aspects are still too little represented in the current literature. As of now, the only financial aspects talked about regarding well-being are economic security and insecurity. Even though organizational behavior researchers agree that psychological and physical health is more important, it must be clarified in further studies what the financial requirements are for employees to experience well-being in the highest possible way.

Another area for research in the field of well-being in managerial contexts could be an empirical study, building on this thesis' theory, which investigates how organizational environments and managerial behaviors need to be designed to enhance employees' well-being.

A similar analysis to the one underlying this thesis could be done for specific industries or sectors. It could be interesting to see what differences and congruencies exist among the different jobs.

CONCLUSION

Looking back on the thesis, many different inputs from various authors were gained, all referring to the term well-being and its meaning and definition in recent management research.

Thinking about the main research question, it can be said that management research currently defines well-being as an affective state, consisting of one's hedonic experience of pleasure whilst avoiding pain and one's eudaimonic sense of purpose in life while striving for achievement and success.

The thorough analysis brought up many terms used to describe how employees feel when talking about well-being. A frequency distribution showed that satisfaction takes the first position as the major component of well-being, followed by health and engagement while in contrast stress, exhaustion, and burnout were the top three most mentioned factors interfering with well-being.

It follows that these terms need to find recognition in the definition of well-being to make it more comprehensive. Building upon these findings, a new definition of employee well-being emerges, providing a more comprehensive insight into what is necessary to truly feel well in the workplace. Well-being is a person's affective state, consisting of one's hedonic experience of pleasure whilst avoiding pain and one's eudaimonic sense of purpose in life while striving for achievement and success, comprising subjective satisfaction

judgments, health, and high engagement, meanwhile experiencing no stress, feelings of exhaustion, or burnout symptoms.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank everyone who supported me in writing my bachelor's thesis. Special thanks go to Lauren Howe, who supervised me throughout the whole process, and to Alana O'Neill for proofreading.

DECLARATION OF PLAGIARISM

I hereby declare that I have prepared this thesis independently and without the use of any aids other than those declared (including ChatGPT or other artificial intelligence). I am aware that I take full responsibility for the scientific nature of the submitted text itself, even if AI aids were used and declared. All passages taken verbatim or in spirit from published or unpublished writings are identified as such. The work has not yet been submitted in the same or similar form or in excerpts as part of another examination.

25.06.2024, Zürich

Date, Place



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APPENDIX

Appendix 1, Categorization

Code	Title
A1	The Importance of well-being in organizational contexts
A2	Effects of employees' well-being on the financial performance of organizations
B1	Direct definition of well-being
B2	Hedonic well-being
B3	Eudaimonic well-being
B4	Satisfaction as a big well-being indicator
C	Well-being as the absence of ill-being
D	Well-being as a dynamic construct / changing over time
E	Well-being mostly due to the circumstances / as a reaction to the environment
F	Well-being as a given character trait / mental off-set
G	Definition of a term referring to well-being
H	Definition of a term referring to unwell-being
I	Psychological well-being
J	Physical well-being
K	Economic well-being
L	Trade-off between the different sorts of well-being

M	Implications referring to mindfulness
N	Other implications
O	The job demands-resources model
P	Positive-negative asymmetry effect
Q	The circumplex model of affect
R	The conservation of resources model

Page	Source, text passage	Code
Sonnentag, S. 2015. Dynamics of well-being. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 2: 261–293.		
263	The first perspective adopts a hedonic view and focuses on well-being as pleasure or happiness. This perspective is referred to as subjective well-being and comprises as core components the experience of positive affect, the experience of low levels of negative affect, and high levels of life satisfaction.	B1, B2 B4
263	The second perspective adopts an eudaimonic view that regards well-being as (a) personal growth and self-realization, (b) authenticity and personal expressiveness, and (c) the pursuit of meaning in life.	B1, B3
264	Well-being can change over time and also fluctuate within weeks, days, or even hours.	D
265	They found a significant lagged relationship between stressors [e.g., job demands, workload, responsibilities] assessed at time 1 and strain assessed at time 2, controlling for time-1 strain, which indicates that strain increases after exposure to job stressors	E

266	Overall, autonomy and other job resources [feedback, task variety, opportunities for learning and development] are linked to positive changes in well-being over time. These changes are reflected more in an increase in work engagement and other positive well-being indicators than in a decrease in negative indicators.	E
265	Job stressors are features of the work situation that potentially elicit physiological and psychological strain reactions.	H
266	Job resources are “physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that help to either achieve work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, or stimulate personal growth, learning, and development”.	G
268	Research on recovery processes suggests that psychological detachment from work during nonwork time predicts a decrease in exhaustion and buffers the relationship between high job demands and psychosomatic complaints (Sonnentag et al. 2010).	A1
268 274	They found that a measure comprising both positive and negative well-being indicators predict an increase in performance over a 2-year period. Moreover, negative well-being indicators such as burnout and poor emotional health are related to an increase in absence over time. When it comes to negative well-being indicators as predictors, performance seems to suffer when negative affect and exhaustion are high.	A1
Bono, J. E., Glomb, T. M., Shen, W., Kim, E., & Koch, A. J. 2013. Building positive resources: Effects of positive events and positive reflection on work stress and health. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 56(6): 1602–1627.		
1601	Research has established that work stress physically and psychologically damages workers and economically burdens organizations and societies.	I, J, K
1602	Work detachment is defined as an “individual’s sense of being away from the work situation”.	G

1604	Positive events may directly build psychological resources by fulfilling basic human needs, including belongingness and autonomy. In an effort to define positive human health as something more as the absence of illness or disease, Ryff and Singer (1998) identified four core, universal features of well-being: mastery, a purposeful life, quality interpersonal connections, and positive self-regard.	B1, B3
1605	<p>The “three-good-things intervention” is designed to improve well-being by causing people to reflect on and “savor” positive events.</p> <p>[...] their natural human tendencies to ruminate on negative events.</p> <p>Focusing explicitly on good things may decrease the likelihood of becoming accustomed to and thus failing to notice or benefit from positive events and resources.</p> <p>Reflecting on positive events at work at the end of a day reduces stress, blood pressure, and health complaints and increase work detachment.</p>	M F M
1609	Positive events = “accomplish what you hoped to”, “have fun and socialize”, “receive information that positively affected your work schedule, duties, or pay”, and “receive positive feedback or praise”.	G
1609	<p>Negative events = “receive information that negatively affected your work schedule, duties, or pay”, “receive negative feedback or criticism/complaints”, “get treated disrespectfully”, “work with difficult people”, and “have work related conflict”.</p> <p>Family-to-work conflict = “have personal tasks interfere with your work” and “have thoughts of family interfere with your work”</p>	H
Wanberg, C. R., Zhu, J., Kanfer, R., & Zhang, Z. 2012. After the pink slip: Applying dynamic motivation frameworks to the job search experience. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 55(2): 261–284.		
261	Mental health refers to individuals’ psychological distress and well-being.	G

265	Mental health as an immediate and longer-term affective state.	
Trougakos, J. P., Hideg, I., Cheng, B. H., & Beal, D. J. 2014. Lunch breaks unpacked: The role of autonomy as a moderator of recovery during lunch. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 57(2): 405–421.		
406	For example, Trougakos et al. (2008) found that low-effort activities (e.g., relaxing) during work breaks resulted in higher levels of positive emotions and lower levels of negative emotions during these breaks, providing preliminary evidence that within-day work breaks have important implications for recovery.	N
407	[...] SDT (self-determination theory) (Deci & Ryan, 2000) suggest that fulfillment of the innate and fundamental needs for relatedness, competence, and autonomy enhances levels of vitality (i.e., energetic feelings reflecting the opposite of fatigue; Ryan & Deci, 2008) and contributes to greater levels of well-being.	G
417	[...] a critical take home point of this research for employees, managers, and organizations is that the benefits of autonomy go beyond having choice over work activities to include choice throughout the experience of work, including breaks from work.	A1, G
Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Sanz-Vergel, A. I. 2014. Burnout and Work Engagement: The JD-R Approach. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 1: 389–411.		
390	[...] Freudenberger (1974) defined burnout as a “state of mental and physical exhaustion caused by one’s professional life,” and he referred to “the extinction of motivation or incentive, especially where one’s devotion to a cause or relationship fails to produce the desired results.”	H
391	Two different but related schools of thought exist that consider work engagement as a positive, work-related state of well-being or fulfillment. According to Maslach & Leiter (1997), engagement is characterized by energy, involvement, and efficacy, the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions. These authors argue that, in the case of burnout, energy turns into exhaustion, involvement into cynicism, and efficacy into ineffectiveness. By	G

	<p>implication, engagement is assessed by the opposite pattern of scores on the three dimensions of the MBI-GS: low scores on exhaustion and cynicism and high scores on professional efficacy.</p> <p>The alternative view considers work engagement to be an independent, distinct concept that is negatively related to burnout. Consequently, work engagement is defined and operationalized in its own right as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli et al. 2002, p. 74). That is, in engagement, fulfillment exists in contrast to the voids of life that leave people feeling empty as in burnout. Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly. Accordingly, vigor and dedication are considered direct opposites of exhaustion and cynicism, respectively, the two core symptoms of burnout. The continuum that is spanned by exhaustion and vigor has been labeled energy, whereas the continuum that is spanned by cynicism and dedication has been labeled identification (González-Romá et al. 2006).</p> <p>Thus, work engagement is characterized by a high level of energy and strong identification with one’s work, whereas burnout is characterized by the opposite: a low level of energy and poor identification with one’s work (see also Demerouti et al. 2010). In addition, based on in-depth interviews (Schaufeli et al. 2001), absorption was included as the third constituting aspect of work engagement.</p>	<p>G</p> <p>G</p> <p>G</p> <p>G</p> <p>G</p>
393	<p>Alarcon et al. (2009) have argued that personality may influence burnout through the impact of both the perceived and the objective nature of one’s work environment. First, personality may predispose employees to perceive their work environments favorably regardless of the objective nature of their work (Brunborg 2008).</p>	<p>F</p>

	<p>For example, whereas individuals with low emotional stability may view a high workload or a complex work assignment as threatening, individuals with high emotional stability may view the same job demands as challenges. In addition, personality may influence the objective nature of one's work environment (Judge et al. 2000). Because of their ability to easily adapt, those who are emotionally stable and extraverted may self-select into enriched job environments.</p> <p>The meta-analysis of Alarcon and colleagues (2009) shows that personality is indeed reliably related to burnout. More specifically, the authors found that four of the Big Five factors—namely, emotional stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness—are consistently negatively related to each of the three dimensions of burnout. The exception is openness to experience, which was positively related only to personal accomplishment. Emotional stability was the most important predictor of exhaustion and depersonalization, whereas extraversion was the most important predictor of personal accomplishment.</p>	
399	<p>The studies reviewed so far provide evidence for a distinctive pattern of antecedents and consequences of burnout and work engagement. On one hand, job demands have been identified as the main causes of burnout, which in turn leads to poor health and negative organizational outcomes. On the other hand, job resources have been identified as the main drivers of work engagement, which in turn leads to increased well-being and positive organizational outcomes. These patterns form the basis for an articulated model of occupational well-being, known as the job demands–resources (JD–R) model (Bakker & Demerouti 2007, 2014; Demerouti et al. 2001). With the JD–R model, we can understand, explain, and make predictions about employee burnout, work engagement, and outcomes. In this section, we discuss the most important building blocks of JD–R theory.</p>	O

402	[...] whereas burnout has a negative impact on employee well-being and organizational performance, work engagement is a desirable state with positive consequences. Thus, interventions should aim to prevent burnout and foster work engagement.	A1
Greenhaus, J. H. & Kossak, E. E. 2014. The contemporary career: A work-home perspective. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 1: 361–388.		
377	<p>Sustainability suggests protecting and fostering (rather than depleting) human and career development with a focus on balance and renewal.</p> <p>[...]</p> <p>Similar to Newman (2011), Kossek et al. (2013b) proposed that a sustainable career has the following essential characteristics: (a) sufficient security to meet economic needs, (b) fit with one’s core career and life values, (c) flexibility and capability to evolve to suit one’s changing needs and interests, and (d) renewability such that an individual has regular opportunities for rejuvenation.</p>	G K B3
Baer, M. D., Dhensa-Kahlon, R. K., Colquitt, J. A., Rodell, J. B., Outlaw, R., & Long, D. M. 2015. Uneasy lies the head that bears the trust: The effects of feeling trusted on emotional exhaustion. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 58(6): 1637–1657.		
1637	[...] feeling trusted fills an employee with pride – a benefit for exhaustion and performance – while also increasing perceived workload and concerns about reputation maintenance – burdens for exhaustion and performance.	A1
1637	Trusting – being willing to accept vulnerability to the actions of another party based on positive expectations about their attributes [...].	G, H
1640	Emotional exhaustion – the central component of burnout – is a chronic feeling of emotional and physical depletion. Employees who are emotionally exhausted feel drained and “used up” from their work.	H

1643	For example, a gain in health may help buffer the detrimental effects of a reduction in financial stability.	L
1644	Indeed, several studies have shown a negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and job performance.	A2
Barsade, S. G., & O’Neill, O. A. 2014. What’s love got to do with it? A longitudinal study of the culture of companionate love and employee and client outcomes in a long-term care setting. <i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i> , 59(4): 551–598.		
551	[...] we find that an emotional culture of companionate love at work positively relates to employees’ satisfaction and teamwork and negatively relates to their absenteeism and emotional exhaustion.	A1, B4
562	The healthcare literature describes at least two specific types of patient psychological well-being in the long-term care setting: the moods shown by patients on a daily basis (Lawton, Van Haitsma, and Klapper, 1996) and a multifaceted set of quality-of-life factors (Goodwin and Intrieri, 2006), including patient satisfaction.	B1 B4
581	Echoing findings from the culture-fit literature, we found that trait positive affectivity moderated the effect of employees’ ratings of a culture of love on employees’ outcomes. For employees who were higher rather than lower in trait positive affectivity, a culture of companionate love was associated with a greater reduction in emotional exhaustion (though with no differential influence on absenteeism) and a stronger positive influence on satisfaction and teamwork.	F B4
Tetrick, L. E., & Winslow, C. J. 2015. Workplace stress management interventions and health promotion. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 2: 583–603.		
584	Low salaries and lack of opportunity for growth were the most commonly reported source of work stress, and these sources of stress have been relatively stable over at least the past four years (APA 2014).	K, B3
584	This dual process model [JD-R] reflects two mechanisms by which job demands and resources can lead to strain or motivation that subsequently affects organizational and individual outcomes.	O

590	Mindfulness can be defined as “a state of being attentive to and aware of what is taking place in the present” (Brown & Ryan 2003, p.822). Scholars assert that mindfulness may serve to reduce employee stress because mindfulness facilitates adaptive responding to stressful events by allowing individuals to attend to the event in an accepting, nonjudgmental manner (Michel et al. 2014).	G, M
595	[...] enhance employee’s emotional, intellectual, physical, social, and spiritual wellness , where wellness is defined as functioning at the highest possible level of one’s self.	B1, G
Grandey, A. A., & Gabriel, A. S. 2015. Emotional labor at a crossroads: Where do we go from here? <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 2: 323–349.		
323	Emotional labor – regulating emotions as part of the work role	H
337	The focus on job satisfaction and job burnout as the well-being outcomes is work-centric; it ignores how emotional labor may affect the whole person.	B1, B4
341	Other interventions, such as end-of-day positive reflection and mindfulness (i.e., nonjudgmental complete attention; Bono et al. 2013, Hülshager et al. 2013), are effective for employee well-being and seem conceptually related to deep acting and to restoring regulatory resources.	M
Koopman, J. Lanaj, K., & Scott, B. A. 2016. Integrating the bright and dark sides of OCB: A daily investigation of the benefits and costs of helping others. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 59(2): 414–435.		
414	Defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006: 3), scholars have long focused on the "bright side" of OCB .	G
415	Indeed, Glomb et al. (2011: 214) recommended that managers should view OCB “as a mechanism that promotes employee well-being.”	N

415	Moreover, this model identifies two constructs that respectively represent these two mechanisms, positive affect and work goal progress, and that link OCB with three indicators of well-being at work: emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and affective commitment (Ganster & Rosen, 2013; Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009)	B1 B4
417	Emotional exhaustion reflects “prolonged physical, affective, and cognitive strain at work” (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2006: 936) and “is an important marker of employee well-being” (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2011: 608).	H
417	Job satisfaction represents an evaluative state resulting from “appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976: 1300) and is the most commonly examined indicator of well-being at work (Diener et al., 1999).	B4, G
417	Finally, affective commitment captures an employee’s “emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer et al., 2002: 21). Affective commitment is an indicator of work well-being because it reflects employees’ “positive affection toward the organization” (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) and shares conceptual similarity with job satisfaction (Le, Schmidt, Harter, & Lauver, 2010).	G B4
Colbert, A. E., Bono, J. E., & Purvanova, R. K. 2016. Flourishing via workplace relationships: Moving beyond instrumental support. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 59(4): 1199–1223.		
1200	[...] writings by relationship scholars observe that work relationships can be a “source of enrichments, vitality, and learning that helps individuals, groups, and organizations grow, thrive, and flourish” (Ragins & Dutton, 2007: 3) and can provide “an affirming and heady mix of supports and supplies” (Rousseau & Ling, 2007: 373).	A1
1209	Employee flourishing occurs when employees experience high levels of well-being and are fully functioning (Keyes, 2007). In his research on flourishing and mental health, Keyes (2005) identified a number of indicators of flourishing, including positive emotions and positive psychological functioning.	G, B1
Butts, M. M., Becker, W. J., & Boswell W. R. 2015. Hot buttons and time sinks: The effects of electronic communication during nonwork time		

on emotions and work-nonwork conflict. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 58(3): 763–788.		
763	[...] “the new night shift” (Stone, 2014), when after normal business hours employees log back on to work (or never log off) in order to address incoming electronic communications. [...] made it increasingly difficult to disconnect from work when away from the workplace.	A1
767	Negative emotions, such as anger, arise from events appraised as unfavorable and obstructing valued goals; positive emotions, such as happiness, stem from events appraised as favorable and facilitating valued goals (Frijda, 1988; Lazarus, 1991, 1999).	B1, B2
769	Similarly, broaden and build theory (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001) argues that positive experiences and emotion enhance health and flourishing by expanding one’s cognitive and action repertoires. This allows positive emotions to provide instant benefits in the way of physical, cognitive, and psychological resources that are available for use in the nonwork domain, thereby decreasing work-to-nonwork conflict.	B1 I, J
769 / 770	In her model of emotions in e-mail, Byron (2008) proposed a negativity bias, whereby individuals overemphasize negative (rather than positive) information conveyed in e-mail. Supporting the notion that “bad is stronger than good,” Baumeister et al. (2001) provided evidence that negatively valenced events (e.g., losing money, receiving criticism) have a greater impact on individuals than do positively valenced events (e.g., winning money, receiving praise). Similarly, euphoria from positively valenced events tends to be more transitory than the lasting impression of negatively valenced events (Brickman, Coates, & Janoff-Bulman, 1978). This pattern has been confirmed in research on the positive-negative asymmetry effect (e.g., Peeters, 1971; Peeters & Czapinski, 1990) which stipulates that negative stimuli are processed more extensively and contribute more to one’s overall impression than do positive stimuli.	P

	Lazarus alluded to a similar positive-negative asymmetry effect as it pertains to emotions by stating, “My best guess is that goal incongruent or negative emotions have a much more obvious and powerful impact on adaption and subjective well-being than do positive ones” (1991: 264)	
Griffin, M. A., & Curcuruto, M. 2016. Safety climate in organizations. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 3: 191–212.		
202	Some studies have focused on how safety climate and safety performance assessed at the individual level related to reduced levels of self-reported involvement in adverse events, with health and safety implications such as injury and disease (Nahrgang et al. 2011, Tucker & Turner 2015).	B1
203	A smaller but growing research stream focuses on the relationship between safety climate and the maintenance of positive conditions of health and well-being (Mearns et al. 2010). From this perspective, Clarke & Cooper (2004) argued that employees' general health and well-being can influence involvement in accidents and injuries (Nahrgang et al. 2011). Consistent with an occupational stress process, it is expected that negative perceptions of safety climate lead to the experience of stress and reduced psychological well-being. Therefore, a negative safety climate could increase vulnerability to accidents and injury through reduced physical and psychological well-being (Clarke 2010). Cognitive processes, such as distraction, inattention, and fatigue, are potential explanatory mechanisms for this process (Reason 1997).	B1
Sutcliffe, K. M., Vogus, T. J., & Dane, E. 2016. Mindfulness in organizations: A cross-level review. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 3: 55–81.		
57	Common across these definitions is the observation that mindfulness is a particular state of consciousness – one in which an individual focuses attention on present-moment events.	M, G

68	Emerging from and catalyzing the growth of research on mindfulness is the observation that mindfulness matters: It enhances physical and mental well-being (Brown et al. 2007) and improves performance and cognitive ability across variety of task domains (e.g., Moore & Gardener 2014, Schmeitz et al. 2009).	M
68	Further informing our understanding of mindfulness and worker well-being, Hülshager et al. (2013) found through a field experiment with working professionals that mindfulness reduced emotional exhaustion and increased job satisfaction. Along related lines, research has demonstrated positive relationships between trait mindfulness and work engagement and its subcomponents (e.g., vigor) (Leroy et al. 2013, Marzuq & Drach-Zahavy 2012). Both correlational and meditation-based research indicates that mindfulness promotes work/life balance among workers across multiple industries (Allen & Kiburz 2012, Michel et al. 2014). And in assessing mindfulness through a daily diary approach, Hülshager et al. (2014) showed that mindfulness at work is positively associated with sleep quality among working professionals.	M B4
Ten Brummelhuis, L. L., Rothbard, N. P., & Uhrich, B. 2017. Beyond nine to five: Is working to excess bad for health? <i>Academy of Management Discoveries</i> , 3(3): 262–283.		
264	Some definitions of work engagement involve cognitive focus on the job (i.e., attention and absorption; Rothbard, 2001) as well as energy (Rothbard & Patil, 2011), whereas others also include a positive affective component (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Although there is considerable overlap between these definitions, the Schaufeli et al. (2006) definition of work engagement as “a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” is the broadest, in that it captures the component of positive/pleasurable engagement in work.	G
265	Recent studies most commonly conceptualize workaholism along two dimensions, working excessively and working compulsively (Taris, Schaufeli, & Verhoeven, 2005). Working excessively is different from actual work	H

	hours as it regards work hours that are neither necessary from an economic standpoint nor demanded by the organization (Scott et al., 1997). In other words, working excessively captures the individual's belief that he or she needs to work hard, and this personal norm exceeds expectations in the employee's social context (e.g., national economy, organizational culture). Working compulsively refers to the employee's preoccupation with work, whereby he or she finds it difficult to detach from work and feels guilty when not working.	
265	Workaholism is related to Type A personality, which also encapsulates an inner drive to work hard (Burke, 2000). Type A behavior consists of two dimensions, namely achievement-striving (e.g., competitiveness, job involvement, ambitious, etc.) and irritability/impatience (e.g., time urgency, aggressiveness, hostility; Hallberg, Johansson, & Schaufeli, 2007; Scott et al., 1997).	H
Rogers, K. M., Corley, K. G., & Ashforth, B. E. 2017. Seeing more than orange: Organizational respect and positive identity transformation in a prison context. <i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i> , 62(2): 219–269.		
246	Following Bakker and Oerlemans (2012: 180; cf. hedonic well-being, Fischer, 2014), an individual has high (subjective) well-being “if he or she is (a) satisfied with his or her job and (b) experiences frequent positive emotions and infrequent negative emotions ... indicative of engagement, happiness, or satisfaction (as an affective experience).”	B1, B2 B4
Oerlemans, W. G. M., & Bakker, A. B. 2011. Subjective well-being in organizations. In G. M. Spreitzer (ed.), & K. S. Cameron (ed.), <i>The oxford handbook of positive organizational scholarship</i> : 179–189. Oxford: Oxford University Press.		
178	Modern organizations expect their employees to be proactive and show initiative, take responsibility for their own professional development, and to be committed to high-quality performance standards. Thus, employees are needed who feel energetic and dedicated — organizations need engaged workers (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008).	A1

179	<p>Subjective well-being refers to how people evaluate their lives. This evaluation may take the form of cognitions when a person makes a conscious evaluative judgment about his or her satisfaction with life as a whole. However, the evaluation of one's life may also be in the form of affect (i.e., as the experience of unpleasant or pleasant emotions in reaction to life). Thus, a person is said to have high SWB if he or she is (a) satisfied with his or her life, and (b) experiences frequent positive emotions such as joy and happiness, and infrequent negative emotions such as sadness and anger (Diener, Sandvik, & Pavot, 1991).</p>	B1 B4
179	<p>How can experiences of positive emotions be further defined? Russell's (1980, 2003) circumplex model proposes that affective states arise from two fundamental neurophysiological systems, one related to a pleasure–displeasure continuum and the other to arousal, activation, or alertness. Each emotion can be understood as a linear combination of these two dimensions as varying degrees of both pleasure and activation (see Figure 14.1). Specific emotions arise out of patterns of activation within these two neurophysiological systems, together with interpretations and labeling of these emotional experiences.</p> <p>The circumplex model emphasizes that emotions are not discrete and isolated entities but instead are interrelated based on the two neurophysiological systems of pleasure and activation.</p>	Q
180	<p>Work engagement is most often defined as “ a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74).</p> <p>In essence, work engagement captures how workers experience their work: as stimulating and energetic and something to which they really want to devote time and effort (the vigor component); as a significant and meaningful pursuit (dedication); and as engrossing and interesting (absorption; Bakker et al., 2008).</p>	G

181	In this chapter, however, we will treat happiness as a positive form of SWB, equating high pleasure and moderate levels of activation. Being happy refers to somewhat higher levels of activation as being satisfied or content and somewhat lower compared to being enthusiastic or excited (see Figure 14.2).	G
181	Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as a “pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job” (p. 317). Employees who are satisfied with their jobs experience high pleasure, but may have limited energy or aspirations (Grebner, Semmer, & Elfering, 2005).	G, B4
182	However, research of the past decade has shown that the two core burnout dimensions — emotional exhaustion and cynicism — can be observed in virtually any occupational group (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2002). Emotional exhaustion refers to a general feeling of extreme chronic fatigue, caused by continuous exposure to demanding working conditions. Cynicism is defined as a callous, distanced, and cynical attitude toward the work itself or the people with whom one works.	H
183	<p>Finally, engaged workers transfer their engagement to others in their immediate environment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2009; Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009). Since, in most organizations, performance is the result of collaborative effort, the engagement of one person may transfer to others and indirectly improve team performance.</p> <p>The number of studies showing a positive relationship between employee engagement and job performance is increasing (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010). For example, Bakker, Demerouti, and Verbeke (2004) showed that engaged Dutch employees received higher ratings from their colleagues on in-role and extra-role performance, indicating that engaged employees perform well and are willing to go the extra mile.</p>	A1

183	Importantly, employees with higher levels of daily engagement produced higher objective daily financial returns.	A2
184	For instance, Koys (2001) showed that overall employee satisfaction correlated 0.35 with store profitability in the subsequent year. Results show that, in addition to job satisfaction, positive affective states of SWB that are characterized by high levels of pleasure and higher levels of activation - such as work engagement and happiness at work – are positively related to high levels of job performance.	B4 Q
Jawad, A. Q., & Scott-Jackson, W. 2016. <i>Redefining well-being in nations and organizations: A process of active committed enthusiasm</i> . London: Palgrave Macmillan UK.		
1	National (government) and organizational (management) leaders have an obligation to maximize the well-being and engagement of their citizens and staff. This is not just a moral or socio-political responsibility. As we shall see, individuals and groups whose well-being and engagement are high tend to contribute more effectively than individuals whose well-being and engagement are low. So, for the country or organization, having fully engaged citizens/staff with high levels of well-being is a key factor in strategic national or organizational success, which may itself result in a greater sense of national or organizational well-being – a virtuous cycle.	A1, A2
6	Higher levels of well-being and engagement have consistently been shown to significantly impact a wide range of highly desirable outcomes. For engagement, numerous studies have demonstrated significant positive impacts on operating income (52% difference: Towers Perrin-ISR 2006), sick days (around 4 days less pa: CBI-AXA 2003), customer focus (53% more: Right Management 2006), retention (87% less likely to leave: Corporate Leadership Council 2004) and many other key organizational outcomes.	A1, A2
13	In this work, ‘well-being’ is a sustained, positive, perceived state of satisfaction with life (often described as subjective well-being or SWB), rather than short-term happiness or a simple absence of ‘ill-being’.	B1, B4

	<p>[...]</p> <p>This definition differs from many which define well-being in terms of its objective factors. So, for example, a well-being assessment question, ‘overall satisfaction with my life in general’, describes a passive variant of well-being while ‘state of health as measured by...’ Describes an objective concept of well-being (assuming that various health measures reflect and are components of well-being itself).</p>	B4
14	So, under this definition, well-being is an aggregate of purpose, autonomy, control, satisfaction with life and happiness, whereas in fact, autonomy, control and purpose are input factors rather than components.	B1, B4
14	[...] many studies of well-being in organizational contexts define the construct purely in terms of health and physical well-being, [...].	J
15	<p>1. Well-being is most often defined within the following broad perspectives (Taylor 2015):</p> <p>Hedonistic or mental-state – where well-being is defined as an affective state such as happiness or satisfaction with life.</p> <p>Desire-satisfaction – well-being defined in terms of the degree of satisfaction of perceived or actual preferences.</p> <p>Objective – which assume well-being to be the possession of various attributes such as health, autonomy, electricity and so on.</p> <p>Capabilities – the wherewithal to lead a satisfactory life.</p>	<p>B1</p> <p>B2, B4</p> <p>B2, B4</p> <p>B3</p> <p>B3</p>
16	Happiness – an affective temporary state, as well as a general level, but which is impacted by adaption, where people adjust to situations and return to a previous level of happiness. Of course, the capacity to adapt to situations in order to maintain a general level of happiness, may well be a personal contributing factor of well-being.	<p>G</p> <p>I</p> <p>F</p>

16	Health – physical and mental, including nutrition, optimism and so on.	G, J, I
17	Life satisfaction – a person’s evaluation of their own life and its prospects, which is also subject to adaption.	G, I, B4
17	Income and employment may well be hygiene factors (Herzberg et al. 1959), which are ‘demotivators’ with a negative impact on well-being in their absence, but do not act as increasingly active motivators by their increasing presence above a certain level.	K
18	The construct of objective well-being is a misnomer, as it describes the factors that are assumed to cause well-being, rather than well-being itself.	B1
19	Many authors have noted that the impact of objective factors (such as wealth) do not have a predictable impact on well-being across societies and individuals.	
19	Diener (1984) introduced the construct of subjective well-being (SWB), which represents the individual’s perception of their own well-being and, according to Diener (1984), is a tripartite structure comprising life satisfaction, frequent experiences of positive affect (happiness) and infrequent experiences of negative affect (which are seen as distinct concepts, rather than the opposite ends of one continuum). Life satisfaction is a cognitive evaluation of one’s life overall and could include comparative evaluations of self vs others; positive affect is the experience of happiness and negative affect is the experience of unhappiness.	B1 B4 B4
19	SWB has been shown to relate to many individual outcomes such as socioeconomic advantages in higher income and education as well as positive psychological, interpersonal and physical functioning. In addition, SWB has been assessed at national and pan-national levels, via numerous global and national surveys, suggesting links to higher standards of living, more positive health indicators (mental and physical) and greater peace.	A2
19	Other studies have found that, on the one hand, SWB is altered in the short/medium term by changes in circumstances (for example, Luhmann et al. 2012), and on the other, that SWB (somewhat like optimism) is	E F

	significantly derived from individual dispositions (genetic or highly conditioned) and is therefore stable and trait-like and returns to a norm in the face of, even major, positive and negative events (Lucas & Donnellan 2012).	
23	A major theme in the earlier literature and practice relating to well-being, was that well-being was essentially the absence of mild or severe mental disorder or stress.	C
Zheng, X., Zhu, W., Zhao, H., & Zhang, C. 2015. Employee well-being in organizations: Theoretical model, scale development, and cross-cultural validation. <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i> , 36: 621–644.		
621	Employees' well-being is critical to the survival and development of organizations around the world (Spreitzer & Porath, 2012), and it has emerged as an important research topic in organizational behavior and related areas.	A1
622	Employees well-being is a term for which “everyone understands the meaning but nobody can give a precise definition” (Lyubomirsky, 2001). Ryan and Deci (2001) concluded that there are two major philosophical perspectives concerning well-being: one is happiness-oriented (i.e., hedonism), defining well-being as the subjective experience of happiness; the other concerns realizing human potential power (i.e., eudaimonism), which regards well-being as the result of personal achievement, self-actualization, or self-positioning.	B1 B2 B3
623	Subjective well-being refers to individuals' overall assessment of their life quality based on their own personal standards (Diener, 1984, 2000). It includes two basic elements: life satisfaction, or the perception of the quality of one's life, and emotional experience, including positive and negative emotions (Diener, 1984, 2000). Researchers have proposed that SWB comprises three major components: high-level positive emotions, low-level negative emotions, and overall satisfaction with life (Busseri, Sadava, & Decourville, 2007; Diener et al., 1999).	B1 B4
623	The philosophical roots of PWB lie in eudaimonism, which stresses the good state of psychological functions and the fulfillment of personal potential. Ryff and his colleagues (Ryff, 1989a, 1989b; Ryff & Keyes, 1995)	B3

	proposed a six-dimensional model of PWB, involving self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, positive relations with others, environment mastery, and autonomy.	
Pfeffer, J., & Carney, D. R. 2018. The economic evaluation of time can cause stress. <i>Academy of Management Discoveries</i> , 4(1): 74–93.		
75	Evidence suggests the workplace may be among the most prominent sources of stress in our lives. The health website WebMD reported that work stress was the number one source of stress [...].	A1
75	Extensive prior research has identified numerous causes of workplace-induced stress and adverse effects of that stress on health ranging from work-family conflict to economic insecurity to an absence of control. The discovery reported in this article adds another possible source of stress to this list: the economic evaluation of time (EET) – thinking of time like money.	K, A1
75	A review of the literature found that various performance-based pay arrangements such as piece rates were associated with increases in both psychological and physiological stress and called for more study of the effects of various reward systems of stress.	
75	Workplace-induced stress and its effects on health are important for several reasons. First, health-care costs are a significant burden on both society and employers. [...]. Second, research shows that, not surprisingly, employee health affects productivity. And third, people’s health status provides a marker or indicator of how well a social system is functioning. We should, therefore, be concerned about the link between workplace practices and health both because of the demonstrated effect an economic outcomes such as productivity and profit and also because of health is one indicator of and an important cause of well-being.	A1, A2
85	Moreover, constantly thinking of work primarily in terms of its monetary aspects separated people from the non-economic meaning of that work; that is, the intrinsic interest in and sense of accomplishment from doing	L

	something for itself. Consequentially, work might become more stressful because its meaning and purpose would be lost in its close association with an external reinforcer – money.	
Foulk, T. A., Lanaj, K., Tu, M.-H., Erez, A., & Archambeau, L. 2018. Heavy is the head that wears the crown: An actor-centric approach to daily psychological power, abusive leader behavior, and perceived incivility. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 61(2): 661–684.		
662	Beyond these effects on followers, abusive behavior is also harmful to organizations, as companies lose an estimated \$23.8 billion annually in health care costs and productivity reductions related to abuse.	A2
666	It [well-being] is a multidimensional construct, and we focus on two dimensions that are crucial for employees at the day level: daily need fulfillment and relaxation.	B1
666	“ Daily need fulfillment ” is an integral dimension of well-being that assesses actors’ satisfaction of their needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence.	B3, G, B4
667	The other component of well-being investigated in this study is “ relaxation ”, which refers to a state in which employees are free from tension and anxiety. [...] it [relaxation] energizes employees and protects them from stressful experiences.	B2, C, G
667	[...] a relaxed state is defined as low activation with high positive affect.	
667	One type of repetitive thought is worrying , which is defined as “a chain of thoughts and images, negatively affect-laden and relatively uncontrollable” and as “an attempt to engage in mental problem solving on an issue whose outcome is uncertain but contains the possibility of one or more negative outcomes”.	H
675	In addition to implementing accountability structures that prohibit abusive behavior toward followers, organizations may also develop relaxation opportunities for leaders such as midday breaks, opportunities to disengage from work, and mindfulness practices. In addition to improving leader well-being, these practices may promote better self-regulation among leaders, who may then be more mindful when interacting with their	M

	subordinates. For example, recent research shows that mindfulness buffers against negative emotions that link perceptions of injustice to retaliation.	
Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. 2007. The job demands-resources model: State of the art. <i>Journal of Managerial Psychology</i> , 22(3): 309–328.		
309	During the past three decades, many studies have shown that job characteristics can have a profound impact on employee well-being (e.g. job strain, burnout, work engagement). For example, research has revealed that job demands such as a high work pressure, emotional demands, and role ambiguity may lead to sleeping problems, exhaustion, and impaired health (e.g. Doi, 2005; Halbesleben and Buckley, 2004), whereas job resources such as social support, performance feedback, and autonomy may instigate a motivational process leading to job-related learning, work engagement, and organizational commitment	A1, B1
312	At the heart of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker et al., 2003b; c; Demerouti et al., 2001a, b) lies the assumption that whereas every occupation may have its own specific risk factors associated with job stress, these factors can be classified in two general categories (i.e. job demands and job resources), thus constituting an overarching model that may be applied to various occupational settings, irrespective of the particular demands and resources involved. Job demands refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs. Examples are a high work pressure, an unfavorable physical environment, and emotionally demanding interactions with clients. Although job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires high effort from which the employee has not adequately recovered (Meijman and Mulder, 1998).	O H G

	<p>Job resources refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • . Functional in achieving work goals. • . Reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs. • . Stimulate personal growth, learning, and development. 	
313	<p>A second premise of the JD-R model is that two different underlying psychological processes play a role in the development of job strain and motivation (see Figure 1). In the first, health impairment process, poorly designed jobs or chronic job demands (e.g. work overload, emotional demands) exhaust employees' mental and physical resources and may therefore lead to the depletion of energy (i.e. a state of exhaustion) and to health problems (e.g. Demerouti et al., 2000, 2001a, b; Leiter, 1993). [...] The second process proposed by the JD-R model is motivational in nature, whereby it is assumed that job resources have motivational potential and lead to high work engagement, low cynicism, and excellent performance. As follows from our definition, job resources may play either an intrinsic motivational role because they foster employees' growth, learning and development, or they may play an extrinsic motivational role because they are instrumental in achieving work goals.</p>	O
314	<p>For instance, supportive colleagues and proper feedback from one's superior increase the likelihood of being successful in achieving one's work goals. In either case, be it through the satisfaction of basic needs or through the achievement of work goals, the presence of job resources leads to engagement, whereas their absence evokes a cynical attitude towards work.</p>	A1 B2, B4 B3
<p>Eisenberger, R., Rhoades Shanock, L., & Wen, X. 2019. Perceived organizational support: Why caring about employees counts. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i>, 7: 101–124.</p>		

102	Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to employees' perception that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being.	G
102	Research on POS has been widespread because of its clear antecedents and major consequences, including favorable employee attitudes, performance, and well-being.	A1
103	Self-enhancement processes involve POS's fulfillment of employees' socioemotional needs: High POS may fulfill needs for approval, esteem, emotional support, affiliation, etc., resulting in employee identification with the organization. Employees who identify with the organization may, in turn, develop similar values to the organization, resulting in affective organizational commitment (Meyer et al. 2006).	A1
116	Work stressors refer to conditions of the work environment (e.g., task stressors, physical stressors, role stressors, social stressors) that may lead to negative consequences for employees (Sonnentag & Frese 2003, Sonnentag & Fritz 2015). The negative consequences of such stressors are often referred to as " strain ," which include affective, physical or behavioral reactions to stress (Sonnentag & Frese 2003).	H H
Maitlis, S. 2020. Posttraumatic growth at work. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 7: 395–419.		
398	[...] well-being [...] is an inherently subjective experience, and attempting to assess it in some objective sense is therefore problematic.	B1
399	Thriving has been defined as "the psychological state in which individuals experience both a sense of vitality and a sense of learning" (Spreitzer et al. 2005, p. 538).	G
399	As with thriving, flourishing is a broader term associated with well-being. Flourishing individuals are "filled with emotional vitality ... functioning positively in the private and social realms of their lives" (Keyes & Haidt 2003, p. 6)	G

399	Thriving, flourishing, and posttraumatic growth all involve individuals' positive functioning at a level beyond normal expectations.	B1
Zapf, D., Kern, M., Tschan, F., Holman, D., & Semmer, N. K. 2021. Emotion work: A work psychology perspective. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 8: 139–172.		
139	Emotion work , the management of feelings and emotional displays in response to emotion work requirements, [...].	G, H
Methot, J. R., Rosado-Solomon, E. H., Downes, P. E., & Gabriel, A. S. 2021. Office chitchat as a social ritual: The uplifting yet distracting effects of daily small talk at work. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 64(5): 1445–1471.		
1445	[...] results show that small talk enhanced employees' daily positive social emotions at work, which heightened organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) and enhanced well-being at the end of the workday; [...]	B1, N
1449	Specifically, we theorize that small talk generates positive social emotions (an emotion-based mechanism) by fulfilling individuals' daily intrinsic needs for social cohesiveness, mutual recognition, and belongingness (Coupland et al., 1992)	N
1450	[...] well-being is a person's affective state [...].	B1
Sawyer, K. B., & Clair, J. A. 2022. Hope cultures in organizations: Tackling the grand challenge of commercial sex exploitation. <i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i> , 67(2): 289–338.		
292	When a hope culture is stronger, organizations will remain more vibrantly in pursuit of a grand challenge – eudaimonic well-being flourishes, and the organization will ambitiously pursue its goals.	N
306	Collective eudaimonic well-being = The level of energy and vitality versus exhaustion and lifelessness present in the organization.	B1, B3

310	[...] what Ryan and Deci (2001) referred to as “eudaimonic” well-being or the feeling of being energized and vital (as opposed to “hedonic” well-being, which entails avoiding pain and enhancing pleasure).	B1, B3, B2
323	As a hope culture grows in strength, we propose vitality will take the form of members experiencing a deeper sense of well-being, such as greater confidence about actualizing meaningful goals associated with a grand challenge and an enhanced sense of control in navigating organizational pathways to do so.	M
Kensbock, J. M., Alkærstig, L., & Lomberg, C. 2022. The epidemic of mental disorders in business – How depression, Anxiety, and stress spread across organizations through employee mobility. <i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i> , 67(1): 1–48.		
2	A mental disorder is “a major disturbance in an individual’s thinking, feelings, or behavior” that causes problems “in social, work, or family activities” (APA, 2015).	H
2	[...] clinical manifestations of mental disorders are among the most frequent causes of long-term sickness absence (Mittendorfer-Rutz et al., 2012; Suzuki et al., 2015) and work disability (Mathers and Loncar, 2006; Vos et al., 2012). Reducing the occurrence of mental disorders and fostering individual health and well-being should be not only societal and political goals but also key management objectives (Chisholm et al., 2016; George et al., 2016).	A1
26/27	Our study aimed to establish a new way of seeing mental disorders in business: as phenomena that spread cross-organizationally and thus are more pervasive, enduring, and complex than previously thought. By looking at mental disorders through an infectious disease epidemiology lens, we help explain transmission within and across organizations.	A1
Sonnentag, S., Cheng, B. H., & Parker, S. L. 2022. Recovery from work: Advancing the field toward the future. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 9: 33–60.		

34	In the organizational literature, recovery refers to “unwinding and restoration processes during which a person’s strain level that has increased as a reaction to a stressor or any other demand returns to its prestressor level” (Sonnentag et al. 2017, p. 366)	G
37	Research on the short-term outcomes of recovery activities and experiences has addressed a broad range of well-being indicators and affective states, including overall well-being assessments and more specific states such as high-arousal positive affect (e.g., feeling active, energetic, and vigorous), low-arousal positive affect (e.g., feeling serene, calm, and relaxed), high-arousal negative affect (e.g., feeling tense, anxious, and irritated), and low-arousal negative affect (e.g., feeling tired, exhausted, and depressed).	B1 Q
39	To sum up, day-level research demonstrated that recovery activities and experiences have benefits for well-being and favorable affective states as well as motivation and performance.	A1
41	For instance, high levels of work-related exhaustion and low levels of vigor predicted a decrease in physical leisure activities over 12 months (de Vries et al. 2016).	L
42	With respect to recovery experiences, Schulz et al. (2021) reported that a high level of exhaustion was associated with a decrease in psychological detachment from work six months later.	L
42	[...] (Sianoja et al. 2018a, Sonnentag et al. 2010), suggesting that additional factors such as personality or chronic job stressors may matter as well.	F
Tost, L. P., Hardin, A. E., Roberson, J. W., & Gino F. 2022. Different roots, different fruits: Gender-based differences in cultural narratives about perceived discrimination produce divergent psychological consequences. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 65(6): 1804–1834.		
1810	Self-efficacy , which refers to an individual’s sense that he or she has the ability to perform well in a given job function, [...] (Bandura, 1986; Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Bentancourt, & Hooker, 1994).	G
Ong, W. J., & Johnson, M. D. 2023. Toward a configural theory of job demands and resources. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 66(1): 195–		

221.		
195	In particular, the job demands–resources (JDR) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) has been extensively used to explore the antecedents and mechanisms producing two key outcomes: exhaustion and engagement. Conceptually, job demands should show positive associations with exhaustion and negative associations with engagement because job demands require sustained effort and impose physiological or psychological costs. Similarly, job resources should be negatively and positively associated with exhaustion and engagement, respectively, because they motivate employees and reduce physiological and psychological costs.	O
205	Personality traits such as extraversion and neuroticism may be important, as they are associated with trait affectivity (Costa & McCrae, 1980) and can thus affect how stressors and strains are perceived (Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998). In addition, these traits can lead to self-selection into specific types of jobs that may be differentially associated with well-being (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013; Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000).	F
Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E., & Sanz-Vergel, A. I. 2023. Job demands-resources theory: Ten years later. <i>Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior</i> , 10: 25–53.		
26	[...] many colleagues are actively trying to understand, explain, and influence burnout and work engagement and that job demands-resources (JD-R) theory offers valuable knowledge and means for doing so.	O
26	The academic debate on what constitutes burnout has uncovered at least two further issues (Demerouti et al. 2021a) First, the instruments used to measure burnout have not been developed for diagnostic purpose. Thus, differentiating between mild burnout symptoms (i.e., those potentially at risk) and clinical burnout is difficult. Second, the overlap between burnout and depression is very high; Bianchi et al. (2021) found a meta-analytic correlation of $r = 0.80$. This means that distinguishing between both concepts is difficult.	O

27	Moreover, while job satisfaction reflects hedonic work-related well-being connoting pleasure but also satiation and calmness, work engagement reflects eudemonic work-related well-being connoting pleasure but also high activation – including enthusiasm, excitement, and energy (Tummers et al. 2018).	B1, B2, B3
27 37	Research has shown that situational as well as individual factors contribute to burnout. Over the years, several scholars have tried to incorporate personality into JD-R theory. As we discuss above, these studies have suggested that the Big Five personality factors influence the perception and evaluation of job demands and resources and may have direct and indirect effects on employee well-being (e.g., Borst & Knies 2021, Mäkikangas et al. 2013).	F
28	Swider & Zimmerman (2010) argued that neurotic employees would be more prone to experience burnout because they tend to focus on the negative aspects of a situation and often recall negative information about a situation afterward.	P
32	In short, the theory explains how job demands and resources influence job performance through employee well-being (including burnout and work engagement) and how employees use proactive as well as reactive work behaviors to influence job demands and resources (Bakker & Demerouti 2017, Bakker et al. 2014).	O
35	They defined job crafting as employees' personal initiative to change their job demands and job resources to better align the design of the job with their own abilities and preferences.	G
37	What is different from the original version of the JD-R theory is that personality is proposed to moderate the daily effects of job demands and resources on well-being outcomes.	O
38	An important proposition of the multilevel version of the JD-R theory (Bakker 2015; see Figure 2) is the idea that relatively stable or chronic levels of well-being or ill-being may also influence how employees deal with job demands and resources. [...] general well-being is hypothesized to moderate the impact of daily job resources on	O

	work engagement and job crafting such that the effects are more strongly positive when well-being (e.g., overall work engagement, overall vitality) is higher (Bakker & Oerlemans 2016).	
42	First, organizations and their human resource departments may want to use human resource practices that improve job demands and resources, including open communication and information sharing, initiatives to improve work-life balance, and opportunities for learning and development.	N
43	Second, organizations may want to improve their psychosocial work climate.	
43	A third practical implication of JD-R theory is that organizations need to constantly monitor and optimize the design of their jobs.	
43	Fourth, leaders may learn to facilitate the right job demands and resources or may directly encourage employee proactive work behaviors (including job crafting, proactive vitality management, and playful work design) (Tummers & Bakker 2021).	
43	Fifth, individual-level interventions may take the form of tailored JD-R interventions, idiosyncratic deals, and job crafting and recovery trainings.	
44	[...] studies have shown that employees report more burnout symptoms (fatigue and cynicism) and lower work engagement on the days on which they are exposed to high job demands and/or low job resources.	O
Halbesleben, J. R. B., Neveu, J.-P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. 2014. Getting to the “COR”: Understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 40(5): 1334–1364.		
1335	Proposed as a theory of motivation, the basic tenet of COR theory is that humans are motivated to protect their current resources and acquire new resources.	R
1335	Resources are loosely defined as objects, states, conditions, and other things that people value (Hobfoll, 1988). The value of resources varies among individuals and is tied to their personal experiences and situations.	G F

1337	[...] a common criticism of the theory: that nearly anything good can be considered a resource (Gorgievski, Halbesleben, & Bakker, 2011; Halbesleben & Wheeler, in press; Thompson & Cooper, 2001).	
1338	We define resources as anything perceived by the individual to help attain his or her goals.	G
1339	Though a goal-based definition of resources remains necessarily vague due to its dependence on understanding of an individual's goals, it helps clarify the notion of value that led to much of the concern with previous conceptualizations of resources.	F
1335	From the basic tenet of conservation and acquisition emerge several principles of the theory. The first is the primacy of resource loss – the idea that it is psychologically more harmful for individuals to lose resources than it is helpful for them to gain the resources that they lost. [...] It suggests that losses at work will have more impact than similarly valued gains [...]. [...] However, this tenet has a motivational element as well, suggesting that individuals will engage in behaviors that avoid resource losses since loss can have such a profound negative impact on well-being.	R P
1336	As an extension of the conservation tenet, the second principle is resource investment. People invest resources in order to protect against resource loss, to recover from losses, and to gain resources (Hobfoll, 2001a).	
1340	Their work suggests that in order to define “value,” one must consider both cultural/societal and personal value. If one is to invest resources, they must have some shared value within society or they cannot yield returns on investment.	F
1353	Another recent strategy has been to measure outcomes of resource loss or gain, for example, emotional exhaustion and engagement, as markers that there has been a change in resources (e.g., Halbesleben et al., 2013; Janssen, Lam, & Huang, 2010; Lam, Huang, & Janssen, 2010). [...] The disadvantage of this approach is that changes in resources are assumed, and it is not clear which resources are responsible for the change.	R (O)

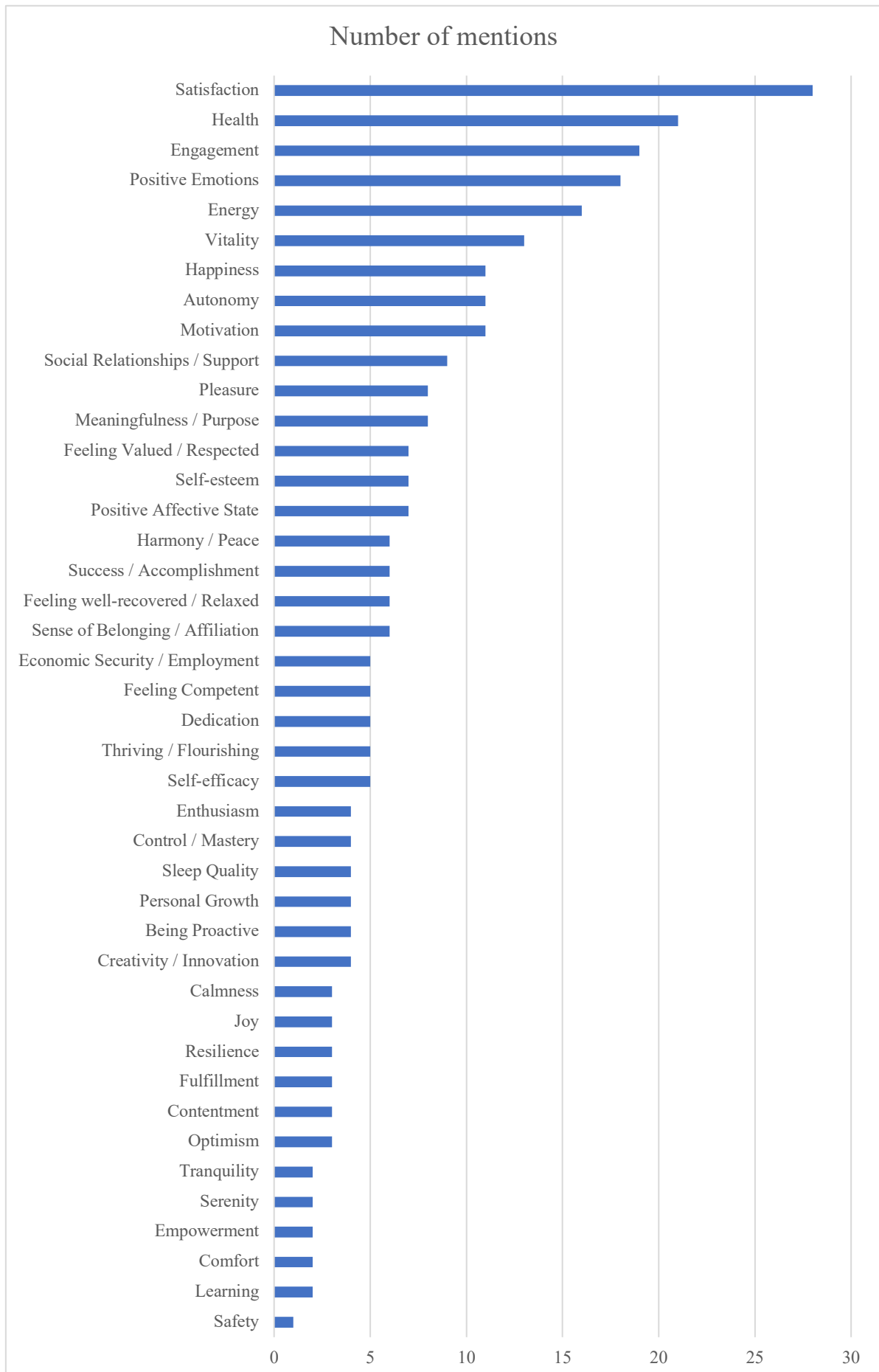
Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. 2008. Early predictors of job burnout and engagement. <i>American Psychology Association</i> , 93(3): 498–512.		
498	Job stress has been recognized as a significant occupational hazard that can impair physical health, psychological well-being, and work performance (see Kahn & Byosiere, 1992; Sauter & Murphy, 1995).	
498	<p>People’s psychological relationships to their jobs have been conceptualized as a continuum between the negative experience of burnout and the positive experience of engagement. There are three interrelated dimensions to this continuum: exhaustion–energy, cynicism–involvement, and inefficacy–efficacy (Leiter & Maslach, 2005). The initial research focused just on burnout, establishing it as a psychological syndrome that involves a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job (Maslach & Jackson, 1981b). The exhaustion component represents the basic individual strain dimension of burnout. It refers to feelings of being overextended and depleted of one’s emotional and physical resources. The cynicism (or depersonalization) component represents the interpersonal context dimension of burnout and refers to a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to various aspects of the job. The component of inefficacy (or reduced accomplishment) represents the self-evaluation dimension of burnout and refers to feelings of incompetence and a lack of achievement and productivity in work. The significance of this three-dimensional model is that it clearly places the individual strain experience within the social context of the workplace and involves the person’s conception of both self and others (Maslach, 1993). Research on burnout uses the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) to assess these three dimensions (Maslach & Jackson, 1981a; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). More recently, research has focused on the positive opposite of these three dimensions and labeled it as job engagement. Specifically, engagement has been defined as an energetic state of involvement with personally fulfilling activities that enhance one’s sense of professional efficacy (Leiter & Maslach, 1998).</p>	<p>O</p> <p>H</p> <p>H</p> <p>H</p> <p>G</p>

499, 500	Several personality traits have also been studied in an attempt to discover which types of people may be at greater risk for experiencing burnout. As with demographic variables, there have been some suggestive trends, but the only consistent findings have come from research on the Big Five personality dimensions, which has found a link between burnout and the dimension of Neuroticism (Deary et al., 1996; Hills & Norvell, 1991; Zellars, Perrewe, & Hochwarter, 2000). Neurotic individuals are emotionally unstable and prone to psychological distress, so this personality correlate of burnout makes theoretical sense.	F H
55	In contrast to the relative dearth of significant individual variables, many organizational risk factors have been identified in research across many occupations (see reviews by Maslach & Leiter, 2005; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). These factors can be summarized within six key domains of the workplace environment: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values.	E

Appendix 2, Evaluation of Well-Being and Unwell-Being

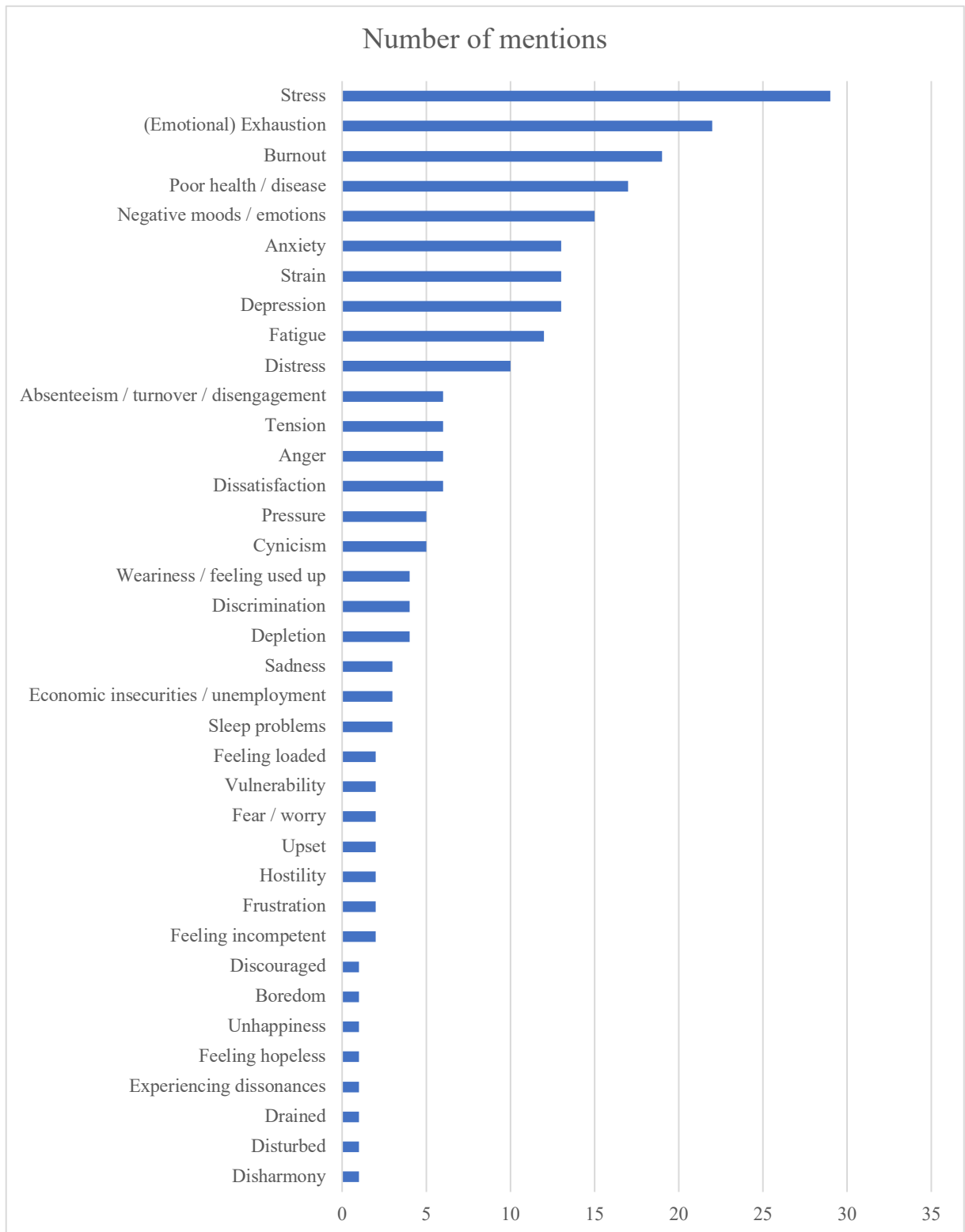
Well-being:

Term	H / E	Cat.	Nr.
Satisfaction	H	E	28
Health	H & E	P	21
Engagement	E	E	19
Positive emotions	H	P, E	18
Energy	H	P, E	16
Vitality	H	P	13
Autonomy	E	E	11
Happiness	H & E	E	11
Motivation	E	E	11
Social Relationships / Support	E	E	9
Meaningfulness / Purpose	E	E	8
Pleasure / Pleasant Mood	H	E	8
Self-Esteem	E	E	7
Feeling Valued / Respected	E	E	7
Positive Affective State	H	E	7
Feeling Well-Recovered / Relaxed	H	P, (E)	6
Success / Accomplishment	H & E	F	6
Harmony / Peace	E	E	6
Sense of belonging / affiliation	E	E	6
Feeling Competent	E	E	5
Economic Security / Employment	H & E	F	5
Thriving / Flourishing	E	E, (P)	5
Dedication	E	E	5
Being proactive	E	P	4
Personal Growth	E	E	4
Sleep Quality	H & E	P	4
Control / Mastery	E	E	4
Enthusiasm	H	E	4
Creativity / Innovation	E	E, P	4
Contentment	H	E	3
Fulfillment	E	E	3
Self-Efficacy	E	E	3
Resilience	E	E	3
Joy	H	E	3
Calmness	H & E	E	3
Learning	E	E	2
Comfort	H	E	2
Empowerment	E	E	2
Optimism	H	E	2
Serenity	H	E	2
Tranquility	H	E	2
Safety	H & E	P, F, E	1



Unwell-being:

Term	H / E	Cat.	Nr.
Stress	H	E	29
(Emotional) Exhaustion	H	E	22
Burnout	H	E	19
Poor Health / Disease	H & E	P	17
Negative Moods / Emotions	H	E	15
Anxiety	H	E	13
Depression	H	E	13
Strain	H	E	13
Fatigue	H	E, P	12
Distress	H	E	10
Anger	H	E	6
Tension	H	E	6
Absenteeism / Turnover / Disengagement	E	P, E	6
Dissatisfaction	H	E	6
Cynicism	H	E	5
Pressure	H	E	5
Depletion	H	E	4
Discrimination	H	E	4
Weariness / Feeling Used Up	H	E	4
Economic Insecurities / Unemployment	H	F	3
Sadness	H	E	3
Sleep problems	H	P	3
Frustration	H	E	2
Hostility	H	E	2
Upset	H	E	2
Fear / Worry	H	E	2
Vulnerability	H	E, P	2
Feeling incompetent	E	E	2
Feeling Loaded	H	E	2
Disharmony	E	E	1
Disturbed	H	E	1
Drained	H	E	1
Experiencing Dissonances	H	E	1
Feeling Hopeless	H	E	1
Unhappiness	H	E	1
Boredom	H	E	1
Discouraged	H	E	1



➔ Out of 48 journals and books

Key:

H/E = Hedonic/Eudaimonic

Cat. = Category

P/E/F = Physical/Emotional/Financial

Nr. = Number of mentions