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Leading towards well-being: exploring organizational climate, leadership and individual factors that relate to thriving at work

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LEADING TOWARDS WELL-BEING: EXPLORING ORGANIZATIONAL

CLIMATE, LEADERSHIPAND INDIVIDUAL FACTORS THAT

RELATE TO THRIVING AT WORK

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by

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This dissertation, written by

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family for their love, patience and support through this entire journey. I could never say in words how much I love you or how blessed you make me feel every day. I want to especially thank my husband Bob who had enough confidence in me for the both of us to see me through to the end of this journey and providing enduring encouragement to take on this challenge in the beginning and sustaining his above and beyond support throughout this incredibly full and yet amazing time. I never could have done any of this without you. You have earned "Dr. Geiger" along with me. Kate and Thomas, you are the most wonderful, loving, thoughtful and inspiring people, and I am so proud to be your mom. I love you. This is dedicated to you.

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VITA

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ABSTRACT

Positive organizational outcomes are associated with fostering thriving well-being as new research shows thriving is tied to higher levels of engagement, innovation, reduced turnover and health care costs, higher affective commitment, productivity, and resiliency to change and burnout. A review of the relevant literature assesses connections in organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors related to resilience and thriving at work. This quantitative correlation study explores the relationship between these factors to assess which organizational, leadership, and individual factors correlate to employee engagement, commitment, resilience, and thriving at work. The findings contribute to understanding what influences human thriving and relatedly sustainability at the individual and organizational level and helps reduce the gap in the literature on ways organizational leaders can foster thriving at work.

A sample of 163 employees from 4 companies responded to a survey on organizational climate and leadership factors related to well-being and their relationship to levels of engagement, commitment, resilience, and thriving at work. In summary, fostering a sense of belonging-inclusion, meaning-purpose, growth-mastery, flexibility-autonomy, impact-engagement and commitment-enrichment at work all relate to well-being based on the literature and were found to positively correlate to thriving at work in this study. Further, individual factors that relate to thriving include intrinsic resilience factors self-efficacy and cognitive-affective mindfulness. Lastly, leaders creating an organizational climate of well-being that fosters a sense of belonging-inclusion, meaning-purpose, growth-mastery and flexibility-autonomy collectively relate to creating a sense of impact-engagement, commitment-enrichment and thriving at work.

Chapter 1: The Problem

Introduction

In uncertain economic times with turbulent changes in technology and increasing, dynamic global competition, many organizational leaders are trying to meet challenges through doing more with less for economic sustainability, though as Pfeffer (2010) noted, considerably less focus has been placed on the people side of sustainability compared with the research on sustainability related to the environment and economic landscape. This research study involved exploring organizational, leadership, and individual factors associated with thriving, a combination of energy and learning, as new research shows thriving has ties to higher levels of engagement, innovation, reduced turnover and health care costs, higher affective commitment, productivity, resiliency to change, and well-being (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2008; Porath, Spreitzer, Gibson, & Garnett, 2012; Rath & Harter, 2010a).

Several authors have defined well-being. Rath and Harter (2010a) took a whole-person approach that included five interrelated elements of well-being: career, social, physical, financial, and community. Each element has a critical impact and interrelates with a person's overall well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010a). Waterman (1993) referred to the state of well-being as personal expressiveness associated with a set of feelings indicating someone is intensely alive and authentic. In this study, well-being was viewed through the lens of Ryan and Deci's (2000, 2001) self-determination theory (SDT) on intrinsic need satisfaction and its relationship to well-being, which may also enable thriving at work (Spreitzer & Porath, 2012). Individual factors were also reviewed to understand whether personal level of resilience relates to thriving. Resilience was

operationally defined in this study as Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) theory of general self-efficacy and Feldman, Hayes, Kumar, Greeson, and Laurenceau's (2007) model of cognitive-affective mindfulness, which includes attention, present focus, awareness, and acceptance. Spreitzer and Porath (forthcoming) noted thriving brings out a feeling of being fully alive, where one grows both psychologically and physically, and proposed thriving is enhanced by the nutriments of SDT, including learning and vitality as contributing to human growth. The focus of this study was vitality and growth that may contribute to well-being at work. Spreitzer et al. (2005, p. 538) noted thriving is similar to medical biomarkers, which are indicators used to measure the effects or progress of health or ailments over time, as learning as well as vitality are indicators of thriving over time. Thriving is an engaged state of personal growth encompassing both vitality, the sense of being energized (Nix, Ryan, Manly, & Deci, 1999), as the affective dimension, and learning, described as acquiring, and applying knowledge and skills to build competence or mastery (Edmondson, 1999) as the cognitive dimension of thriving (Spreitzer & Porath, forthcoming).

This study also involved exploring the relationship between employee thriving and organizational climate factors based on de Vries's (2001) factors that relate to a healthy climate, Ryan and Deci's (2000, 2001) research on intrinsic need satisfaction, and Cameron et al.'s (2003) research on positive meaning through work. The correlational study assessed relationships between organizational climate; leadership; and individual factors such as engagement, commitment, and resilience and their relationship to thriving among participating employees at four companies, including a small, medium and large manufacturing organization and small service organization with the goal of achieving at

least 118 responses. Demographic factors such as age, gender, years of service, and level in organization were controlled as potential variables that might have affected the outcomes of these correlations.

This study contributes to the research on what organizational climate and leadership characteristics contribute to well-being and thriving at work and relatedly to engagement and commitment. This research is important, as indicators have shown that low engagement and commitment can lead to organizational costs from decreased productivity and the turnover of key leaders and employees, which contributes to high replacement and training costs (Rath & Harter, 2010a). Further, low levels of thriving at work can relate to higher health care costs, burnout, reduced performance, decreased innovation, lower productivity and higher stress over time (Rath & Harter, 2010a; Spreitzer & Porath, 2012).

Porath et al. (2012) conducted new research showing that thriving, a combination of vitality plus learning, is a means to sustain an organization's human resources and is also a key mechanism impacting an organization's performance and health care costs as thriving employees are stronger performers, more proactive, resilient, committed, and healthy. Porath et al.'s research and other related studies indicated that organizational leaders may affect the thriving capacities of their team members by crafting their roles, taking into account intrinsic needs, passions, and strengths as well as alignment between the organization's broader purpose and values with what is meaningful to individuals (de Vries, 2011; Porath et al., 2011; Wrzesniewski, Berg, & Dutton, 2010). In a time of low engagement, high susceptibility of burnout, and employees striving to do more with less, compounded with the national crisis of rising health care costs, stress, and depression

(Cameron et al., 2003; Ryff & Singer, 1998; Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005), it is imperative to uncover more about what factors contribute to thriving, well-being, and resilience. This knowledge may help to uncover intrinsic factors that impact human and organizational sustainability.

Background of the Problem

Spreitzer, Porath, and Gibson (2012) established the problems associated with lack of human and organizational sustainability are great, as they cited the American Psychological Association's (APA) 2010 Stress in America survey noting approximately 75% of U.S. citizens may be at risk for chronic disease, including heart disease, depression, and diabetes due to elevated stress levels. Anderson (1998) describes stress as feeling worried, overwhelmed, or run-down, which may lead to both chronic health issues over time.   Relatedly Baum and Polsusnzy (1999) discussed how chronic or untreated stress can negatively affect the immune, nervous and cardiovascular systems that may induce symptoms experienced such as insomnia, muscle pain, anxiety, high blood pressure and a less effective immune system.

In the 2012 Stress in America Survey 35% of respondents said their stress had increased in the last year (APA, 2013), while in 2011, 44% had indicated an increase in stress over the previous five years (APA, 2012). Additionally, 94% of U.S. citizens said cited stress as contributing to the development of chronic disease (APA, 2012). While more than two-thirds of respondents say they are not doing a very good job at handling or being able to reduce their own stress levels (APA, 2012, pp. 15). Over 50% of adults reported stress is the source of health problems, up 47% from 2009 (APA, 2012). Women cited higher levels of stress in their self-report than did men, as they have since the

survey began in 2006. Americans are twice as likely to report increased stress (39%), rather than decreased (17%) stress levels over the past year. In considering age demographics, Generation X, or those born approximately between 1966 – 1975 (Ulrich, 2003), had the highest differential of stress, though Millenials, also known as Generation Y, or those born in the latter 1970's through early 90's, (Price & Kass, 2006), reported the highest stress experienced and reported in 5 years (APA, 2012). Seventy-seven percent of Generation X respondents, 72% of Millenials, and 64% of Baby Boomers, those born between 1946-1965 (Owram, 1997) cite work as one of the top sources of stress (APA, 2012). Relatedly, fewer people reported satisfaction with both their job and work-life balance compared with the previous year's survey (APA, 2013).

Spreitzer et al. (2012) established that thriving employees counter stress and burnout more effectively and are healthier overall; organizational benefits of fostering an environment where employees thrive create a competitive advantage. Spreitzer et al. (2012) cited the editor of *Fortune*, Geoffrey Colvin, who noted in a tight market for talent, for the first time in 500 years, it is not financial but human capital that is the most valuable resource. Having a thriving population and thriving organizations enable healthy, high-performing, and engaged teams (Spreitzer et al., 2012).

Spreitzer et al. (2012) warned that according to organizations that monitor talent demographics, including the Conference Board, U.S. Census Bureau, and others that the data indicated a labor shortage is pending, and therefore one should be proactive in attracting and retaining needed employees with the talent and knowledge organizational leaders need to create a climate that enables people to thrive at work. In a time of low

engagement, based on Gallup's research, 71% of employees are disengaged, and less than 20% are flourishing at work (Spreitzer et al., 2012).

Work is viewed as both a place and a verb that enables people to gain a sense of being fully alive and vital, to grow and get better every day (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Positive organizational scholarship (POS) scholars and positive organization behavior (POB) scholars have called for organizational leaders to create work environments that nurture the vitality and learning that enable thriving, enhance engagement, reduce health care costs and thereby enhance sustainable economic, environmental, and human performance (Bono, Davies & Rasch, 2011; Cameron et al., 2008; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Spreitzer et al., 2012). Additionally, the most recent dimension of human resource development (HRD) literature incorporates not only learning and performance but also work-life integration (Polach, 2003).

Since the early 1970's the World Health Organization's (WHOs) global research has demonstrated the workplace contributes to "psychosocial hazards" (J. Burton, 2009, p. 78), which are factors that affect the well-being of the workforce due to psychological and social conditions of the workplace that harm the mental and physical health of workers, also known as work stressors (J. Burton, 2009). Loeppke et al. (2007) reported that the cost of productivity related to health was more than four times higher than direct medical and prescription drug costs, whereas Goetzel et al. (2004) found that the costs related to presenteeism were greater than direct medical or health claims, accounting for approximately 20-60% of the total impact (J. Burton, 2009).

Karasek and Theorell's (1990) discussion of demand/control and effort/reward indicated that certain job factors, specifically high demand and low control or decision latitude, greatly increased the risk for various mental and physical health ailments, including anxiety and depression. Siegrist (1996) developed a model showing that the mental concentration needed for work tasks that were viewed as unfair or do not equitably compare to the rewards earned, including recognition, appreciation, respect, and financial, was linked to a variety of mental and physical problems. As Pink's (2009) synthesis of the literature on extrinsic incentives and the opposite effect they have on performance and outcomes showed, these efforts tend to suppress intrinsic motivation that relates to engagement, creativity, innovation, higher performance, and lower turnover.

J. Burton (2009) summarized a population-based study that found men who have low control over their jobs yet high demand or job insecurity concerns experienced greater risk for major depression at a higher rate. J. Burton also indicated women with low control and high demand had minor depression indicators, though work and family conflict or lack of work-life fit was most associated with mental disorders for men and women. J. Burton (2009) also noted Mayo Clinic's (2011) statement that burnout is more probable for people with little or no control over work.

J. Burton (2009) summarized Health Canada's research concluding that demand, control, effort, and reward can double or triple the risk of a mood disorder like depression or anxiety. Shain's (2009) research summarizing Canada's Mental Health Commission showed a large percentage of mental illness, estimated to be approximately 10% to 25%

depending on the characteristics of the workplace, is a result of organization work factors (J. Burton, 2009).

In the review of the literature, J. Burton (2009) found employers who foster psychological well-being experience higher performance and productivity through strong engagement and more competitiveness in attracting and retaining key talent, while also impacting the bottom line through cost savings associated with workplace psychosocial or health and well-being initiatives. This is important as J. Burton's (2009) reported on Kelloway and Day's (2005) literature review on how work impacts health, which indicates there is solid scientific evidence that mental health is negatively impacted by overwork; role stressors such as conflict, ambiguity, and inter-role conflict; working nights and overtime; poor quality leadership; aggression in the workplace such as harassment and bullying; and perceived lack of job control.

The WHOs area of worker health that has received significant attention in recent years due to the demographic shifts in the workforce is the focus on work–life balance or work–family conflict. J. Burton (2009) indicated there are four major areas of work–family conflict that all have varying effects on employee health, organizational health, families, and society. The four broad areas are role overload, caregiver strain, work–life interference, and life–work interference. Duxbury, Higgins, and Lyons (2001) found employees with overload in their roles are:

> thirteen times more likely to be considering leaving their current employer . . . three times more likely to report high levels of depressed mood, say they are in poor physical health, and seek mental health care . . . three times more likely to say their values are not aligned with their organization, which contributes to their high retention risk . . . [and] half as likely to report high levels of job satisfaction, to have a positive view of their employer, and to report high levels of life satisfaction. (pp. 14-15)

Duxbury et al. (2001) also found in their research that employees who have high

work–family interference or poor work–life fit were:

> seven times more likely to say they are thinking of leaving their organization
> . . . six times more likely to report high levels of job stress and burnout . . .
> four times more likely to say their organization is non-supportive and their
> values are not aligned with those of their organization . . . twice as likely to
> report high levels of depressed mood and poor health . . . twice as likely to
> have missed work due to physical, emotional, or mental fatigue; to have
> sought care from a mental health professional . . . to have received care on an
> outpatient basis; to have made six or more visits per year to a physician; to
> have required inpatient hospital care . . . to have visited a hospital emergency
> room; and to have spent more in the past year on prescription medicine for
> personal use . . . half as likely to report high levels of family satisfaction,
> parental satisfaction, and life satisfaction . . . [and] half as likely to have a
> positive view of their organization as an employer and to report organizational
> commitment. (pp. 15-18)

Although the research was conducted in Canada, it may well apply to most

developed countries (J. Burton, 2009). Benach, Muntaner, and Santana (2007) have

shown that self-perceived job insecurity may be the top predictor of a number of mental

health conditions, including minor depression, especially in cases of chronic job

insecurity. Although even those exposed to chronic job insecurity regain some degree of

job security, the psychological effects are not always fully reversed upon removal of the

threat. Given the uncertain economic conditions of the past decade, it is not surprising

this type of risk has increased. J. Burton (2009) discussed indicators that when

businesses adopt policies and programs to address psychological health and safety, their

psychological health care costs were 15-33% lower than those who did not.

In an effort to reduce psychosocial risks in workplaces in the United Kingdom,

researchers conducted a literature review and found six factors that impact mental health,

including high job demand and low control – low autonomy in work or support for

autonomy; low organizational support or resources provided; relationships – not

addressing unacceptable and uncooperative behavior at work; roles with inherent conflict and lack of understanding or unclear expectations about the role; and poorly managed change or communication regarding change (Health and Safety Executive, n.d.)

The Canadian Centre for Occupational Health and Safety (2010) discussed the mental well-being effects of working shiftwork are increased levels of anxiety, depression, work–family conflict, and social isolation. Researchers at the European Agency for Health and Safety at Work have studied the economic benefits of safety and health promotion in small and medium-sized businesses and found that effective occupational health and safety measures can help improve business performance. Small to mid-size organizations are particularly vulnerable, because the relative impact of a serious accident is greater than with a larger enterprise, and 60% of small to mid-size businesses that have a disruption lasting more than 9 days go out of business (Gervais et al., 2009).

In the U.S. context, Wright and Cropanzano (2004) found that emotional exhaustion related to stress was associated with both performance and turnover. More recently, Mirza (2012) reported workplace stress hit a 3-year high based on claims data that impact not only health care costs but also productivity and needed leave of absences from work. Mirza discussed evidence that employees are experiencing high levels of workplace stress and mental breakdowns and that the requirement of interventional help is occurring at higher rates than employee assistance providers have seen in years. Mirza indicated a management referral and a fitness-for-duty evaluation, which are conducted after a worker shows signs of extreme stress or a breakdown of emotional well-being, increased 120% from 2008 to 2012, according to Harris, Rothenberg International, a

provider of employee assistance program services (Mirza, 2012). Mirza noted employees

experiencing conflict at work and not being able to calm down demonstrates stress is

affecting people in intense ways. Mirza contended that employees suffering from stress

may not focus enough on self-care as their concern and caring for their families, doing

well on the job, and keeping up with their commitments lead to exhaustion and burnout.

Over time, these factors combined may set off what Goleman (2008) referred to

as chronic amygdala hijack, which is a descriptor for when the brain's radar for threat

goes off as a survival tool, impacting the prefrontal cortex in the brain. When this occurs,

Goleman (2011) noted it affects effectiveness and engagement at work, such as learning,

being innovative, and being able to adapt to change effectively. A substantial connection

exists between mindfulness practices and reducing stress through the brain–soma

connection, as neuroscientists have been able to chart the neural pathways that connect

thoughts and emotions to physiology (Stahl & Goldstein, 2010). When the body

experiences stress, hormones, cortisol, and neurotransmitters, including epinephrine and

norepinephrine, create physiological responses (Stahl & Goldstein, 2010). Goleman

(2011) describes this experience as an amygdala hijack set off by stress, triggering the

flight, fight or freeze response, based on what may be considered symbolic dangers or

perceived threats to egos. Similarly, Rock (2011) describes the threat response that is

triggered in the brain when there is a perceived threat to status. The brain's response is to

flood the body with stress hormones, which may cause overreaction to situations people

would react to calmly in their natural state (Goleman, 2011). In a work setting, Goleman

(2011) described the top five amygdala triggers as (a) atmospheres of condescension and

lack of respect; (b) unfair treatment; (c) not being appreciated; (d) not being listened to or being ignored; and (e) being accountable for unrealistic deadlines.

The ongoing dynamic of the unpredictable economy may impact job security, relationships, financial concerns, and ongoing demands in work life due to organizations doing more with less. The stress from these factors is compounded by increased home life demands due to shifting demographics and dual-income households that may, over time, create ongoing or chronic, low-grade amygdala hijack (Goleman, 2011). A review of the literature includes a discussion on how to mediate stress inducers that affect thriving at work by creating an organizational climate of well-being, including supportive leadership and intrinsic need satisfaction that positively impact employee well-being and thriving at work.

Purpose and Importance of Study

At a time when engagement is low and the rising cost of stress-related illness, mental health, burnout, and relatedly health care is unsustainable, organizational leaders are interested in what factors they might influence to curb these trends for the sustainability of their organizations. As technology and a fast-paced, dynamic global economy make it difficult for people to slow down, and as many organizations continually strive to do more with less, understanding what factors might counter burnout and what contributes to individual and organizational thriving is critical for sustainable performance over time (Rath & Harter, 2010).

Porath et al. (2012) found that thriving employees in six firms performed 16% more effectively than those who's thriving score was 1 standard deviation below the average score. Thriving employees were more committed, or 32% higher in their self-

reported commitment to the organization, nearly 50% more satisfied in their role or with their work, and less burned out by more than 125% than those who were not thriving (Porath et al., 2011, Spreitzer et al., 2012). Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) thriving-at-work model indicates that those who thrive produce original knowledge, find meaning in their work, and create better relationships with colleagues, especially when they also have high vitality, which is what makes their higher performance more sustainable. The learning dimension of thriving also contributes to better performance on its own, both for individuals and for those in leadership roles (Porath et al., 2011). Porath et al.'s (2011) research of thriving included assessing leadership performance based on their boss's ratings using Kouzes and Posner's (2002) Leadership Practices Inventory as the performance indicator for leaders based on their boss's ratings of their performance, and those who thrive at work had better performance as leaders too.

Spreitzer et al. (2012) indicated that while the performance of individual contributors is critical to organizational success, thriving employees also had better health. Specifically, Spreitzer et al. (2012) cited Keyes and Haidt's (2002) research on how people who feel vital or fully alive at work contributed to being much less worried, angry, or depressed and had a higher likelihood of having positive mental health. Spreitzer et al. (2012) noted positive experiences, including vitality, which is a critical component of thriving, enhance resilience to stress such as difficult change or challenging events (Fredrickson, 2001). Spreitzer, Lam, and Quinn (2011) discuss Atwater and Carmeli (2009) and Kark and Carmeli (2008) findings that vitality is related to creative work.

Research on having as a sense of learning, the cognitive component to thriving, has shown how learning impacts physical and mental well-being positively as well as optimistic perceptions of work and their organization (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Thriving, based on the Thriving at Work Construct in this study, was also negatively related to job strain and positively correlated to good health (Porath et al., 2011).

Spreitzer et al. (2012) found that of those studied in blue collar positions, employees who thrive take more initiative, are more proactive in career development initiative. Spreitzer et al. found that, compared to those who do not thrive, those who do have more purpose and meaning in their work, are more resilient to stress and challenges, and build stronger relationships with colleagues. In their study of nonprofit managers and university staff professionals, Spreitzer et al. found competence in collaboration was a top predictor of those who thrive among other competencies correlated. Collaboration skills included those related to effective communication, verbal and nonverbal; cooperation; and ability to effectively problem solve with different people who have diverse points of view and perspectives, including various functions, backgrounds, or ethnicities (Spreitzer et al., 2012).

Further, Spreitzer et al. (2012) found employees who thrive had better health, fewer physical or somatic ailments, sought physician care less often, and had lower burnout or job strain, and each factor translated into lower health costs. In terms of saving from absenteeism and making efficiency gains in terms of productivity, thriving employees also were absent from work nearly 75% fewer days compared to employees who were not thriving (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Having a greater physical well-being, as

well as reduced burnout symptoms or risk, enables employees who thrive to have enhanced performance in a sustainable way (Spreitzer et al., 2012).

Spreitzer et al. (2012) posited that leaders who thrive maximize not only their own effectiveness in leadership functions but the effectiveness of their team as well. In Spreitzer et al.'s study of executives in a variety of industries, leaders who thrive at work had 17% higher ratings from their direct reports than those leaders with a lower thriving level. The direct reports of thriving leaders described their boss as a model for behaviors at work and noted how they are proactive in taking initiative to address problems and in seeking opportunities, while also enabling their team to act with empowerment or autonomy (Spreitzer et al, 2012). Among Spreitzer et al.'s sample of nonprofit leaders, those who thrive were more engaged in expanding their networks, including building new and stronger relationships with others outside of their immediate functional area who they can collaborate with to meet objectives and align on strategies and exhibit more empowering leadership behavior. These behaviors included inspiring team members to take part in setting goals that are meaningful to them and the organization, aligning their team's and their own efforts, and being proactive about finding opportunities to learn and apply their new knowledge (Spretizer et al., 2012). Leaders who thrive also enable thriving team members, as thriving leaders' intrinsic energy is contagious with the team members they lead (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Spreitzer et al. indicated that team members and thriving leaders have greater levels of thriving both at work and in life, suggesting positive spillover from work life to family life and beyond.

Rath and Harter (2010b) noted that each person's well-being is critical to organizational success, as people who are absent or do not give their all in terms of effort

negatively affect the organization's productivity and cost companies millions of dollars in opportunity loss and health care costs due to low levels of well-being. Disengaged leaders or team members who work in disengaged groups are much more likely, nearly by half, to have depression from higher stress levels, which increases their risk for heart disease (Rath & Harter, 2010b). Only 8% believe their employer offers support to enhance their health and well-being. This opinion is surprising when in the United States employers pay the majority of health costs (Rath & Harter, 2010b). Estimates show up to 75% of all health care costs may be due to lifestyle behaviors that are modifiable and not related to genetic factors (Rath & Harter, 2010a).

Improving the current situation is a business imperative when considering that in 1999, the cost of insuring a family was $5,700, and in 2009 that cost was over $13,000. (Rath & Harter, 2010a). By 2018, costs will reach nearly $25,000 per family (Rath & Harter, 2010a). Health care continues to surpass the average inflation rate, having grown from over 26% of the gross domestic product from 2000 to 2010 and reaching nearly 20% of gross domestic product in 2010, therefore the impact on the sustainability of the U.S. economy is great (Truffer et al., 2010). The Cato Institute noted the cost of health care affects production costs and reduces the competitiveness of American exports in a global economy, resulting in fewer jobs in the U.S. manufacturing industry (Griswold, 2005). The WHO (2011) identified depression as the leading disabling illness affecting well-being around the world.

Low levels of well-being may also impact the startling and unsustainable trend of rising health care costs (Rath & Harter, 2010b). Lower levels of well-being can contribute to organizational costs from decreased productivity as well as increased

potential for turnover of both leaders and the team members they are managing, which leads to high replacement and training costs (Rath & Harter, 2010b). Relatedly, J. Burton (2009) discussed W. N. Burton and Conti's (1999) Worker Productivity Index and how the number of health risk factors increased, productivity decreased.

The business case exists for business leaders to take note for broader sustainability purposes, though in a survey of American and European employers, when asked why they provided wellness or health promotion programs to their employees, the Americans' top two reasons were to reduce health care costs and improve productivity, whereas the Europeans' top two were reducing employee absences and improving morale (Kirsten, 2007). There is a business imperative to create a workplace people want to stay in and thrive as the estimated fully loaded cost of turnover of employees is approximately 1.5% to 2.5% of annual salary for most positions, which includes separation, replacement, and training costs (Cascio, 2006). This figure does not include the cost of reduced engagement or productivity of the team during a transition or interim period when a leader is being replaced due to turnover or reduced team engagement because of lack of focus on the job.

Disengagement is an even more expensive problem for organizations when reports on the number of employees considering leaving their organizations or who have quit-and-stay mentalities, otherwise known as presenteeism, are high (Schultz, Chin-Yu, & Edington, 2009). Robbins and Judge (2010) discussed the importance of this type of behavior and attitude and how it affects performance outcomes. The costs of presenteeism can be even greater than the cost of turnover as it impacts productivity, innovation, and opportunity costs for the organization (Schultz et al., 2009).

Presenteeism impacts individuals and work teams, as people have a natural capacity to want to reach their potential and may become frustrated and disengage, which may negatively impact others when their work environment does not foster well-being and an opportunity to learn and grow (Koopmanschap et al., 2005; Waterman, 1993). Leading indicators of potential turnover show signs that organizational leaders should pay attention if they do not want to lose the key people they rely on heavily to sustain their success (Robbins & Judge, 2010).

All these factors lead toward the importance for leaders to create a climate of well-being at their organizations. Rath and Harter (2010a) contended that it is a competitive advantage for organizational leaders to foster well-being, as it may become a competitive advantage in attracting and retaining talent. Jackson (2012) the Chief Executive Officer of the Society for Human Resource Management noted that the skills gap in the United States has made retention more difficult as competition for critical skills is intense, though it is not the organization with the highest salary offer but the employers who provide the highest quality of life who will prevail in the war for talent. Moreover, people may be intrinsically motivated and more engaged when working for organizations that increase their level of thriving at work and in life (Rath & Harter, 2010b). Nielsen, Randall, Yarker, and Brenner (2008) indicated that it is important for organizations interested in the well-being and engagement of its employees to develop leaders in a way that helps them understand perceptions of work factors and their relationship to the well-being of employees, which aligns with the purpose of this study.

Nielsen et al. (2008) concluded that employees' viewpoints of factors affecting their work and their environment at work mediated the relationship between leadership

and well-being, which indicates organizational leaders should consider the design, implementation, and development of leaders to improve employee well-being. Additional research indicates that promoting well-being may enhance organizational effectiveness and productivity if leadership and organizational practices create favorable assessments of the organizational climate (Rego & Cunha, 2008). Supportive leadership correlates to employee well-being and to improved organizational performance and its well-being as a whole (Sparr & Sonnetag, 2008).

Nielsen et al. (2008) discussed the importance for organizational leaders to uncover perceived work characteristics and organizational climate factors to consider what might cause key employees in pivotal positions to consider leaving the organization, as well as what might renew commitment to the organization. Therefore, beyond simply focusing on the reasons for potential turnover, burnout, and presenteeism, this study involved searching for what factors may contribute to why people thrive, are engaged, and are committed to an organization or their leader and what they might personally do to impact their own level of thriving at work. This study's findings allows organizational leaders to gain insight into the contributors or the relationship between factors that may influence team members' intent to stay committed and give their best and be fully present in their work. The goal of this study was to reveal potential links to future action plans for organizations seeking to develop leadership and well-being in a way that aligns with fostering employee and collective organizational thriving.

This study contains a review of the literature on supportive leadership styles and the impact on employee well-being, including the use of coaching leadership styles for support of personal and professional growth. The coaching leadership style contributes

to energizing and high performing climates as well as perceptions of leaders' emotional and social intelligence (Goleman, 2000).

Boyatzis and McKee (2005) indicated that coaching others also provides leaders with the opportunity to experience compassion and in doing so can become a source of renewal and growth for the leader as an individual. Spreitzer et al. (2012) noted that supportive coaching will also increase the level of team thriving as leaders contribute to team members' learning and growth. However, no one has conducted a study to assess the impact of a coaching leadership style on thriving at work, resilience, commitment, and engagement, which were all incorporated into the focus of this study. This study will help organizational leaders determine whether an investment in developing coaching skills in leaders may positively impact their team members' thriving, well-being, commitment, and engagement at work. The study also indicates whether a leadership development focus of enhancing coaching skills impacts organizational sustainability.

Though organizational leadership factors may affect thriving, this study also involved assessing what individual characteristics may be positively related to thriving. Specifically, this literature review includes a discussion of self-leadership traits such as self-efficacy and mindfulness and how they relate to personal resilience. Resilience is important to be able to navigate effectively through times of change, adversity, and stress where individuals can self-monitor to maintain personal levels of thriving at work and relatedly in life. Self-monitoring or self-adaptation, would help employees who may not perceive their leader or organization as supportive of their well-being to gain a greater understanding of what they can do to enhance their own thriving. The findings of this study may also help uncover what individual factors mediate an individual's work

environment until other opportunities arise in the employment market as fostering personal thriving may create more opportunities.

The review of the literature includes a discussion on factors that relate to thriving at an organizational, leadership, and individual level. Further, the results contribute to the research on practical ways organizational leaders can foster team thriving to sustain their performance and bottom line through increased engagement, resiliency, and productivity and indirectly to reduce health care costs over time. Lastly, the research includes insights for individuals who seek to attain higher levels of thriving to attract new opportunities and to assess more proactively organizational climate or leadership styles that may be most conducive to fostering thriving at work.

Organizational leaders and individuals have much to gain by further understanding what fosters thriving, well-being and resilience to impact their long-term performance and personal success. This study's purpose was to explore what organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors relate to fostering thriving at work. The sample was 163 actively working employees and leaders in four organizations, who were located in various locations. This study was not intended to generalize findings as the study did not reach all industries or demographics, though the information discovered may be important for future researchers to note for themes to add to the field of POS (Cameron et al., 2003), POB (Luthans & Youssef, 2007), HRD's focus on work-life integration (2003) as well as organizational leaders and individuals interested in what relates to thriving at work.

Research Questions

The research questions in this study were targeted to invite a small, mid-size, and large manufacturing organization, as well as a small professional services firm with a goal of obtaining at least 118 participants. The research questions were based on correlations between self-reported scales, including Spreitzer et al.'s (2011) Thriving at Work Construct, which has two subscales: learning and vitality. Two scales were used to assess resilience as operationally defined in this study: Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) general self-efficacy scale and Feldman et al.'s (2007) cognitive-affective mindfulness scale. Lastly, a content validated scale was developed using Fowler's (2009) survey methodology to assess what factors relate to an organizational climate of well-being. The Climate of Well-Being Continuum included six subscales based on the literature discussed in Chapter 2, including sense of belonging/ inclusion, meaning/purpose, support for growth/mastery, autonomy/flexibility, enrichment/commitment, sense of impact/engagement based on de Vries's (2001) review of factors related to a healthy climate, Cameron et al.'s (2003) review of positive meaning through work, and Ryan and Deci's (2000, 2001) research on intrinsic need satisfaction and well-being. This quantitative correlation study will to help answer the following:

1. How are the seven climate of well-being scores (six subscales and one total score) correlated to the three thriving-at-work scores (two subscales and one total score)?

2. How are the seven climate of well-being scores correlated to either of the two resilience scores (general self-efficacy and mindfulness)?

3. How are the three thriving at work scores correlated to the two resilience scores?

4. Are any of the six climates of well-being subscale scores correlated to each other?

5. After controlling for demographic factors, how are the seven climates of well-being scores related to the three thriving scores and two resilience scores?

6. What model might be drawn from the correlations in the previous five research questions that may provide insights into factors that foster resilience, engagement, commitment, and thriving at work?

This study involved assessing connections between organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors that may relate to level of engagement, commitment, and ultimately resilience and thriving at work. A proposed model may point to the high-level factors related to thriving, commitment, engagement, and resilience. It was also important to uncover whether, if employees do not experience a climate of well-being, there may be intrinsic practices or factors that enhance thriving at work regardless of the climate they work in or the manager they have.

Clarification of Terms

Organizational climate was defined through Denison's (1996) definition of *organizational climate*:

> Climate . . . portrays organizational environments as being rooted in the organization's value system, but tends to present these social environments in relatively static terms, describing them in terms of a fixed (and broadly applicable) set of dimensions. Though, climate is often considered as relatively temporary, subject to direct control, and largely limited to those aspects of the social environment that are consciously perceived by organizational members. (p. 624)

Climate was also described as the outcome of the value systems of an organization, generally established by organizational leaders, while culture is rooted in the values, beliefs and assumptions held by organizational members and is therefore more difficult to change (Dennison, 1996;Rego & Cuhna Bass, 1985). Similar to organizational climate, an organization's culture develops largely from its leaders and at the same time the culture of an organization can also affect the development of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Both focus on the internal social psychological environment as a holistic, collectively defined social context, created by interaction, though at the same time the context determines interaction (Dennison, 1996). Further, Dennison (1996) describes the social context as both the medium and the outcome of the social interaction.

The dimensions of organizational climate in this study were specifically based on what the literature review indicated related to fostering well-being or thriving at work. The climate dimensions from the literature that are described more fully in Chapter 2 and are subscales in the Climate of Well-Being Continuum include organizational leaders who create a sense of belonging/inclusion, meaning/purpose, growth/mastery, autonomy/ flexibility, sense of impact/engagement, and enrichment/commitment based on de Vries's (2001) review of what contributes to a healthy climate; Cameron et al.'s (2003) research on positive meaning at work; and Ryan and Deci's (2000, 2001) research on intrinsic need satisfaction and well-being among other authors described in the literature review discussed in Chapter 2. Resilience was defined in this study as having general self-efficacy based on Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) globally validated construct and Feldman et al.'s (2007) Cognitive-Affective Mindfulness Scale. Both are more fully defined in the literature review in Chapter 2.

Chapter 1 Summary

Organizational leaders have a lot to gain from understanding the organizational climate factors and leadership characteristics that foster commitment, engagement, and ultimately resilience and thriving at work. Benefits to organizations may include an increase in productivity, sustainable performance, decreased turnover, and decreased related costs. Organizations may also attain reduced health care costs and the virtuous benefit of contributing to the well-being of their organizational members. This quantitative correlation study was designed to focus specifically on the impact that organizational climate and leadership characteristics experienced by team members has on their level of thriving; this has been an under researched area in the literature. The purpose of this study was to gain insights into ways organizational leaders and individuals may foster thriving. This is important, as further understanding what may enhance thriving, resilience, and well-being as well as positive organizational outcomes and sustainability, which aligns with Cameron et al.'s (2003) call for further contributions to the research on positive organizational scholarship, Luthans and Youssef's (2007) call for positive organizational behavior (POB) research on indicators that have impact on both performance and well-being, as well as the most recent dimension of human resource development (HRD) literature on work-life integration (Polach, 2003).

Chapter 2: Review of the Relevant Literature

Overview

This literature review begins with a history of the demographic changes in the United States since the 1970s to provide context regarding why fostering thriving and well-being at work are important to organizational leaders given the economic, social, and business climate. Issues such as work–life conflict, stress, and burnout were considered, as well as what may mediate these factors, including fostering thriving and resilience in the workplace to create positive business, individual, and societal outcomes. This literature review will summarize Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) definition of thriving, Rath and Harter's (2010) research on well-being, Seligman's (2011) research on well-being and flourishing, Ryan and Deci's (2000, 2001) research on intrinsic need satisfaction and well-being based on SDT, resilience in terms of Feldman et al.'s (2007) collective concept of mindfulness as well as Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) globally validated concept of general self-efficacy. In addition, positive organizational climate (de Vries, 2001, Rego & Cuhna, 2008) including supportive leadership styles and well-being, such as coaching, relates to thriving and Cameron et al.'s (2003) positive meaning at work will be reviewed.

The New World of Work: Why Thriving and Well-being Matters

In the global context, the WHO indicated there is prevalent agreement that the well-being, including health and safety of employees, who make up nearly half the global population, is of vital importance (J. Burton, 2009), both to individual workers and their families and to organizations that employ them in terms of their productivity, ability to compete, and sustain success, and relatedly to the economy of individual countries and

the broader, global economy (Yliksoki, 2006, pp. 3-4). The European Union indicated effective health and safety at work has a major impact on the economy, as the massive cost of health and safety issues at work hinders growth at the economic and financial level, impacts business competitiveness, and has a vital human dimension affecting sustainability (J. Burton, 2009; European Union, 2007-2012). The European Economic and Social Committee, Commission to the European Parliament, and the Committee of the Regions have declared health and relatedly safety are high in importance in the European Union's employment policy (European Union, 2007-2012).

In the United States, health care costs have skyrocketed, making it more difficult for employers and families to purchase health care. The Milliman Medical Index indicated that the cost of health care for a family of four in a typical preferred provider plan doubled from $9,235 in 2002 to $19,393 in 2011 (Milliman, 2011). Millions of Americans suffer from preventable illness and chronic diseases like cancer, diabetes, Alzheimer's, and depression, impacting their quality of life (CDC, 2011).

Beyond the health care cost issues that affect both organizations and individuals, a shift in the demographics that comprise the workforce has impacted quality of life and quality of work life depending on the climate of the organization. In the United States, according to the Executive Office of the President Council of Economic Advisers ([EOPCEA], 2010), population demographics of the United States have shifted dramatically over the past 50 years. There is now a highly diverse workforce including a large increase in the number of women working (EOPCEA, 2010). There has been a major shift toward women contributing dramatically to household income and in many cases becoming the breadwinners. Dual income households have blurred the lines of the

division of labor in keeping organized and efficient homes. The percentage of dual-income parents has nearly doubled in the last three decades in households where both parents work full-time. The percentage of full-time workers who are parents and are caring for their own parents has increased as well, as these workers are often referred to as the sandwich generation (EOPCEA, 2010). This dramatic shift in demographics in the workforce has increased the work–life conflict many workers experience in trying to juggle their work and family priorities (E. Galinsky, 2012).

In 1994, two thirds of Americans rejected the notion commonly held as late as 1977 that men should be the achievers while women take care of the home and family (Coontz, 2011). The evolution in thinking dramatically changed the makeup of the labor force since the 1980's, the demands work and home on time and energy have been intensifying for both genders (Aumann & Galinsky, 2011; Coontz, 2011).

In a global context, the average number of work hours for employed Americans increased from 1990 to 2000, and the United States led the world in the number of hours worked, beating out Japan, the previous leader (Coontz, 2011). In considering dual-earner couples, the workload is not all paid, though as of 2000, the average dual-earner couple had an 82-hour workweek, while nearly 15% of married couples had a combined workweek of more than 100 hours (Coontz, 2011). Coontz (2011) cited the Pew Research Center's 2011 study where 67% of young women and 42% of women in mid-life and later life said that, in addition to having a family, success also meant having a rewarding career, which they indicated as highly important in their lives, increased 10% for young women and 16% for middle-age to older women.

Stone (2007) studied high-achieving professionals who had made a decision to quit their jobs and stay home for family responsibilities, and she found study participants that the choice to stop working was most often a last choice, either because employers were not providing autonomy or flexibility or offered reduced schedules available to support their need for work–life support for either them or their husbands. Results from Stone's study shed light on the media's misperception that women are choosing to opt out when the workplace may be pushing women out according to the author versus simply family pulls. Under these types of conditions, Stone noted inflexibility in the workplace led to half of the high achievers quitting their jobs. Coontz (2011) noted not living in alignment with one's values or accommodating what is needed to get by but not meeting one's own expectations may exacerbate tensions in important relationships and lead to the stress and work–life conflict many have experienced.

A major demographic and social shift is prompting a need for change in the way businesses operate, but it is imperative for organizational leaders to demonstrate that they place a high value in making work *work* for their valued employees through flexibility and supporting their well-being (E. Galinsky, 2012). A flexible workplace has been linked to higher effectiveness in a more global, competitive, and technology-driven world (E. Galinsky, 2012). In the 1970s and 1980s, the mind-set was employees had to be productive, to be at their desk every day, to be in the meetings to get information. With changes in technology, communication has changed and how people receive and provide information has also dramatically changed. Coworkers are never going to be under one roof, and work happens continuously globally, so adapting to that change is critical for

sustainability (E. Galinsky, 2012). Further, retention of knowledge workers is becoming more critical in a more competitive employment market (Jackson, 2012).

Today, both women and men are putting workplace flexibility at the top of their agendas for where they want to work, but it is also important for hourly workers to reduce turnover and for retaining older workers as the need for retention and lower health care costs increases (E. Galinsky & Matos, 2011). E. Galinsky (2012) noted that according to the Families and Work Institute's 2008 *National Study of the Changing Workforce,* 87% of all employees indicated that flexibility in their work would be extremely important or very important to them in considering a new job. This statistic rose from 55 to 60%, with those who stated they do not have enough time for their spouses increasing 13% from 50 to 63% and those who feel they do not have enough time for their children increased nearly 10% to 75% in total (E. Galinsky, 2012). E. Galinsky (2012) indicated that time, through autonomy and flexibility, has become the new currency. Many organizations are working toward the Alfred P. Sloan award for Excellence in Workplace Effectiveness and Flexibility ("When Work Works," 2012) and by creating flexible flexibility initiatives to modernize their work climate for the new world of work and to keep pace with the continually evolving demographics of the country whose needs require it ("When Work Works," 2012).

Rego and Cunha (2008) found that in organizational climates when people are unable to use opportunities for development and growth due to work–family interference and conflict, stress increases for employees and their families. Stress decreases when there is a sense of autonomy or flexibility in the organizational climate, which allows for more balance in work and family roles (Rego & Cunha, 2008). Rego and Cunha's

findings aligned with Martin, Jones, and Callan's (2005) study and Parker et al.'s (2003).

Rego and Cunha (2008) found,

> Employees experiencing higher well-being are more committed to work and are more engaged as they invest themselves in the job when they perceive their organizational climate is positive, respectful, supportive, safe and meaningful and provides conditions to satisfy their social, security, emotional and learning/exploratory needs. (p. 749)

This literature review involved exploring which organizational climate factors foster thriving, well-being, and resilience given the demographic, economic, technological, and social shifts in the U.S. workplace. Second, the review included an exploration of leaders' impact on fostering well-being at work and collectively for the organization. Specifically, the coaching leadership style was reviewed based on positive organizational outcomes associated as described in the literature (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Porath et al., 2011; Spreitzer & Porath, 2012). Lastly, the literature review included a discussion on organizational climate factors associated with well-being and thriving at work, including what researchers have found related to leadership and individual factors related to the impact of employee engagement and commitment, as well as ways to foster resilience and thriving at work.

Thriving at Work and Meaning of Well-being

A Google search for the word well-being returns over 1,000,000,000 results. Clearly there has been a lot written on the topic and yet there is no one common definition or measurement. Each element of Seligman's well-being theory is based on three principles: (a) contributing to well-being; (b) pursuit of it has intrinsic value or meaning for its own sake, not to attain the other dimensions; and (c) the dimension can be defined and measured on its own as it does not necessarily interrelate with the other

elements and is an exclusive, independent dimension of well-being (Seligman, 2011, p. 15). Seligman's five elements of well-being are "positive emotion, engagement, positive relationships, meaning, and accomplishment" (Seligman, 2011, pp. 16-17).

First is positive emotion, which is the cornerstone of the authentic happiness theory relating to happiness and life satisfaction (Seligman, 2011). Next is engagement, which is described by the questions, "Did time stop for you?" or "Were you completely absorbed in the task?" based on Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) flow theory, where employing one's greatest strengths to meet the highest challenges brings out the best in a person where they experience a state of flow. Next is meaning, in the sense of belonging to and serving something that is important to you or bigger than one's self interests. The fourth element is accomplishment, or choosing to do something to gain a sense of accomplishment or mastery for its own sake. Last is positive relationships, which may be described as similar to social well-being in Rath and Harter's (2010) research and relatedness in Deci and Ryan's (2000, 2001) intrinsic need research.

Bono et al. (2011) described flourishing as prospering at work; being happy, engaged, self-motivated, and successful; and learning, which is congruent with Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) definition of thriving, but also includes happiness, positive moods, and emotions, as aligned with Seligman's (2011) theory of well-being regarding work engagement. Bono et al. (2005) and Seligman (2011) incorporated both the hedonic theory of well-being as they incorporate positive emotion and happiness and the eudemonic theory when incorporating engagement where work is an expression of one's authentic or true self (Peterson, Park, & Seligman, 2005).

Rath and Harter (2001) discussed five elements of well-being based on Gallup's 50 years of research on the life well-lived. The five elements are career, social, physical, financial, and community well-being, where unlike Seligman's (2011) positive emotion, engagement, positive relationships, meaning, and accomplishment theory of well-being, all elements interrelate and affect one's state of thriving, surviving, or struggling. Career well-being most impacts the other elements, as Rath and Harter's (2010) research has shown people with high career well-being are more than twice as likely to be thriving in their lives overall. Career well-being includes the opportunity to do something one enjoys frequently and actively pursuing a passion or strength that brings energy or that holds one's interest (Rath & Harter, 2010), which is related to Buckingham's (2007) definition of strength, as activities that strengthen or bring one energy and has been found to relate to higher engagement when an individual has the opportunity to use his or her strengths each day. Rath and Harter (2010b) described social well-being as relating to having positive and loving relationships, similar to SDT's relatedness or heedful relating (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Spreitzer et al., 2005). Financial well-being in Rath and Harter's (2010b) model is about effective management of one's economic life to counter the stress it may otherwise produce while increasing a sense of economic security, which may relate to an elevated level of security as a foundation in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs. Rath and Harter (2010b) described physical well-being as being in good health, which provides the energy required to accomplish needed and desired tasks regularly. Lastly, community well-being is being engaged and involved where one lives (Rath & Harter, 2010b), which relates to meaning in Seligman's (2011) discussion of meaning and purpose as described by Pink (2009).

Thriving is the highest state of well-being described by Rath and Harter (2010b). This study will focus on the context of thriving at work, which has positive spillover to home life (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Spreitzer et al. (2005) described thriving at work as occurring when employees feel a sense of progress and momentum, vitality (aliveness or energy), and a sense of experiencing development through new knowledge and ideas, and is associated with healthier lifestyle behaviors and positive health. Employees who thrive also have higher performance as assessed by their manager in both in-role performance and in terms of organizational citizenship behaviors, engagement, or extra-role performance (Porath et al., 2011). Further, thriving is especially critical for the performance of leaders (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Based on a sample of executives across various businesses, nonprofit, and educational institutions, their direct reports rated them significantly higher by as having higher effectiveness if the executives were thriving that those who were not (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Team members of managers who thrive described their leader as "role models of how work can be done, who seek opportunities to take initiative, and who enable others to act" (Spreitzer et al., 2012, p. 156). Spreitzer et al. (2012) contended thriving leaders enable thriving followers.

In Spreitzer et al.'s (2012) research, leaders who perceive themselves as thriving also indicate they are healthier and have few physical or somatic well-being complaints. Further, working professionals from five different industries who scored high on the thriving construct also indicated they felt less burned out (Spreitzer et al., in press). The researchers noted enhanced health and fewer propensities for job strain or burnout allow these leaders and professionals to sustain their thriving over time, which relates to effective self-regulation and enhanced well-being in the long run.

Thriving leaders and team members perform better and are more engaged as they go above and beyond to help and collaborate with others (Spreitzer et al., in press). They also are more likely to be healthier, with reduced risk for burn out, which has great implications for not only health care costs, but also human and organizational sustainability over time. When individuals report they are thriving, their sense of vitality and learning can help them adjust better to changing life conditions; they are therefore more resilient in adapting to and handling difficulties or adversities they may encounter (Spreitzer et al., 2005).

Resilience by definition is comparable to thriving and refers to how people self-adapt and are capable of rebounding in the face of difficult situations (Masten & Reed, 2002; Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003). Thriving, in comparison, may happen regardless of whether one experiences hardship (Spreitzer et al., 2005), as people can experience learning and energy even when they do not encounter significant, sustained challenges or adversity (Roberts, Dutton, Spreitzer, Heaphy, & Quinn, 2005).

Thriving, marked by vitality and learning, is a desirable subjective experience (Warr, 1990) and increases people's self-awareness of what they are experiencing and their understanding of how it is either increasing or decreasing their level of functioning and adaptability at work so they can self-regulate as needed (Spreitzer et al., 2005). While thriving focuses on the intrinsic experiences of increased personal and professional growth and energy to expand one's thinking with or without hardship, resilience refers to the intrinsic ability, capacity, or practices that allow one to rebound from difficult times (Spreitzer et al., 2005). The term resilience is therefore important for organizational leaders to understand and consider the adversities and high stress faced by employees

who experience difficulty and challenges following a historical downturn in most businesses during times of economic uncertainty and ongoing change. Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) socially embedded model of thriving at work posits that that individuals are in control of their own thriving capacities by paying attention to their energy level and the opportunity to learn.

Porath and Spreitzer (2012) defined thriving as learning and growth plus vitality, a sense of being alive, passionate, and excited, which creates sustainable organizational performance. Their recent *Harvard Business Review* article indicated thriving employees have high energy and are more likely to counter burnout when there is a high expectation to do more with less, and thriving employees are highly engaged in creating a positive future for the organization as well as their own personal and professional future (Porath & Spreitzer, 2012). Further, the following positive organizational outcomes are associated with thriving: thriving employees had 16-21% higher total performance, 125% less burnout than coworkers, 32% had higher organizational commitment, 46% had higher job satisfaction, and thriving employees had higher productivity, reduced health care costs, and less absenteeism (Porath & Spreitzer, 2012).

Spreitzer et al. (2005) described thriving as growing positive capacity for energy and growth, which may relate to higher health and well-being and positive spillover at home. Being stuck, failing to make progress, or languishing is the opposite of thriving (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Spreitzer et al., 2011). Spreitzer et al. (2005) indicated that although both learning and vitality can signal a marker of thriving, the joint experience of these together is necessary for a psychological experience of personal growth. Spreitzer et al. (2012) found that individuals with higher learning and vitality have greater than

12% higher levels of performance based on their manager's assessment than those who have higher learning or vitality scores, performance was not as great if there were not balanced high scores in each, indicating the integrated and balancing effect of having both learning and vitality. This effect is especially the case for those with higher levels of learning, though without the balance of having higher vitality scores as high learning with little vitality may lead to reduced performance and health over time (Spreitzer et al., 2012).

Porath et al. (2012) found relationships between personal traits that may predispose people to experience more or less thriving at work, such as taking more initiative, willingness to learn and higher core self-evaluations, which includes self-efficacy (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). Porath et al.'s (2011) thriving construct has been validated across five different industries and diverse population samples, which were used in this study to assess whether organizational climate, leadership, or individual factors may be measured and related to enhancing thriving well-being at work.

Rath and Harter (2010b) measured their five elements of well-being using the term thriving as the highest level of well-being, as compared to surviving or struggling for those with lower well-being. Their research included five interrelated elements of well-being (career, social, community, physical, and financial), as each has a big impact and interrelates with a person's well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010b). Well-being is assessed based on the Cantril Self-Anchoring Striving Scale in Rath and Harter's (2010b) model as people rate their feeling about their current and future lives on a scale from 0 to 10 (Clifton, 2013). People receive a *thriving* rating if they perceive their current lives somewhere between 7 and 10 and expect their future in 5 years to be at a level between 8

and 10, while those who perceive their current or future lives less than 5 on the scale are categorized as *suffering*; those in between are described as *struggling* (Clifton, 2013).

Waterman (1993) suggested a specific definition for a state of well-being as being intensively alive and being one's true self, referred to as personal expressiveness. Personal expressiveness has been strongly associated with happiness, described as hedonic well-being, as both are fulfillments of outcomes that energy may be focused toward, although personal expressiveness outcomes are more associated with growth and development than momentary pleasure. Personal expressiveness represented times when individuals rise to meet the challenge they face, leading to a sense of accomplishment or satisfaction, whereas hedonic experiences were more associated with vacations from problems and time to relax. Both serve a role and are important to balance when living in alignment. Understanding what will help sustain one's level of well-being over time as a state of constant thriving to reach one's potential has been of great interest. Ryff (1995) discussed an innate way of being or motivation to achieve a state of excellence and realize one's full potential. Though this feeling of discontent may lead to burnout if not balanced with recovery and nurturing in the pursuit of perfection to be mindful and just enjoy the surrounding pleasures of life and loved ones.

Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) described Maslow's (1943) concept of self-actualization as self-fulfillment and reaching one's full potential, as well as how thriving may be one indicator that a person is making progress toward reaching this state. Further, Spreitzer et al. described how work organizations are an effective environment to foster this level of human growth, which is why the focus of this study was the organizational climate and leadership factors that may foster thriving at work. The

underlying notion of thriving is that all people have a predisposition to grow and reach their potential, or self-actualize (Maslow, 1943; Spreitzer et al., forthcoming).

The eudaimonic theory of well-being is described in terms of becoming one's authentic self and living in alignment with one's values while being fully engaged in life (Deci & Ryan, 2001; Waterman, 1993). The hedonic theory of well-being has been more associated with a state of happiness based on feeling pleasure (Deci & Ryan, 2001). Deci and Ryan (2001) discussed Aristotle's viewpoint regarding the hedonic viewpoint of well-being as a state of happiness was unrefined as that viewpoint would make us slaves to desires of pleasure. Whereas the eudaimonic viewpoint of well-being is the expression of virtue, that is, doing what is worthwhile, Aristotle's view was that not all human desires would lead toward well-being. The eudaimonic definition of well-being requires an ability to distinguish between those desires that lead to only momentary pleasure and may be counter to long-term well-being compared to desires that contribute to growth toward potential (Deci & Ryan, 2001).

Ryan and Deci (2000) defined SDT as aligning with the eudaimonic view of well-being. The three main focus points of SDT are autonomy, which relates to Pink's (2009) intrinsic motivation research and Ryff and Singer's (1998) psychological well-being model; competence, which is similar to mastery in Pink's (2009) research; and personal growth (Ryan & Singer, 1998) and relatedness, also similar to positive relatedness in Ryff and Singer's (1998) model. Ryan and Deci found that fulfilling these three core needs is critical for intrinsic motivation and well-being as well as a sense of congruence with meaning or purpose as in Pink's (2009) and Cameron et al.'s (2003) research related to both health and life satisfaction.

Therefore, in SDT these intrinsic elements are like nutrients for facilitating well-being in life and through other contexts such as work (Deci & Ryan, 2001). Both Ryff and Singer's (1998) and Deci and Ryan's (2000) approach builds on Rogers's (1963) description of well-being as fully functioning versus just attaining desired outcomes. Based on the eudaimonic viewpoint, one does not need to feel positive emotions or happy all the time to transcend toward well-being. This is especially true in the case of the end of a marriage or loss of a job, as Ryan and Deci (2001) found if a person experiences negative emotions and turns toward them to experience the sadness, anger, or grief they cause, they are more likely to function fully sooner and positively impact their well-being than if they were to suppress the body's natural emotions. Avoiding one's emotions or suppressing them may have negative health consequences over time physically and psychologically (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; King & Pennebaker, 1998). Butzel and Ryan (1997) noted authentically showing up or being congruent with one's emotions can actually have well-being benefits (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Therefore, though positivity is not a descriptor of eudaimonic well-being, it may be an associated experience (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Further, Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe and Ryan (2000) found that daily experience with a sense of autonomy, growth, and positive relationships predicted happiness and vitality (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Spreitzer et al., (in press) discusses Ryff and Singer's (1998) six aspects of what they refer to as psychological well-being, including having a sense of autonomy, a sense of growth/development, self-acceptance, sense of purpose, mastery, and positive relationships, and it's positive correlation to health and immune functioning. Ryff and Singer's definition of growth/development is very similar to Spreitzer et al.'s (2005)

definition of thriving. Though rather than incorporating all the elements in Ryff and Singer's (1998) model, Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) thriving model focuses on the personal growth dimension and adds vitality/energy. In describing the additional aspects in Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) model as nutriments of growth grounded in Deci and Ryan's (2000) research, this study involved taking elements from each of the publications discussed into account to assess which of the SDT factors may significantly correlate to thriving at work.

In this study, organizational factors that may be considered nutriments to thriving include belonging/inclusion, which is similar to positive relations with others in Ryff and Singer's (1998) model as well as relatedness in Deci and Ryan's (2000) SDT and heedful relating in Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) model. Rock (2011) argues that the brain has a need for relatedness based on his work in neuroscience, describing the brain as a "social organ" versus just a "thinking organ" especially at work where people spend the majority of their time and where the majority of stress is evoked. Rock (2011) proposes that to minimize the threat response or amygdala hijack as described by Goleman (2011), leaders need to enable the reward response through providing a sense of recognition for contributions and competence of team members, which he discusses will elevate their feelings of competence and status. Rock (2011) indicates that even by understanding the role that status plays at work and through interactions, leaders can minimize the counter-productivity that comes with a threat response when leaders are oblivious to these factors.

Further, Rock (2011) discusses the brain's need for autonomy and relatedness, also similar to Deci and Ryan's (2000) discussion of self-determination theory and intrinsic need satisfaction to elicit well-being, in this context, well-being at work. Rock

(2011) refers to this as leaders who can activate the brain's *reward response,* based on neuroscience, as people who gain a sense of status, certainty, autonomy, relatedness and fairness, which he refers to as SCARF, contribute more creativity in terms thinking of and sharing ideas. Also, Rock (2011) states that burnout happens less even when high effort is exerted as people who are acknowledged for their competence or strengths, and given choice through autonomy, feel cared about through relatedness, all intrinsic needs described by Deci and Ryan (2000), provides a sense of well-being at work. Leaders who foster inclusion through relatedness and curtail circumstances where team members feel rejected, and share information regularly enable peak performance through keeping people engaged and motivated (Rock, 2011). Conversely, leaders who demonstrate favoritism are perceived to reserve privileges for people who remind them of themselves or don't encourage new ideas or viewpoints different than their own, or are not perceived to appreciate diversity in thoughts, viewpoints, worldviews, etc. may arouse a threat response in those Rock (2011) describes as *outside their circle*. As leaders actions, words and body language is noticed and interpreted for meaning by those they are leading, as well as peers, in ways that either support or undermine factors in the SCARF model that activate the reward or threat response in the brain (Rock, 2011).

Leaders can take this information from neuroscience and the brain's reward or threat response to consider how changes are implemented in their team or organization as it is difficult for leaders to gain team buy-in or sustain initiatives if the team did not take an active role in the design of the initiative or plan, which may even lead to sabotage if the threat response is triggered (Rock, 2011). Therefore leaders are wise to take neuroscience into account, especially in trying to effect productive change, leaders are

either enhancing or undermining autonomy and status by having inclusive planning processes that may foster creativity and improvements that would not have come up otherwise by also providing some latitude for risk-taking and learning from their own mistakes (Rock, 2011).

As Goleman (2000, 2011) and Rock (2011) discuss, leaders are overall more effective when they are self-aware, and neuroscience has found the more leaders are self-aware, the more certainty people feel as it creates a sense of safety that makes focusing on work easier and enables performance improvement. This happens through authentic leadership presence when a leader is being one's self, open and transparent, which minimizes the threat response based on status, increases a sense of certainty, and fairness (Rock, 2011).

When people feel a sense of ambiguity in a way that creates a sense of anxiety, they disengage from the present moment and are worrying about the future and the unknown, which leads to bad decisions. Therefore Rock (2011) argues that leaders must build confident and dedicated teams through fostering certainty, especially in times of ambiguity and change. Leaders can do this through providing a sense of autonomy, which increases certainty and lowers stress levels. In this study, autonomy at work is taking into account how, when and where work gets done through both decision –making discretion and flexibility in terms of time and place that work gets done where possible, or through flexible flexibility. Providing autonomy through flexibility and empowered decision making reduces stress compared to stiff instructions and strict schedules.

As Rock (2011) indicates, having a sense of autonomy or choice in their work in terms of where, when and how work gets done is critical. Goleman (2011) describes how

being able to cultivate an self-awareness, being present and able to observe one's experience, feelings and thoughts in the moment and noticing in a non-judgmental and non-reactive way and enhances an understanding of how the brain is designed to function may mediate its natural response. Doing so may increase effectiveness and well-being in work and life as both Goleman (2011) and Rock (2011) describe how, in a threatened state, people are more likely to be less effective as their attention is diverted and may lead to chronic stress and even disease over time. Further, these authors suggest that leaders can provide a sense status or appreciation for competence, certainty through sharing pertinent information, autonomy or choice, relatedness and fairness through belonging/inclusion. This way of leading counters the threat response and satisfies team members intrinsic needs, enabling a sense of well-being at work, fostering higher effectiveness, productive change, engagement, supportive and collaborative teams, and an energized climate that may positively impact well-being (de Vries, 2001; Pink, 2009; Rego & Cuhna, 2008; Rock, 2011; Spreitzer et al., 2012).

Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) noted vitality, the state of having available energy (Ryan & Frederick, 1997), was an indicator of eudaimonic well-being. Spreitzer et al. noted how Ryan and Frederick (1997) found that factors that thwart vitality such as poor diet and nutrition and smoking impact the physical health aspect of well-being, and poor health also impacted both autonomy and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Similarly, Rath and Harter (2010b) described physical well-being as being in good health with the energy needed to accomplish regular tasks. Vitality relates to well-being, including enhanced mental or emotional health with less physical symptoms as reported by Spreitzer et al. (2012). Nix et al. (1999) demonstrated that when goal pursuits were

autonomous, achievement led to vitality, though not when goal pursuits were controlled by external or extrinsic forces. Resilience, learning, and autonomy are also associated with vitality (Nix et al., 1999; Reis et al., 2000; Ryan & Frederick, 1997). Spreitzer et al. (2005) described the vitality component of thriving as the positive feeling of being energetic based on Nix et al.'s (1999) research as well as J. B. Miller and Stiver's (1997) description of having a zest for one's work. Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) reported that SDT posits that energy can be sustained and even enriched, in contrast to Baumeister, Gailliot, DeWall and Oaten (2006), who reported energy is apt to be depleted or exhausted from self-regulation. Further, SDT focuses on what may catalyze or generate energy, such as autonomous regulation, where controlled regulation depletes energy (Spreitzer et al., forthcoming). Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) discuss Ryan and Deci's (2000) SDT as it relates to well-being and posits intrinsic motivation spurs people to perform a task for its own enjoyment or interest rather than being compelled for extrinsic reasons. This description of intrinsic motivation relates to Seligman's (2011) principles of well-being theory, as people pursue tasks for its own sake or enjoyment.

For example, Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) posited that the social environment contributes to or deters from a sense of vitality based on whether it satisfies one's intrinsic need for relatedness (related to sense of belonging/inclusion in this study) competence (related to support for growth/mastery in this study), and autonomy (related to flexibility/autonomy in this study). Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) cited a study where college students who had a sense of autonomy, a sense of competence, and a sense of relatedness had higher levels of vitality (Reis et al., 2000). Also, Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) discussed a study in which elite female gymnasts, had increases in vitality

from having a sense of autonomy, sense of competence, and sense of relatedness, even while engaging in highly demanding physical activities (Sheldon, Ryan, & Reis, 1996). Lastly, Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) reported people who experience autonomy had higher performance on successive self-controlled activities than those controlled by external or extrinsic forces, which was true even after controlling for worry, unpleasantness, stress, or lower motivation (Muraven, Gagne, & Rosman, 2008).

The intrinsic needs that when satisfied relate to well-being described by Ryan and Deci (2000) include autonomy, relatedness and competence. Autonomy, which allows for choice or self-endorsement of one's actions or decisions (Ryan & Deci, 2008), is the strongest predictor of energy in Porath et al.'s (2011) thriving construct (Spreitzer et al., forthcoming). Quinn and Dutton (2005) posited energy is created in communication when one has a sense of competence, autonomy and relatedness feel enhanced through a conversation. Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) discussed an insight from the SDT literature that when an individual's environment fosters these intrinsic needs, experiencing vitality is more likely.

Seligman and Peterson (2002) refer to zest as one of the courage character strengths associated with well-being. Seligman, Peterson, and Park (2004) noted zest, also described as sense of vitality, is one of the character strengths that most correlates with well-being. Park, Peterson, and Seligman's (2004) research indicates that the character strengths of hope, zest, gratitude, love, and curiosity are most associated with well-being of all other character strengths from Peterson and Seligman's (2002) VIA Classification of Character Strengths. Peterson and Seligman (2004) defined character strength as being widely recognized across cultures; fulfilling in and of itself;

contributing to fulfillment, satisfaction, and happiness; morally valued; and not

diminishing others. There were 24 different strengths of character, and the definitions of

those noted as most associated with well-being based on Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and

Griffen's (1985) Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) are as follows:

> *Curiosity* [–] interest, novelty-seeking, openness to experience' taking an interest in all of ongoing experience; finding topics fascinating; exploring and discovering. . . . *Gratitude* [–] being aware of and thankful for the good things that happen; taking time to express thanks. . . . *Hope* [–] optimism towards the future, expecting the best in the future and working to achieve it; believing that a good future is something that can be brought about. . . . *Love* [–] valuing close relations with others, in particular those in which sharing and caring are reciprocated; being close to people. . . . *Zest* [–] vitality, enthusiasm, vigor, energy; approaching life with excitement and energy, not doing things halfway or halfheartedly, feeling alive and activated. (Park et al., 2004, p. 609)

Organizational Climate and Well-being

Organizational leaders have long been interested in better understanding

organizational climate. Climate may change over time as it is influenced by external

factors and consists of the factors affecting the work environment from a social and

experiential perspective perceived by employees (Denison, 1996). Litwin and Stringer

(1968) focused on organizational factors that impacted individual motivation, indicating

climate includes both organizational attributes and individual reactions to them.

Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) discussed self-regulation and how self-regulation, or

having focused or intentional attention, is important for well-being and countering

burnout. Spreitzer et al. (2012) noted vitality is innate in all people and a feeling of

personal growth or progress, though the amount of potential they realize is impacted by

the organizational climate of which they are part as the organizational system is a

influential force in stimulating or diminishing thriving. An employee may be interested

or willing to grow and develop, or begin each day with high energy, but his or her work

context has the power to foster or squash this natural propensity (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Spreitzer et al. (2012) researched how organizational leaders might foster thriving and found that organizational climates may impact the potential for employees to thrive when they provide autonomy in decision making, communication, organizational direction, strategy, and performance progress; curtail disrespect in the workplace; encourage developmental feedback that enables performance and personal goal achievement; and foster a climate of inclusion. Spreitzer et al. (2012) indicated that a focus on only four of these factors in a study of six diverse organizations showed 42% higher rates of thriving.

Positive organizational support enhances intent to stay or commitment as it fulfills social and emotional needs such as relatedness and support, which creates an inclusive feeling of belonging, aids in identifying with the organizational role and purpose, and contributes to team members' sense of purpose and meaning through work (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) literature review on over 70 studies to understand factors that relate to perceived organizational support, such as leadership practices, recognition, and working conditions, positive outcomes associated with positive organizational support included higher retention and commitment to the organization, enhanced performance, and reduced presenteeism.

Similar to Fredrickson's (2001) broaden and build theory, positive emotion is related to thriving research, regardless of the source of the positive emotion. Thriving is positively influenced by receiving positive affective resources from superiors, peers, and team members (Spreitzer et al., 2011). Spreitzer et al. (2005) indicated that leaders and individuals should be mindful in developing personal networks. Being more proactive in cultivating networks with positive, energizing interactions adds meaning and provides

resources that are critical to a sense of thriving at work (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Being intentional about making time for building these types of networks is difficult in a dynamic, stressful, and constantly plugged-in work environment that makes balance and making time for people other than immediate coworkers or family difficult. Spreitzer (forthcoming) noted that individuals should assess their own network and create plans to ensure that interactions at work, including what they give to others, contribute to thriving. Spreitzer (forthcoming) also indicated that organizational leaders can provide the tools to help employees influence their own thriving at work by having successfully established human resources practices and creating networks of high performers in on-boarding initiatives, career planning processes, and leadership development programs to increase a support for growth/mastery and vitality at work.

Leaders can assess thriving networks and consider ways to influence contagion through collaboration to affect thriving throughout an organization, whether through on-boarding, mentoring, or other social networking promotion at work (Spreitzer, in press). These factors may create work environments that are less toxic over time if these types of actions become expectations for leaders and become part of the culture of the organization (Spreitzer, in press). Spreitzer (in press) found that people in one's social network who have positive energy and enthusiasm increase their level of thriving. This is consistent with the research of Barsade (2002) and Baker, Cross and Wooten (2003), who found that positive energy at work is contagious.

Rath and Conchi (2008) noted that people who feel cared about at work by their leaders and who demonstrate compassion are significantly more likely to be loyal to their organization, have customers who are more loyal, are substantially more productive, and

create more profitability for the organization. J. Burton (2009) explained the factors

identified as contributors of occupational health and safety, to health promotion and

lifestyle factors, to psychosocial factors (organizational climate and workplace culture)

and community well-being, all having been found to impact employee well-being. The

World Health Organization's Western Pacific Office defined a healthy climate as:

> A place where everyone works together to achieve an agreed vision for the health and well-being of workers and the surrounding community . . . providing all members of the workforce with physical, psychological, social and organizational conditions that protect and promote health and safety . . . enabling managers and workers to increase control over their own health and to improve it, becoming more energetic, positive and contented. (J. Burton, 2009, p. 16)

Grawitch, Ledford, Ballard, and Barber (2009) indicated there are a variety of

lenses to look at what creates or makes a healthy climate. For example, the Families and

Work Institute indicated that effective work–life balance, support, and interventions are

key to a healthy organizational climate; the Institute for Health and Productivity

Management emphasized the role of wellness initiatives targeted at the health risks of the

organization's population; and Fortune Magazine's 100 Best Places to Work list,

emphasized the culture and benefits with less emphasis on financial growth and stock

performance (Grawitch et al., 2009). Grawitch et al. suggested employee involvement is

key to identifying mutually beneficial practices for organizations and their members to

enhance health and effectiveness.

The World Health Organization included three main premises of a healthy

workplace grounded in the literature:

1. "Employee health is now generally assumed to incorporate the WHO definition of health (physical, mental and social) and to be far more than merely the absence of physical disease"

2. "A healthy workplace in the broadest sense is also a healthy organization from the point of view of how it functions and achieves its goals. Employee health and corporate health are inextricably intertwined"
3. "A healthy workplace must include health *protection* and health *promotion*" (J. Burton, 2009, p. 16).

The WHO defined a healthy workplace as:

> A healthy workplace is one in which workers and managers collaborate to use a continual improvement process to protect and promote the health, safety and well-being of all workers and the sustainability of the workplace by considering the following, based on identified needs: health and safety concerns in the physical work environment… health, safety and well-being concerns in the psychosocial work environment including organization of work and workplace culture; personal health resources in the workplace… and ways of participating in the community to improve the health of workers, their families and other members of the community. (J. Burton, 2009, p. 2)

Employers have recognized the high cost of poor health and chronic diseases among their employees (J. Burton, 2009). J. Burton (2009) noted a majority of efforts to foster healthy workplaces in the United States have included a focus on occupational health and safety and worksite health promotion, encouraging employees to adopt healthy lifestyle practices and thereby reduce health care costs that the majority of employers bear. According to Buck's (2012) survey of over 1,350 employers globally, other objectives for having a well-being strategy among U.S. employers include attracting and retaining employees, fulfilling social/community responsibility, furthering organizational values/mission, improving worker productivity/reducing presenteeism, improving workforce morale/engagement, improving workplace safety, maintaining work ability, promoting corporate image or brand, and reducing employee absences due to sickness or disability.

In Europe, according to J. Burton (2009), employers make a strong link between the health of the employees, the enterprise, and the community, as the European Network

for Workplace Health Promotion ([ENWHP], 2007) described health promotion as "the combined efforts of employers, employees and society to improve the health and well-being of people at work . . . through a combination of improving the organisation and environment, promoting the active participation in health activities and encouraging personal development" (p. 2). Focus areas the ENWHP (2007) advocated for workplace health promotion were corporate social responsibility, balanced lifestyles, enhancing health potential and well-being, positive mental health and stress, and corporate culture including leadership and staff development.

The 2012 Buck Survey of over 1,350 employers globally, including the United States, Latin America, Europe, Canada, Africa, the Middle East, Asia, and Australia found that respondents understood the importance of a culture of health, with 28% reporting a currently strong culture and 79% intending to pursue a culture of health for the future. Stress was the top priority for five of seven regions (Buck, 2012). Chronic disease is a high priority for U.S. organizations' employer-sponsored health benefit delivery system, but ranked much lower for most other regions (Buck, 2012). The top two reasons for focusing on health and well-being in the United States, as ranked by employers were first to reduce health care or insurance premium costs and second to improve worker productivity or reduce presenteeism; whereas in Europe and Canada, who have universal or government-sponsored versus employer-sponsored health care, the top two reasons for striving to impact positive health and well-being were ranked by employers to be improve workforce morale/engagement and reduce employee absences due to sickness or disability (Buck, 2012).

Employers globally recognize their role in employee well-being as 87% of over 1,350 employers noted managing employee health is a role of their organization, and responsibility for executing wellness or well-being strategies is most commonly held by corporate human resources (Buck, 2012). Education in the field of human resources should evolve to incorporate well-being and health promotion strategy and execution in its curriculum. Further, data led by Canada and the United States, improving the work environment affecting psychosocial aspects of health (including balancing demand and control, improving work climate, work design, etc.) is the fastest growing program element of well-being initiatives overall which is in line with the 2010 survey data and confirmed that employers understand that the work climate can have an important impact on employee well-being (Buck, 2012).

The top well-being strategy objective was to combat stress globally (Buck, 2012). Employer strategies to combat stress in organizations include offering an employee assistance program (74%), leadership development training (43%), and stress awareness education (42%). Other initiatives to align with this top objective include physical activity programs (41%), establishing flexible work schedules (39%), work–life balance support programs (34%), yoga/meditation (27%), enhancing the psychosocial work environment (25%), and resilience training (17%).

Employers are realizing they need to focus on more than the physical health and safety programs, and they have broadened their approach to looking at their overall culture. Allen, Golaszewski, and Edington (2012) described culture as shared values, organizational priorities, or "the way we do things around here" (p. 7), informal and formal influencers such as rewards, training, leadership, resource allocation, relationship

development, coworker support, organizational support and resources provided to achieve and maintain health, and organizational climate, described as the level of social cohesion perceived, sense of community, shared purpose, and positive outlook.

Allen et al. (2012) defined culture of health as "an organizational climate that promotes healthy lifestyle choices" (p. 7). An ideal culture of health includes senior leaders who champion health promotion and lead by example; ongoing communication with employees, including collecting feedback through climate surveys; support from all levels of the organization; program design that holistically addresses physical and psychosocial well-being; and work climate and organizational policies that support the health and well-being of employees. In Buck's (2012) global survey, 28% of respondents said they have a strong culture of health and 79% intend to pursue a culture of health for the future, which indicated this is a key imperative for organizations worldwide.

According to the 2011 annual report by the WHO, the U.S. health system ranked thirty-seventh in the world. One study indicated that 80% of health care spending by the United States was on chronic preventable illness (Anderson & Horvath, 2004). According to the Trust for America's Health (2011), the U.S. baby boomer generation may be the first one in history to live less healthy lives than their parents and the outlook for their children is even grimmer.

In the United States, the national public/private alliance US Healthiest, whose mission is to make the United States the healthiest nation in a healthier world (US Healthiest, 2012) started at the urging of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDCP). Its focus is working with organizational leaders and their workplaces to help assess the current state and provide a continuous improvement and measurement process

for assessing progress toward outcomes in building a culture of health. US Healthiest's signature initiative, HealthLead Accreditation areas identified include organizational and business alignment, health and well-being infrastructure and evaluation. The goal of the national initiative is to accelerate the rise of a culture of health and well-being in the United States to counter the ever-growing portion of the nation's financial resources spent on sick care (US Healthiest, 2012).

Climates that promote autonomy and flexibility in where, when, and how work gets done have been linked to intrinsic motivation (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004). Further, fostering autonomy and flexibility has reduced work–family conflict for individuals and families, organizational benefits in terms of increased productivity and reduced facility costs, and community benefits such as reduced greenhouse gas emissions, which all contribute to sustainability (Moen, Kelly, & Huang, 2008).

Actionable indicators provide awareness of an organization's current state and where it has potential to go in fostering a climate of well-being and thriving of its team. Nielsen et al. (2008) noted organizational leaders should gather and analyze data from employees' perceived work climate to determine whether organizational initiatives make an impact over time on both perceived work characteristics and employee well-being and determine whether they are improving team members' well-being at work over time.

Spreitzer et al. (2005) noted that though evidence is sparse, recent research provided insights about how work environments may enable thriving at work. One example they pointed out is by Keyes, Hyson, and Lupo (2001), who suggested effective leadership may contribute to employee well-being and positive health outcomes. Spreitzer et al. also discussed how enhancing mindful communication can create

competency and positive experiences that promote relationships that are the fuel for

thriving at work. Further, Porath and Spreitzer (2012) advised that organizational leaders

may foster thriving by providing decision-making discretion, which aligned with Baard et

al.'s (2004) research on intrinsic motivation. Sharing information about an organization

and creating an inspiring vision or core purpose aligns with Avolio and Bass's (1998)

research on transformational leadership and McKee, Boyatzis, and Johnston's (2005)

research on resonant leadership, building on Goleman's (1996, 2000) research on

emotional intelligence. Porath and Spreitzer suggested setting the tone for a respectful

and collegial environment, which also aligned with McKee et al.'s research on resonant

leadership. Lastly, Porath and Spreitzer suggested offering feedback, which aligns with

Goleman's (1996, 2000) and Boyatzis's (2007) research on emotional and social

intelligence.

Also aligned with Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) and Porath and Spreitzer's (2012)

research on thriving at work is Rego and Cunha's (2008) research on organizational

climate factors that create pathways to employee well-being and performance. Rego and

Cunha (2008) found that team camaraderie and opportunities for learning and growth

predict overall affective well-being and self-reported performance. Additionally, they

found opportunities for learning and growth directly predict self-reported performance.

Relatedly, perceptions of trust and credibility of the leader predict stress and overall well-

being (Rego & Cunha, 2008). In terms of work-family conciliation, Rego and Cunha

(2008) found that:

> Stress increases when people feel that they cannot take advantage of opportunities
> for learning and personal development due to some work–family conflict; stress
> decreases when people feel that those opportunities are aligned with good
> conditions to balance work and family roles (p. 748).

Rego and Cunha (2008) indicated that employees show less stress when they perceive their managers to be trustworthy, credible supportive of balancing work and family roles. Rego and Cunha noted having a lack of trust in the manager may create uncertainty that Rock (2011) may indicate would create a threat response in the brain, or the type of insecurity that Goleman (2011) might describe as a symbolic danger that may set off an amygdala hijack in the brain. Goleman described an amygdala hijack as a descriptor for when the brain's radar for threat goes off as a survival tool, impacting the prefrontal cortex in the brain. When this happens, it takes focus off of work, learning, innovation, or flexibility to adapt to a situation. People experiencing an amygdala hijack get the flight, fight, or freeze response, setting off the hypothalamic pituitary adrenal axis that floods the body with stress hormones, including cortisol and adrenaline (Goleman, 2011). The response may cause people to overreact to situations they would react to calmly in their natural state based on what may be considered symbolic dangers or perceived threats to egos. If this takes place over time, it may contribute to what Goleman (2011) referred to as chronic amygdala hijack, which is elevated stress level on an ongoing basis.

A mediator of this type of workplace stress may be interceded by organizational climates where employees perceive teamwork and support, promoting greater social well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010). T. Kasser and Ryan (1996) indicated when employees' social needs are met and they receive support for overcoming challenges or taking advantage of opportunities at work, they have less conflict in their relationships. Employees feel intrinsically motivated for having a sense of respect (Rego & Cunha,

2008). Similarly, Rego and Cunha (2008) found opportunities for development and growth and experience energy at work related to higher performance.

Rock (2011) proposes that to minimize the amygdala hijack or threat response as described by Goleman, leaders need to enable what Rock refers to as the reward response based on his SCARF model. First, through providing a sense of recognition for contributions and strengths of team members, Rock (2011) indicates, elevates feelings of competence and Status. Additionally, through sharing information about what is happening in the big picture with the organization, similar to Spreitzer et al. (2012)'s broad information sharing suggestion, Rock states will enhance a sense of Certainty or less ambiguity about what is happening and how each person contributes. Next, Rock (2011) proposes that leaders provide a sense of Autonomy, as has been discussed by Ryan and Deci (2000), de Vries (2001), Rego and Cuhna (2008), Pink (2009) and Spreitzer et al. (2012) through freedom to make decisions and flexibility in where, when and how one gets their work done so they have more of a sense of control or less of a sense that they are being controlled.

These authors suggest that leaders can provide a sense status or appreciation for individual competence and contribution, certainty through sharing pertinent information, autonomy or choice, relatedness or belonging/inclusion, and fairness in how they are treated compared to others, mediates the brain's threat response (Rock, 2011) and satisfies the intrinsic needs to enable both a sense of well-being at work and create higher effectiveness through engagement, supportive and collaborative teams, and foster an energized climate as well as a culture that creates productive change (de Vries, 2001; Pink, 2009; Rego & Cuhna, 2008; Rock, 2011; Spreitzer et al., 2012).

De Vries's (2001) research on what creates a healthy workplace was informed by a meta-analysis of Fortune's List of Most Admired Companies. De Vries noted this type of healthy climate will foster not only a sense of team effectiveness and competency, but also a sense of autonomy that drives initiative, creativity, and entrepreneurship. De Vries contended that the great challenge for organizational leaders in the 21st century is to create companies that possess these types of qualities. Working in a positive, healthy climate will become an antidote to work–life stress, foster a healthier way of being, enhance imagination, and ultimately contribute to a more enriching life (de Vries, 2001). De Vries found the importance of fostering an organizational climate that provides a sense of belonging, competence, meaning, purpose, impact, autonomy, and enjoyment.

There were many themes found in the literature review as to what aspects of organizational climate promote well-being at work. Rego and Cunha (2008) built on De Vries's (2001) research and added that to build healthy organizational climates, leaders must care about how employees view the work climate in fostering a sense of appreciation and impact similar to Porath et al.'s (2012) recommendations. Additionally, providing opportunities for employee learning and growth directly relates to learning in Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) thriving at work model, Ryan and Deci's (2000) intrinsic need for competence through SDT, as well as Pink's (2009) description of mastery. The degree to which leaders foster a sense of meaning in work, which relates to DeVries's sense of meaning and purpose, Pink's (2009) findings on intrinsic motivation, and Seligman's (2011) theory of well-being. Ryan and Deci's intrinsic need for relatedness also described as Spreitzer et al.'s (2012) call for appreciation of diversity, and De Vries's (2001) description of sense of belonging. Lastly, strategies to facilitate work–family balance,

relates to Aumann and Galinski's (2011) and "When Work Works's" (2012) call for

workflex and De Vries's sense of autonomy.

Rego and Cunha (2008) discussed Parker et al.'s (2003) argued that climate

assessments assessing quality of work-life may increase retention and performance.

Greenberg (2004) and Rego and Cunha (2008) noted simply managing employee

perceptions is not enough for promoting healthy work environments, as authentic

leadership behaviors are also important to sustainable efforts.

Also in the climate literature, Goleman's (2000) research built on previous

research by David McGregor, as well as Litwin and Stringer's (1968) research on

motivating and energizing climates. He summarized there are practices and

organizational climate factors that make a difference to a healthy bottom line and

thriving. Specifically, Goleman (2000) described six climate factors that influence

organizational effectiveness:

> 1. *Flexibility*, freedom to make decisions regarding one's own work without a lot of red tape and innovate autonomously.
> 2. Sense of *responsibility* to the organization.
> 3. The level of *standards* set.
> 4. A sense of accuracy about performance feedback and appropriateness of *rewards.*
> 5. *Clarity* about mission and values.
> 6. *Commitment* to a common purpose. (p. 81)

Goleman's (2000) distinguishing research on leadership also indicated that

leaders play an impactful role influencing the climate of the organization at a statistically

significant level and noted that different leadership styles result in varying organizational

effectiveness or performance. The McClelland Research Center/Hay Group indicated a

significant relationship exists between high-performing and energizing organizational

climates as a result of positive leadership styles, including visionary, participative,

affiliative, and coaching leadership styles as they create such positive outcomes as higher gross margin, revenue, and profits (Goleman, 2000; Sala, 2002). In this next section, each of the major themes uncovered in the literature will be discussed on greater depth.

    Belonging-inclusion. J. Burton (2009) noted that job satisfaction and team morale have an impact on the emotional and physical health of team members. This relates to why J. Burton (2009) indicated one of the key factors for a healthy workplace is an inclusive organizational climate. A theme running through many articles and publications on healthy workplaces is the importance of inclusiveness or diversity (J. Burton, 2009). Cox (2001) reported that diversity adds value in an organization, as there is an increase in problem solving, creativity and innovation, organizational agility, improved quality of talent, as well as retention, and enhanced marketing strategies. The business imperative is clear for creating an inclusive organization to help sell products to a larger audience and increase the bottom line (Pease, 2003). Pease (2003) also noted, that business organizations have moved from doing the right thing grounded in a moral imperative to one evolving toward a strategic imperative, and nonprofits who value inclusion believe becoming inclusive makes a difference in achieving their mission. J. Burton (2009) explained a healthy workplace should create an open, approachable, and accepting environment for people of differing backgrounds, demographics, and aptitudes. Employees should appreciate disparities among people while minimizing conflict, and any climate of incivility should be eliminated (J. Burton, 2009; Porath et al., 2012).

    Baumeister and Leary (1995), Deci and Ryan (1991), Rock (2011) and Ryff and Singer (1998) found that relatedness or positive relationships are an essential element in well-being and human flourishing, or having warm, trusting, and supportive relationships.

Harlow (1958) and Baumeister and Leary (1995) discussed the need for connection and

mutual respect as people are interdependent in their relationships. La Guardia, Ryan,

Couchman, and Deci (2000) noted these stable relationships have an impact on one's

sense of competence, relatedness, and autonomy based on those they are in a relationship

with, which affects satisfaction of intrinsic needs and therefore how they feel about their

partner. Carstensen's (1992, 1993) socioemotional selectivity theory and V. Kasser and

Ryan (1999) explained the quality of relationships impacts well-being. Reis et al. (2000)

found that people who have an opportunity to feel listened to, engage in meaningful

dialogue, and time to connect through fun activities have greater well-being through

relatedness. Ryff et al. (2000) found that positive relating results in secretions of

oxytocin, which facilitates positive mood and stress relief while other researchers found

social support positively impacted the autoimmune, endocrine, and cardiovascular

systems (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Rath and Harter (2010b) noted people tend to synchronize

their moods with those around them; therefore, a person's emotions are influencing

others throughout each day, and based on a 30-year longitudinal study of an

interconnected network, the odds of being happy increase by 15% if a direct connection

in one's network is happy (Fowler & Christaki, 2008). Therefore as Rath and Harter

(2010b) summarized, as people are embedded in a social network, their health and well-

being affects the health and well-being of others. They discuss how social networks have

impacted the smoking rate being cut in half over the last few decades due to peer

pressure, and how if one's spouse becomes obese, the odds of becoming obese increases

by 37% (Christakis & Fowler, 2009, 2007). However, if someone has a best friend with a

healthy diet, chances of that person being on a healthy diet increases by more than five

times (Rath, 2006). Rath and Harter (2010b) discuss Rath's (2006) finding that if people have at least three or four very close friendships, they tend to be more healthy, have higher well-being, and be more engaged in their jobs.

Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) indicated that climates of trust and respect promote a sense of autonomy, efficacy, and competence in mastering job requirements and exhibit risk taking (Edmondson, 1999; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Spreitzer, 1995). Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) also indicated building trust and respect within the organizational climate enhances learning and experimenting with new skills or competencies (Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002; Spreitzer, 1995) and enhances one's sense of value as a team member of the organization by fostering relatedness at work (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Spreitzer et al. (2012) found in their sample of employees working at nonprofits who often work with people in other countries that promoting a global identity and how team members belong to the broader global organization was predictive of thriving. Promoting diversity is new lever that Spreitzer et al. (2012) identified in building a climate that promotes appreciation for differences, trust, and inclusion. Spreitzer et al. (2012) noted that organizations striving to improve inclusiveness, promote and encourage people to be themselves and encourage appreciation of diversity of thoughts, ideas and viewpoints in making critical contributions to the organization's success. Spreitzer et al.'s study of a variety of organizations indicated that climates that enhance inclusion greatly impact satisfaction among other attitude, as do supportive family practices and equal opportunities contributing to a positive climate of inclusion (Spreitzer et al., 2012).

Further, the researchers encouraged facilitating discussion to address concerns or issues brought forward or out from under the surface and paths to navigate them accordingly, by providing opportunities to express and appreciate the ideas and perspectives of others (Spreitzer et al., 2012). The sense of belonging created by an inclusive climate provides a psychologically secure environment where all people feel encouraged to be themselves and may feel cared about more broadly, which impacts their well-being as both learning about and appreciating others and feeling appreciated enhance vitality and thriving, which may energize a team (Spreitzer et al., 2012). This also relates to Rock's (2011) research on the brain's reward response to a sense of certainty of threat response if that sense of certainty is compromised. If an organization or leader does not foster a sense of belonging or inclusion, employees may conform and not disclose important aspects of who they are or their ideas and perspectives that may have high value. This risk aversion and being unable to be one's authentic self at work also deters thriving as it is cognitively, emotionally, and physically draining, versus being free to express and be congruent with one's self which enables thriving, through vitality (Spreitzer et al., 2012)

Sense of meaning-purpose. Spreitzer et al. (in press) noted organizational leaders who take time to share the organization's direction and strategy, performance indicators, and competitor information enable thriving as it helps employees improve understanding of the larger purpose and meaning in their work and connect with how their personal contributions impact organizational success and align with organizational values. This broad information sharing also provides employees the needed insight to uncover problems as they arise with a sense of urgency, make decisions that meet the

needs of the organization, and integrate actions they may need to coordinate or collaborate with others across the organization (Spreitzer et al., forthcoming). Understanding strategic and financial information helps employees perform their work effectively and broadens their perspective on the company's purpose and how everyone is living and working in alignment with its purpose and values (Spreitzer et al., forthcoming). Employees' elevated understanding aids in responding effectively in new or difficult situations and creates opportunity for learning experimentation with new competencies, which enables thriving (Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002; Spreitzer et al., forthcoming). When organizational information is shared, employees can address the challenges with solutions enhanced by their understanding of how the system works (Spreitzer et al., forthcoming; Weick & Sutcliffe, 2001). By gaining insight on the big picture, individuals can see their personal impact on larger organizational contributions and how they are integrated with others and their work, which enhances relatedness (Spreitzer et al., forthcoming).

Having a sense of meaning and purpose also relates to Rath and Harter's (2010b) description of community well-being as being engaged and involved where one lives and how helping or doing the right thing for others promotes deeper social connections, enhances the sense of meaning or purpose one has, and leads to a fuller life, which keeps people from becoming preoccupied with their own worries. Similarly, in Seligman's (2011) theory of well-being, meaning is the element described as contributing to one's well-being through connecting with something important and larger than oneself.

Other researchers have found links between well-being, happiness, and meaningfulness (King & Napa, 1998; McGregor & Little, 1998). McGregor and Little

(1998) found that efficacy of goal pursuits was associated with happiness, and living in alignment with values and goal achievement was associated with meaningfulness. Deeply held values and what one views as important plays an important role in well-being, as do cultural aspects and what one finds meaningful in terms of balancing the attainment of each core need. Further, providing meaning from performing work helps to develop competencies toward the attainment of potential (Rego & Cunha, 2008). Spreitzer et al. (2012) posited that to increase thriving, people who are proactive in crafting their roles to connect to what is meaningful and provides a sense of purpose for them personally, may include seeking ways to help others, which can generate positive energy. As can ensuring tasks aligned with one's interest, strengths or passion brings a sense of congruence with oneself is intrinsically energizing.

Fritz, Lam, and Spreitzer (2011) indicated that leaders can have a tremendous influence on thriving through helping to create a sense of meaning and purpose through work. Fritz et al. indicated that by deriving purpose or meaning from work, all members of the organization can influence thriving, though leaders can play a significant role. Organizational leaders may impact thriving by aligning their purpose, values, policies, and culture with supporting the greater good, whether through giving money, pursuing volunteer opportunities, or connecting employees with ways to give back to the communities and causes that are meaningful to them.

In transformational leadership literature, there is a shared risk and value alignment between leaders and teams, where followers view their leaders in an *idealized* way and are highly influenced by them and their mission and values (Avolio & Bass, 1998). If leaders are able to create a sense of meaning and purpose in their teams' work, the work

may align with idealized influences as one of the transformational leadership factors. Avolio and Bass's (1998) description of inspirational leadership indicates that team members are motivated by leaders who provide meaning and challenge to their work. Team members feel enthusiastic and optimistic as their leader encourages them to see an ideal future state that they can envision reaching and are motivated to achieve. Avolio and Bass (1998) noted followers develop trust and confidence in their leader and are inspired to go further in their performance to reach their shared ideal future state.

Fritz et al. (2011) found that giving energy resources to peers is related to thriving, and receiving resources from others also fuels thriving. Therefore, leaders who encourage team members to give their energy to team members to help align each other with a higher level purpose, including information, access, and positivity in their approach as Spreitzer et al. (2012) notes that the most important resources received from others include positive emotion and a sense of meaning. Also contagious is a personal network of friends or colleagues who have a sense of purpose in what they do at work provides a sense of impact and meaning that increases their network's level of thriving (Spreitzer, in press). Fredrickson's (2001) broaden and build theory found that positivity can fuel experiences of well-being, and Deci and Ryan (2004) and Pink (2009) found meaning fuels intrinsic motivation.

Recent studies have also shown correlations between leadership behaviors and positive meaning through work (Arnold et al., 2007; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006) by giving people a purpose and connection between the value of their work and how it connects to the larger picture of the organization. Bass (1990) noted leaders positively create meaning for team members when they provide clarity on the direction they are headed and facilitate goal

achievement through influencing priorities in a way that each member knows how he or she directly contributes and is aligned with the organization's core purpose and values. Bass (1985) discussed this process as creating a framework where change can occur in a way that is aligned and supported at the top, visibly measured, and openly communicated. Porath and Spreitzer (2012) discussed the importance of sharing information in this way including where the company is heading and performance indicators grounded in core values and purpose. As leaders set goals and key performance indicators, each department and individual can align with the organization's top priorities throughout the entire organization. This process creates teamwork through a shared purpose and helps promote optimistic communication throughout the organization that also provides meaning for each task at hand (Nielsen et al., 2008). Leadership that creates vision, inspires creativity in team members, and broadens team member interest in their work while encouraging innovation is linked to employee well-being (Nielsen et al., 2008). Further, by providing meaning and a motivating vision, leaders may engage teams to go further and encourage their self-initiative to their own career path and personal and professional development (Bass, 1990; Tichy & Ulrich, 1984).

Nielsen et al. (2008) explained leaders improve team members' well-being by helping connect people with the meaningful work they do each day as it relates to the broader organizational purpose and providing role clarity through clear expectations and opportunities to develop. Other research has indicated that this type of leadership can be developed and can be a more economic and impactful way of change to improve the climate compared to other organizational interventions (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). Nielsen et al. (2008) noted organizational leaders who gather and analyze data from

employees' perceived work characteristics should help to determine what training and leadership development initiatives would make an impact on both perceived work climate and employee well-being.

Bunderson and Thompson (2009), who found that those with a strong sense of calling find expanded meaning or significance in the work they do, discussed a potential limit of thriving. Such people identify personally with work, are more likely to see their work as a moral duty, and may sacrifice extrinsic rewards such as pay and personal time as such rewards do not drive their focus on holding their work to their highest personal standard (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009). Bunderson and Thompson further described how a sense of calling has both advantages and disadvantages due to the complex reality of deeply meaningful work. A potential outcome is that meaningful work can become difficult to turn off and potentially lead to putting the work or the process of learning to master the work before self-care. Similarly, information on curiosity and zest in character strengths research and in thriving research indicates learning without energy may become counterproductive and even lead to burnout (Park et al., 2004).

Self-leadership focuses on natural rewards to foster intrinsic motivation that stems from feeling a sense of competence, autonomy, or control and having a sense of purpose (Manz, 1986). When team members see their work as meaningful or connected to a higher purpose, their focus increases to make it a priority in their life (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Cameron et al. (2003) noted obtaining positive meaning through work helps people retain focus on the higher purpose even when facing adversity.

Leaders motivate followers by defining and communicating an organization's purpose, which encourages team members to focus on elevating intrinsic motivational

levels by actively engaging the self-concept, self-confidence, self-esteem, and eventual self-actualization of their followers (Avolio & Bass, 1998; Maslow, 1943). Avolio and Bass (1998) indicated transformational leaders inspire beyond performance levels to meet the team's purpose and elevate their goals to align with the importance of the organization overall. Avolio and Bass (1998), Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) depicted the strong attachment between transformational leaders and their teams as one that transforms the personal values and self-concepts of followers in a way that broadens and elevates followers' wants and desires to focus on achieving higher level needs and ultimately reach their potential.

Hargrove (1996) explained leaders must start with being present with their team and move beyond traditional management and extrinsic motivators to link company goals to what people care about that aligns with their personal strengths and passions. Avolio and Bass (1998) contended that transformational leaders are stronger than others exhibiting different styles as they greatly impact the intrinsic motivation of subordinates through the development of high value and purpose alignment.

When a leader or team member has identified and feels aligned with a higher purpose, exploration increases and individuals do their best thinking and see the new solutions to the problems they encounter (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Lastly, purpose also enables more mindful relating among leaders and their team as meaning is often created in relation to other people (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Spreitzer's (in press) research also indicates that the collective team is more likely to thrive if the leader provides meaning and coaching to reflect on the positive meaning or purpose to increase each team

member's feeling of interdependence and commitment to support each other and those they serve.

Organizational well-being initiatives should encourage and provide greater transparency into the effects of giving. Spreitzer (in press) suggested that giving improves vitality and growth and demonstrates the impact of positive, energizing relationships on thriving. Those who provide positive energy and decision-making support report greater levels of thriving, especially when leaders do so with team members (Spreitzer, in press). Spreitzer et al.'s (2012) research contributed to the positive organizational scholarship literature (Cameron et al., 2003) by expanding on ways giving as well as receiving resources also matters for thriving and well-being more generally.

Economic security ranked first in relative importance among employee rankings of general health, frequency of minor health problems, signs of depression, sleep problems, and stress (Aumann & Galinsky, 2011). T. Kasser and Ryan (1996) and Schmuck et al. (2000) found that as people focus more on money or materialistic goals, they experience a decline in their overall well-being. The decline occurred in western countries, including the United States and Germany, and in developing countries such as India and Russia (Ryan et al., 1999).

Sheldon and Kasser (1998) noted achievement toward meaningful goals enhances well-being. They also found striving toward financial or extrinsic goals improves well-being to a lesser extent than progress toward intrinsic goals. Carver and Baird (1998) indicated that the negative relationship between finances or wealth and well-being was in part due to the loss of autonomy that comes with increased income. As lower well-being

is associated with overvaluing extrinsic goals, such as monetary incentives, caution should be considered in rewards and incentives (Ryan et al., 1999). Deci and Ryan (1987) explained extrinsic incentives may reduce enjoyment of the work itself, thereby reversing the natural effects of intrinsic motivation.

Sense of support for growth-mastery. The learning construct in Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) thriving model is based on Carver's (1998) and Elliott and Dweck's (1988) definition of learning as a sense of growth and development through continual attainment or knowledge and transferring new skills to practice. Ryan and Deci (2000) refer to being able to gain mastery through learning as an intrinsic driver of motivation. Organizations that offer the opportunity to learn and master work in an autonomous way that brings individuals meaning and purpose may foster the intrinsic motivation of the team members (Pink, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci (2000) also posited that satisfying these intrinsic needs provides the essential psychosocial nutriments for psychological growth and development. However as Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) indicated, it is important to keep in mind that self-determination is the key mechanism for how context affects behavior. People have an innate predisposition toward growth and development to master ongoing challenges and to integrate their social environment and tasks in a way that brings out their full sense of self where they can live in congruence with what is intrinsically motivating (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, and Deci (1996) noted SDT defines intrinsic needs as innate necessities, nutriments essential for optimal human development to promote psychological health, and are satisfied in one's social environment**.** Gagne and Deci (2005) discuss how identifying with aspects of one's full self, such as roles, interests, and values, promotes the role of the individual or

the environment as an integral part of who that person is, emanating the individual's sense of self, and when regulation is then self-determined.

Spreitzer et al. (2012) found that opportunities to innovate through learning new knowledge or skills enhance thriving, as does developing a new competency. In one study, measuring thriving both prior to and once a collaboration skills training was complete, participants who came ready with high motivation to transfer the learning back in their roles, had enhanced levels of thriving once the training was complete. Spreitzer et al. posited that those who thrive acknowledge the need to continually learn through training, volunteering for a new responsibility, taking on a new role, or seeking out learning and development on the job to impact their level of thriving.

Robbins and Judge (2010) noted that enhancing growth and potential through coaching can influence a person's motivation and also improve their performance and job satisfaction, as well as reduce absence and turnover. Research has also shown how people value and think about themselves and the world and is significantly associated with measures of health and well-being (Germer, 2009; Hartman, 1967; Neff, 2011; Pomeroy, 2005). Feedback provides an opportunity for people to gain holistic or well-rounded appraisals of how they are perceived, which enhances their perspective regarding their self-awareness of their current state and helps them to see progress over time, which reduces stress that can deter thriving (Spreitzer et al., 2012). As manager's incorporate coaching into one's leadership style or through offering executive coaching to team members, developmental activities may also align with personal, professional, and organizational goals, which enables thriving (Spreitzer et al., 2012).

Another way organizational leaders can enhance thriving through developmental feedback is by using 360-degree evaluations (Spreitzer et al., 2012). By collecting feedback from supervisors, coworkers, direct reports, and even customers, leaders get a much fuller, more holistic sense of how they are doing and are being perceived in terms of development opportunities, and when complemented by executive coaching, feedback of this nature and the reflection coaching prompts can be essential to enhance thriving (Spreitzer et al., 2012). In a study on an executive leadership program Spreitzer et al. (2012) collaborated on, the researchers assessed thriving prior to and following a leadership focused multi-rater feedback tool and executive coaching. Leaders had a significant shift in thriving by creating new awareness about their personal strengths and development opportunities and by experiencing energy and motivation to take personal action by reflecting on opportunities prompted by coaching (Spreitzer et al., 2012). This type of organizational and leadership development intervention may also be integrated with an organization's focus on fostering a climate of well-being and helping connect the link for leaders and their teams on how this form of learning enhances career well-being and thriving at work. The learning process may enhance not only professional growth but also personal growth, thriving in life, or positive work-to-family spillover. Another area for future research may be to incorporate family members' or friends' perspectives outside of work to help assess progress over time on congruence or living in alignment with one's personal goals.

Doest, Maes, Gebhardt, and Koelewijn (2006) found that attaining goals aligned with self-mastery predicted well-being over time. Further, Pornaki, Karoly, and Maes (2009) noted leaders of organizations who are interested in retaining their employees and

fostering well-being should take employees' goals into consideration and encourage organizations to provide resources to support goal progress. Leaders who provide goal-setting leadership and support were predicted to show positive associations with job satisfaction and employee well-being (Edwards, 1992). In addition, a system that incorporates a review of the reasons for success or the barriers to achieving goals could help increase self-actualization and in goal achievement (Pornaki et al., 2009). Sheldon and Kasser (1998) found that goal progress enhanced subjective well-being and reduced symptoms of depression.

The Families and Work Institute (2008) indicated job challenge and learning are the most important predictors of engagement relative to other effective workplace factors. Deci and Ryan (2000, 2011), Baard, Deci, and Ryan (2004), and Rego and Cunha (2008) found employees who view their work as intrinsically fulfilling are more creative in their work when they have a sense of learning and growth as well as a sense of impact from their contributions. Rego and Cunha found a direct connection between having opportunities for growth and development as well as enhanced performance.

In Avolio and Bass's (1998) transformational leadership literature, which has been associated with well-being, the intellectual stimulation factor is when team members are stimulated to be innovative and creative by rethinking their own beliefs, reconsidering problems through a new lens, and reframing issues or situations in new ways. Leaders encourage team members to learn from their mistakes and leverage the lessons learned to come up with new ideas; leaders facilitate the generation of innovative answers to problems from the collective team, building on each other's ideas, which creates more conscious awareness of their own and their team members' thoughts, imagination, and

recognition of values thereby encouraging exploratory and strategic thinking through reflection, thought-provoking questions, and visioning (Avolio & Bass, 1998). This idea generation or creative process aligns with Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) discussion on learning and growth through exploration in their thriving research.

  Coaching and thriving. The International Coaching Federation (2010) described coaching as partnering with clients in thought-provoking and creative processes that help inspire momentum toward reaching one's personal and professional potential. Downey (1999) referred to coaching as the art of facilitating learning and development as well as performance. The term developmental coaching is described as "voluntary, participative engagement focused on learning and goal achievement", (Hunt & Weintraub, 2007, p. 38). Hunt and Weintraub (2011) noted developing leaders as coaches is a viable way to expand organizational growth, learning, and development.

  Hargrove (1996) explained coaching is an integrative process that challenges and supports people in a way that expands their capacities to create or achieve desired results, which also means helping people become more aware or conscious of misalignment between their stated priorities and their values, demonstrated by their behavior, which may lead to unintended and potentially unwanted outcomes. Wrzesniewski et al. (2010) noted crafting roles and goals in ways that increase one's sense of learning and positive energy may increase one's level of thriving. Self-adaptation is also an important component of Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) thriving-at-work model. A transformational leader can help raise awareness through coaching, as this involves self-direction of goals and related strategies over time and across new and varying situations. In addition, the thriving-at-work model posits that people self-adapt when they become in tune with their

personal level of vitality and sense of growth through self-assessments, a common component of the coaching process, which may help people become more self-aware through reflection on what they want to adapt and change towards what they are wanting. In this way, people can pay attention to their own self-assessments as significant cues to self-initiate change through a new way of thinking (Spreitzer et al., 2005).

In contrast, command-and-control leadership exhibited by authoritative orders builds an environment of fear, distrust, and internal competitiveness and does not support collaboration or cooperation, which is why this form of transactional leadership is on the low end of Avolio and Bass's (1998) full-range leadership continuum. Trevelyan (1998) noted that this form of leadership fosters compliance instead of commitment, which is counterintuitive when only authentic commitment can bring about the audacity, imagination, endurance, and resilience needed for an effective organization or team.

Reflection to find positive meaning or purpose fosters resilience when reexamining an experience as an opportunity to become stronger and to stay focused in difficult times (Davis, Nolen-Hoeksema, & Larsen 1998). This type of healthy reflection may often happen through supportive coaching.

In transformational leadership literature, Avolio and Bass (1998) described how individualized support behavior exhibited by leaders is a crucial factor in determining employee perceptions toward satisfaction, as well as their roles and competencies. Individualized support also correlates to a team member's confidence in his or her leader in terms of trust and performance, selflessness, care, and civility (Avolio & Bass, 1998). Individualized support also negatively relates to perceptions of role conflict among followers, indicating that employees who perceive their leaders to be providing

individualized support develop more trust, satisfaction, productivity, selflessness, care, and civility (Avolio & Bass, 1998). Individualized consideration is described as leaders understanding each team member's need for accomplishment and development as well as acting as a coach or mentor to develop each individual to reach increased levels of potential. Through this process, new learning opportunities become apparent as each individual's unique needs, desires, and strengths are recognized (Avolio & Bass, 1998). Further, leaders do this by delegating and assigning tasks on an individual level to provide opportunities to develop and leverage each person's strengths to support growth through one-to-one mentoring and coaching (Avolio & Bass, 1998). Zaleznik (1977) found this type of interpersonal influence and frequent quality interaction critical in assessing a true leader from a manager.

A primary characteristic of transformational leadership is referred to as the cascading or falling domino effect, whereby success is measured not only by hard metrics, including correlations to productivity or performance, but also by considering the leader's development of other team members into effective leaders (Avolio & Bass, 1998). Therefore, transformational leadership is measured both by individual leaders' performance and by the development of their team members reaching higher levels of leadership potential (Avolio & Bass, 1998). In this way, transformational leader's teams have a sense of ownership and feel competent in demonstrating effective leadership.

Transformational leaders set free each team member's energy and passion, allowing them to take control of their own work and solve their own problems (Avolio & Bass, 1998). Transformational leadership style and leaders' ability to coach and mentor their teams to reach their potential enables members to learn, have energy, and thrive

based on the definition by Spreitzer et al. (2005). Barling, Loughlin, and Kelloway (2002) posited that leadership style related to higher rates of occupational safety, while and Barling, Kelloway, and Iverson (2003) found that high-quality jobs that offer autonomy, including control or influence in their work and how it gets done, as well as learning and role variety, directly and indirectly affects safety through higher employee morale and job satisfaction.

Carver and Scheier (1999) found that feeling self-assured to reach valued goals contributes to well-being. Waterman (1993) noted that growth-oriented, challenging goals viewed as important or meaningful were related to well-being. Goals that create a balance between enjoying life and being responsible to others may be more likely to create a state of flow (Csiksentmihalyi, 1997), while low expectations of success may reduce positive affect or outcomes (Emmons, 1986). Brunstein (2000) found that goal–motive congruence was important in enhancing well-being. How the goal is anchored in the self will show up in the level of well-being and cultivates use of self in goal progress, whereas incongruence detracts from progress and well-being. Skinner (1995) and White (1959) described competence as wanting to succeed at challenges that lead to personally meaningful challenges.

Being coached increases a person's the level of thriving, but coaching also enhances the coach or leader's own thriving, as the coach experiences personal growth in the process (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Spreitzer, in press). Mentoring may also increase thriving, as when individuals give information, meaning, and access to team members, as Spreitzer (in press) found leaders who give energy and access to decision makers greatly increase thriving. However, in peer relationships, giving career advice, a knowledge

resource, detracts from thriving, as does providing negative feedback, which is difficult and drains one's vitality (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Therefore coaching focused not on telling but rather on asking questions and listening may be more conducive to thriving.

Leaders may also be reminded that they are in a unique role to serve and guide people with positive energy, providing purpose through their commitment and actions, development, positive feedback, access, energy, and resources for the benefit of their team members as this has the strongest enriching effect on their own level of thriving (Spreitzer, in press). Also, leaders giving career advice to team members is positive (Spreitzer, in press), which supports the idea that coaching and mentoring others can be a source of renewal and growth for the leader (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). This study revealed whether coaching from the team member's perspective also relates to a higher level of thriving than those who perceive lower coaching and mentoring competencies in their leader. Leaders can also influence through coaching and mentoring others for their personal development. Fritz et al. (2011) found important intrinsic benefits for leaders who give resources to their teams. These intrinsic benefits should not be underestimated given performance and well-being outcomes associated with thriving, including more innovative behavior, increased productivity, higher levels of resilience, higher performance, and reduced health care costs (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Porath et al., 2011; Spreitzer & Porath, 2012).

As leaders experience a form of stress unique to those in positions of authority and decision-making discretion called power stress (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005), the literature on thriving indicates that a potential mediator of stress may be found in utilizing a coaching leadership style (Spreitzer, in press). Boyatzis and McKee (2005) indicated

coaching others provides leaders with the opportunity to practice and experience compassion, which he also described as empathy in action. Practicing compassion may mediate or balance a leader's level of stress and increase his or her level of thriving as well (Spreitzer, in press).

      Flexibility-autonomy. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) described autonomy as a sense of trust and support employees have to make their own decisions in carrying out their role to be most effective, including schedule, work tasks, and procedures. The autonomy of being able to participate in goal-setting and actions toward progress is of critical importance in well-being, as only self-endorsed goals enhance well-being, which is supported across cultures and genders (Chirkov & Ryan, 2001; Hyamizu, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vallarand, 1997). DeCharms (1968) and Deci (1975) discussed the need for autonomy as wanting to experience choice and a sense of being the initiator of one's own actions. Autonomy in one's goals, values, and life tasks is defined in the SDT theory (Ryan & Deci, 2001), whereas putting too much value in extrinsic goals reduces well-being (Ryan et al., 1999). Reis et al. (2000) demonstrated that autonomy is associated with well-being. Muraven et al. (2008) conducted three experiments and found autonomous behavior provides a sense of vitality and is related to fewer physical ailments, quicker recovery from energy depletion or fatigue, and improved performance (Spreitzer et al., in Press). Ryff et al.'s (1998) dimension of autonomy is descriptive of a sense of autonomy described in Ryan and Deci's (2000) SDT, in Pink's (2009) discussion of autonomy that leads to intrinsic motivation, as well as Rock's (2011) research on the brain's intrinsic need for autonomy.

Harlow, Harlow, and Meyer (1950) described autonomous motivation as having a sense of choice, whereas controlled motivation involves external pressure and demand toward specific outcomes and autonomy means acting with choice (Pink, 2009). Harlow et al. (1950) also noted that having this sense of choice through autonomous motivation promotes enhanced conceptual learning; higher grades; and heightened perseverance at school, in sports, and at work in terms of productivity while having reduced burnout and enhanced psychological well-being (Pink, 2009). Pink (2009) summarized Baard et al.'s (2004) research on the effects of autonomy in the workplace, where leaders understood and responded to their employees' perspectives; gave meaningful feedback and information, choice in their work, and support and encouragement for team members to take on new projects enhanced job satisfaction; and thereby led to higher performance on the job. Further, Pink (2009) reported in a study of 320 small businesses, half with leaders granting autonomy at work and the other half relying on directives from the top, those encouraging autonomy were four times more successful in terms of growth and retention compared to top-down oriented companies who had two thirds more voluntary turnover. Further, Ryan, and Deci (2000) research on self-determination linked autonomy in one's work to an enhanced sense of vitality.

Spreitzer et al. (forthcoming) noted Amabile's (1993) report that providing autonomy through discretion in decision making boosts exploration and learning when people are empowered at work. For example, being able to self-select or intentionally choose how, when, or where they work, employees may be more proactive in discovering new ways to perform their work effectively (Spretizer et al., forthcoming). Spreitzer (1996) noted encouraging individuals to develop new competencies and master new skills

leads them to become more comfortable taking risks with decisions and explore broader

challenges and opportunities (Spreitzer et al., in Press). Spreitzer et al. (in Press) reported

if people feel they have little discretion to choose their own ways of working or to

influence their own working conditions, they will become less engaged, especially when

facing difficult challenges; whereas when they have a sense of autonomy they feel more

vital (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Rath and Conchie (2008) stated that by initiating programs aimed at helping

employees boost their overall well-being and encouraging autonomy so people can find

ways to put their family or personal priorities in line with their work priorities, leaders

elicit feelings of positivity. Further the leaders are likely to be described as

compassionate, thereby engendering trust (Rath & Conchie, 2008). In transformational

leadership literature, Avolio and Bass (1998) noted team members are provided with

increased autonomy to focus on what they are trying to achieve while their leader

encourages their development in a way that supports achievement of their full potential,

which relates to inspirational leadership and has been associated with well-being.

There are also positive organizational outcomes of satisfying the intrinsic or core

needs, as Ryan and Deci (2000, 2004) posited when the intrinsic needs of people are met,

including competence, autonomy, and relatedness, that intrinsic motivation, job

satisfaction, and trust in the organization all promote better work performance (Deci,

Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981; Deci et al., 1989). Baard et al. (2004) defined

autonomy support as a work climate that consists of an interpersonal relationship leaders

have with team members. This relationship creates opportunities for team members to

participate in goal setting, decision making, and work planning. Leaders can model

autonomy support by acknowledging their team members' perspectives, providing them with meaningful information in a respectful way, offering opportunities for team members to make their own choices and encourage self-initiative (Deci, Egharari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994). Leaders who facilitate intrinsic need satisfaction of autonomy are also promoting intrinsic motivation and performance (Benware & Deci, 1984; Deci et al., 1981; Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri, & Holt, 1984).

Research by the Families and Work Institute contributed to the study of providing autonomy through workplace flexibility, more recently described as workflex (Aumann & Galinsky, 2011). Workplace flexibility options may include compressed work weeks, work various hours that best fits the needs of a team's work and life priorities, telecommuting, part-time schedules, job sharing, and more trust to get the job done regardless of the number of hours worked through a focus on the overall results versus face time (Aumann & Galinsky, 2011). E. Galinsky (2012) referred to workflex as not only allowing access to flexibility, but also taking advantage of it for the benefit of the entire team, including the manager, coworkers, and the organization, as all are critical to its impact. Work–life fit is a high predictor of job satisfaction and intent to stay in one's job; therefore, it is highly related to reduced turnover and higher retention of key employees (Aumann & Galinsky, 2011; Work and Family Institute, 2008). Work–life fit was the highest rated indicator for better overall health, better sleep, and low stress levels, while autonomy was the second highest predictor associated with low frequency of minor health problems and fewer signs of depression (Aumann & Galinsky, 2011).

Cartensen, Mayr, Pasupathi, and Nesselroade (2000) posited a major shift in adulthood is the evolving prominence of social goals and its relationship to social well-

being, specifically as younger adults in the early stages of personal and professional growth and longer futures, prepare for and are motivated to gain new knowledge, skills, and experience, even when it may require social well-being to be curbed. The reverse trend is that as people get older, they become aware of the shorter future in front of them, and after already accruing needed knowledge, those more experienced in life prioritize social well-being or emotional goals and appreciate the moments with others as they experience them more fully (Carstensen, Mayr, Pasupathi, & Nesselroade, 2000). Therefore as one ages, subjective social well-being increases (Carstensen, 1998; Mroczek & Kolarz, 1998).

Carstensen's (1992, 1993) socioemotional selectivity theory emphasizes that age impacts focus on the satisfaction of emotionally meaningful goals, which encompasses much more than simply feeling good or the relentless pursuit of happiness (Carstensen et al., 2000). Discovering meaning in current relationships, including those that may be wrought with conflict, becomes a principal task later in life, even as emotional experiences consequently become more complex (Carstensen et al., 2000).

Carstensen's (1992, 1993) socioemotional selectivity theory indicates that as people age, they are more selective about who they are around and consciously choose to spend more time with those whose positive interactions will maximize their own social well-being. Social networks also begin to shrink in later life, and significant relationships such as marriage motivate older people to master the realm of emotion, including self-awareness and self-regulation, which are the foundation of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000, 2011).

Levenson, Carstensen, and Gottman (1994) noted age impacts mastery in positive emotional expertise and takes an active role in designing and optimizing the emotional environment in relationships, especially marriage, which may relate to higher positive emotion and well-being experienced later in life versus earlier. A potential subject for future research would be to see if older and more experienced employees are more likely to rate sense of belonging/inclusion as more important and relates their level of thriving at a higher level than younger employees earlier in their careers. If the research indicates that people are more intentional about their social environments later in life, they may select work environments where they are more apt to have closer or higher quality relationships with their supervisor, peers, or team, or perhaps it may become a higher priority than for those earlier in their career who may put a higher value on gaining knowledge, experience, and advancement.

Whereas younger adults have a greater focus on self-development, new experiences, building knowledge and competence, and self-acceptance (Carstensen, 1998; Ryff, 1989b), older adults are more interested in positively coping with change, depth, and expressiveness (Carstensen, 1998). Baard et al. (2004) found that people of all ages have competence, relatedness, and autonomy as three innate needs that, when met, relate to positive work outcomes. When employees are flourishing at work, they are interested in learning, approach challenges with confidence and enthusiasm, evaluate themselves positively, are creative, cope well, make good use of resources, and are responsive to rewards (Bono et al., 2011). Evidence shows that when employees flourish, are autonomously motivated, are happy with their jobs, and are engaged with

their work, they also perform better and are less likely to leave an organization (Bono et al., 2011).

Bono et al. (2011) suggested a notable topic for research in the future is how to create the types of environments in which all employees can flourish, allowing for challenge, learning, meaningful goals, strong relationships, and sensitivity to rewards. Although Bono et al. cautioned that if employees have low self-esteem, experience and express negative emotions, expect the worst, and are afraid to take chances, it may not matter how supportive their work environment is (Bono et al., 2011). The challenge for organizations then becomes how to create the freedom that individuals without these set-backs can create on their own, while at the same time using organizational interventions or leadership practices to bring out the best in employees who need more support and nurturing (Bono et al., 2011).

Bono et al. (2011) noted a practical theoretical question for future research is how best to manage, support, and nourish people who do not have positive self-regard, high extraversion, or relatedness qualities. They also suggest including those who avoid rather than approach risk taking or pursuing goals or challenges even if they are in their own best interest and have low persistence to see goals through when encountering obstacles or low coping skills to deal with stress and change. Bono et al. looked at innate qualities of people who are naturally more likely to flourish, such as those with high core self-evaluations and high extraversion qualities that are part of one's state or personality, that are hard to develop. Considering the spiral effect core self-evaluations (CSE) have with those who have high self-efficacy develop an even higher self-efficacy through success as high core self-evaluations will broaden and build on their level of flourishing and

encourage more persistence in the face of obstacles (Bono et al., 2011). Bono et al. suggested this is because high CSEs are more likely to view failures as learning opportunities and are more likely to perform successfully based on their positive self-view. Deci and Ryan (2001) indicated that satisfaction of intrinsic needs will foster intrinsic motivation and enhanced effectiveness, as well as well-being and effective performance. This study looks at states of mindfulness and self-efficacy which can be developed over time.

Sense of impact-engagement. Engagement means losing track of time or being in a state of being in flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), high involvement, and strong feeling of commitment to high performance of work responsibilities and high energy; when someone is engaged, he or she is in the opposite state of burnout (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). High energy in flow also relates to Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) research on vitality; therefore, one may expect to see a positive relationship between sense of engagement and vitality. Additionally experiencing flow at work has been linked to feeling more energy at home (Demerouti, Bakker, Sonnentag, & Fullagar, 2012).

Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, and Taris (2008) described engagement as, "a positive, fulfilling motivational state of well-being through work characterized by vigor or stamina, dedication or commitment, and absorption or getting lost in one's work" (p. 187). Although there is not one common or agreed upon definition of engagement, those who study engagement agree that engaged employees have high levels of energy and are connected to their work to the point that they may lose track of time (Bakker et al., 2008; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Maslach & Goldberg, 1998).

Spreitzer et al. (2012) noted that sharing information enhances engagement and thriving collectively as team members learn more about the big picture, and have more meaning in their work and connect to how they contribute to organizational success. Additionally, this leadership practice gives team members the insight into how their work affects the organization's larger purpose, achievement of goals and values that may be important to everyone (Spreitzer, 1996; Spreitzer et al., 2012). In summary, providing access and insight on the corporate strategy and key performance indicators help team members perform their work effectively, and also provides perspective on how the company is doing and how each team member personally makes an impact.

Rath and Harter (2010b) noted that each person's well-being is critical to an organization's success, as thriving employees are more engaged, and employees with low well-being impact both productivity and healthcare costs. Most integral to overall well-being, according to Rath and Harter (2010b), is career well-being, which is about liking the work one does each day and is related to engagement in their job. Experiencing a sense of flow in work, which is a state of losing track of time while being completely engaged in what one is doing, contributes to well-being, engagement, and productivity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Hodges and Clifton (2004) from the Gallup Organization found that organizational leaders who focus on their employees' strengths produce a greater return on investment, and this form of strengths-based leadership enables engagement, hope, confidence, and well-being (Rath & Conchie, 2008).

Amabile (1997) indicated that people are most creative when they are primarily intrinsically motivated rather than extrinsically or systemically motivated. This is important for leaders to consider as creativity marks the first step in innovation and is

critical for long-term organizational success. One way low engagement impacts a business is through goal achievement, as each day people are absent, or do not give their all in terms of effort, it negatively affects the organization's productivity and costs companies millions of dollars in lost opportunity and health care costs due to low well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010). Positive organizational outcomes are associated with fostering thriving well-being as new research shows thriving is tied to higher levels of engagement, innovation, reduced turnover and health care costs, and higher affective commitment, productivity and resiliency to change (Porath et al., 2011).

Sense of enrichment-commitment. Rath and Harter (2010b) indicated that career well-being is the highest rated of the five elements in terms of its impact on overall well-being; therefore, the importance for organizations to focus in this area is clear. Career well-being means incorporating a focus on liking what you do (Rath & Harter, 2010b). Sivanathan, Arnold, Turner, and Barling (2003) described job well-being as the support of both emotional and physical health at work, which represents two of the five elements in Rath and Harter's (2010b) definition, career well-being and physical well-being, yet is focused primarily in the workplace.

Keeney and Illies (2011) noted work climate and organizational factors can create positive outcomes outside of work. In their literature review, they noted Grzywacz and Butler (2005) and Grzywacz and Marks (2000) connected autonomy through work as positively predicting work–family enrichment. There are also health impacts from positive work-to-home spillover and enrichment when people who felt more energized after coming home from work had lower cholesterol 1 year later (Keeney & Illies, 2011). There has also been positive spillover from home life to work enrichment, as skills,

perspectives, and self-confidence gained in nonwork domains have been found to relate to higher job performance as rated by supervisors (Weer, Greenhaus, & Linnehan, 2010), including family, religion, study, and leisure as sources of enrichment. Keeney and Illies also discussed how positive organizational scholars, including Spreitzer et al. (2005) who noted task focus, heedful relating, and exploration as experiences that create thriving and may generate lasting positive states may create positive spillover**.**

Buckingham (2007) discussed the importance of identifying the strengths that bring energy in work and life and building on those strengths. Rath (2007) noted those who regularly have an opportunity to use their strengths are six times as likely to have higher engagement at work and more than three times as likely to indicate they have very high quality of life compared to those who do not get to focus on their strengths. Leaders who primarily focus on the strengths of their teams reduce the chances of having active disengagement to just 1% (Rath, 2007). Rath and Harter (2010b) discussed Gallup's global data that showed people who do not get to use their strengths become burned out after only 20 hours of work each week or after 4 hours of work each day, whereas those who do get to use their strengths can enjoy a full 40-hour workweek. In some cases, people were able to work up to 13 hours a day without experiencing a decline in their career well-being, though after 8 hours worked, even those with high career well-being were not immune from becoming exhausted or stressed. In considering the number of hours worked, career well-being, an assessment of liking the work one does, had three times the impact on the way people view their overall quality of life (Harter & Arora, 2009).

Rath and Harter (2010b) noted Agrawal and Harter's (2009) study where enhancing career well-being or liking the work one does each day, reduced the risk of anxiety and depression in the participants studied over time who had low engagement at work and were nearly twice as likely to be diagnosed with depression in the next year**.** Rath and Harter (2010b) discussed a longitudinal study of employees' level of engagement at work and noted changes in cholesterol and triglyceride levels indicated that higher engagement related to a significant decrease in total cholesterol and triglyceride, whereas those with declining levels of engagement at work had an increase in total cholesterol and triglycerides. Rath and Harter (2010b) noted these findings were especially true for individuals 55 years old and older, though the findings held true after statistically controlling for health history, medication use, gender, and other variables.

Rath and Harter (2010b) discussed when people build on their strengths and successes in daily living, rather than focus on failures, they learn more (Dye, 2009)**.** Hodges and Clifton (2004) explained that a focus on strengths produces a great return on investment because it enables engagement, hope, confidence, and well-being. Positive organizational support may also reduce a sense of entrapment that may happen if people feel they have to stay with an organization due to high costs related to leaving, or rather increase a desire or intent to stay (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Mindfulness

Kabat-Zinn (2003) defined mindfulness as "the awareness that emerges through paying attention on purpose, in the present moment, and non-judgmentally to the unfolding of experience moment to moment" (p. 176). Similarly, Bishop et al. (2004) defined mindfulness as follows:

> The self-regulation of attention so that it is maintained on immediate experience, thereby allowing for increased recognition of mental events in the present moment and adopting an orientation towards one's experiences in the present moment, an orientation that is characterized by curiosity, openness and acceptance. (p. 176)

Feldman et al. (2007) found the following collective factors related in these definitions:

1. The ability to regulate *attention.*

2. An orientation to *present focus* or immediate experience.

3. A*wareness* of experience.

4. An attitude or non-judgment towards experience through *acceptance* (p. 177).

Feldman et al. (2007) indicated cognitive affective mindfulness is related to lower distress; higher well-being; and lower maladaptive emotion regulation behaviors such as avoiding experiences, suppressing thoughts, and continual worry. Mindfulness was also associated with adaptive emotion regulation such as identifying feelings; self-adjusting one's mood as desired; paying attention to emotion, higher cognitive agility, and problem analysis; and considering one's plan with less doubt, as well as unrealistic expectations of outcomes (Feldman et al., 2007). Mindfulness also relates to the self-adapting or self-regulation that is possible in thriving at the individual level so the two may be related to positively impact one's state.

Kabat-Zinn (2010) discussed the increasing evidence from laboratory studies that has shown mindfulness in repetitive practices has impacted positive neuroplasticity changes in the brain that also reflect mental and physical well-being, including greater emotional balance, compassion, and genuine happiness, as well as a mediator of stressful and traumatic experience when it occurs, thereby enhancing resilience (Begley, 2008; Dunne & Davidson, 2007; Siegel, 2007a). This cognitive training of the mind grows

greater awareness, compassion, and wisdom (Kabat-Zinn, 2010). Mindfulness has been used for centuries and has demonstrated effectiveness since testing of its effects in a clinical setting began in the 1980s, as mindfulness has become a holistic element in modern medicine and health care in evolving and continually expanding ways (Didonna, 2008; Kabat-Zinn, 2010; Krasner et al., 2009; Ludwig & Kabat-Zinn, 2008).

There has been discovery over time that there is an inherent plasticity in brain architecture and function, called neuroplasticity, which allows the mind's cognition to shape the brain, and drive transformational change of intrinsic capacities across the entire lifespan (Kabat-Zinn, 2010). Stahl and Goldstein (2010) noted stress affects the mind–body connection in a way that triggers the fight, flight, or freeze response from common daily experiences, including feeling overwhelmed at work or worrying about finances, health, or relationships, which can create cortisol and the neurotransmitters epinephrine and norepinephrine to surge through the body, resulting in a hyperadrenaline overdrive. This chronic amygdala hijack (Goleman, 2011) negatively impacts health and can create burnout if left unchecked over time as it takes energy away from the immune system and other physiological systems that impact their functioning (Stahl & Goldstein, 2010). Siegel (2001) reported how people respond to stress has less to do with the event taking place and more to do with how they make meaning of what is happening. The autonomic nervous system regulates the vital functions of the body, including the brain, heart, respiration, internal organs, and glands through the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous system (Stahl & Goldstein, 2010). These systems balance and complement each other, as the sympathetic system is an accelerator and parasympathetic system is like a brake that work to constantly evaluate situations that pose a potential threat, whether

psychological or physical; the same physiological response takes effect in the body either way (Stahl & Goldstein, 2010). Day-to-day stress that is ongoing without the recovery or renewal of energy that balances the body puts it at risk for ailments including high blood pressure, muscle tension, skin problems, anxiety, insomnia, gastrointestinal and digestive issues, and a suppressed immune system that is needed to fight disease.

Stahl and Goldstein (2010) noted researchers have studied mindfulness in hundreds of major medical centers throughout the world, and it has proven effective in

- decreasing anxiety and depression (J. J. Miller, Fletcher, & Kabat-Zinn, 1995).

- lessening chronic pain (Kabat-Zinn, Chapman, & Salmon, 1987).

- calming effects psoriasis (Kabat-Zinn et al., 1998).

- increasing a sense of empathy, spirituality and sensing emotional feelings (Lewis & Todd, 2005; Lutz, Brefczynski-Lewis, Johnstone, & Davidson, 2008); Shapiro, Schwartz, & Bonner, 1998).

- more effective processing of fear and aggression, decreasing emotionally reactive behavior (Brefczynski-Lewis, Lutz, Schaefer, Levinson, & Davidson, 2007).

- enhancing psychological well-being (Brown & Ryan, 2003).

- preventing relapse in depression (Segal, Williams, Teasdale, & Kabat-Zinn, 2007).

- preventing drug addiction (Parks, Anderson, & Marlatt, 2001).

- decreasing stress and enhancing quality of life for those who struggle with breast and prostate cancer (Carlson, Speca, Faris, & Patel, 2007).

Mindfulness is a way to increase awareness of both the mind and body's reaction to stress so that new neural pathways may be created in the brain in order to respond to stress in constructive and balanced ways (Stahl & Goldstein, 2010). Kabat-Zinn (1990) described stress reactions as fueled by unconscious habitual patterns learned from past challenges and experiences, whereas a stress response involves acknowledging emotions rather than suppressing them while also transforming them through awareness and presence.

Awareness brings consciousness to what is otherwise a mindless reaction so that an individual responds in a more competent way emotionally and physically so that his or her capacity to hold a wide range of experiences including difficult states, like agitation, ambiguity and fear become less difficult (Stahl & Goldstein, 2010). Siegel (2007b) described this process through the stabilization of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems, through attention and awareness to observe the mind state and stress reaction, while the prefrontal cortex of the brain balances the autonomic nervous system to create equanimity to increase capacity and resilience to stress, enhancing physical and emotional well-being. This study incorporated a validated measurement of Feldman et al.'s (2007) Cognitive-Affective Mindfulness Scale as a measurement of resilience that may enhance individual well-being at work or foster thriving regardless of the manager one has or the climate one works in.

Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1997) described self-efficacy as having confidence in one's abilities to create the action needed to attain desired outcomes and a general belief in one's capacity to achieve tasks. The belief plays a role in what one take's on in terms of goals. When

one takes on goals, thoughts of failure, which are counter to self-efficacy, can result in failing to reach a goal (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). Self-efficacy relates to health (Bandura, 1997; Schwarzer, 1992), improved performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992), deciding on which career to select (Betz & Hackett, 1986), and developing in one's career (Lent & Hackett, 1987). Bandura's (1997) concept of self-efficacy has been related to resilience in terms of coping with a threat and changing the mind-set of it into a challenge through positive thinking and reframing (Lazarus, 2003).

Self-efficacy can be built by having coaching, completing exercises that lead toward mastery to build confidence, sustainably managing stress, and having someone who believes in you (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). Kabat-Zinn (1990) described self-efficacy as a thought pattern that is extremely powerful to increase health and resilience as a belief in one's autonomy and control to react as events happen in life and work. The events may be difficult or challenging and having the mind-set that they can be overcome is how self-efficacy relates to resilience for the purposes of this study. Kabat-Zinn referred to self-efficacy as reflecting confidence in one's capability to actually do things and make things happen, even when there are new, unpredictable, and stressful events to face. Kabat-Zinn discussed Bandura's research at Stanford University Medical School and how a strong sense of self-efficacy was the top predictor and most reliable predictor of positive health outcomes in several medical conditions, including successful recovery from a heart attack, coping with the pain of arthritis, and making sustainable lifestyle changes like quitting tobacco use. Self-efficacy is a strong belief in one's potential to succeed at whatever the challenge and influences the kind of activities to engage in as well as the effort to try something new and different before giving up, as well as how stressful the

efforts will be in achieving control in important areas of life (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). Further, self-efficacy increases with experiences of accomplishment and in cases of perseverance and can be enhanced with inspiring examples of what is possible (Kabat-Zinn, 1990).

Bass (1990) and Kouzes and Posner (1987) described transformational leadership as an overall style that helps people and organizations survive and thrive in a complex world, lead change to stay ahead in the future by arousing the energy of their followers, and elicit the feeling of self-worth in their team by focusing followers on these higher level needs such as self-efficacy. This longer term versus shorter term focus keeps followers looking beyond lower end security or financial needs, thereby creating relationships based on affective commitment, engagement, high personal regard, and respect. By having a leader who demonstrates a clear set of values and role modeling, team members may themselves take responsibility for their own actions and development as they see their leader striving for high standards and expectations toward the ideal future state. Bass and Avolio (1994) noted that this may influence followers to engage more fully. Similarly, Shamir et al. (1993) noted transformational leaders have a positive impact on self-worth, satisfaction, and the overall team's strength because they encourage cooperation, express assurance in the team's collective effort, and promote collaboration.

Tams' (2008) person-centered model of self-efficacy seems to relate to thriving at work at the individual level as it discussed the need to self-adapt by being aware and attending to the social environment, focusing on the task, and learning from setbacks to keep moving forward. Tams (2008) discusses both primary cognition, which includes attending to and reflecting, and primary focus, which includes both the social context and tasks one is doing. Attending to one's social environment and identifying with the

organization relates to meaning through work. Reflecting upon one's doing relates to positive reframing in core self-evaluation self-efficacy related to higher flourishing (Bono et al., 2011). Tams' (2008) attending to one's social environment is aligned with relatedness, as discussed by Ryan and Deci (2000), and heedful relating, as discussed in Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) discussion of antecedents of thriving.

Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995) described general self-efficacy as optimistic self-belief to cope with a variety of demands and difficulties in life. This definition relates to use of self, which Jamieson, Auron, and Schecter (2010) defined as "the conscious use of one's whole being in the intentional execution of one's role for effectiveness in whatever the situation is presenting" (p. 5). Jamieson et al. also noted, "Self may be explained in the collective collection of who we are, what we know and what we can do as developed over a lifetime in both known and unknown realms" (p. 6). The use involves three levels of development referred to as functionality, efficacy, and mastery, which happen through three main competencies: seeing, knowing, and doing (Jamieson et al., 2010). Jamieson et al. (2010) describes seeing as "observing and understanding our surroundings as a system as a whole, knowing refers to making sense of multiple data sources and mental models" (p. 7), while doing is the action involved in helping the client or employee depending on the context or culture (Jamieson et al., 2010; Senge, 2006).

The levels of effectiveness in the use of self, include functionality, which is knowing how to do something; efficacy, which builds on functionality and is the confidence in one's self to take action; and mastery, which is the highest level of development where one integrates knowledge, competencies, and insights that produce a state of flow or complete immersion in what one is engaged in doing (Csikszentmihalyi,

1990; Jamieson et al., 2010). Use of self incorporates efficacy into its model, which leads to a state of mastery of development and a state of flow, which relates to what Spreitzer et al. (2005) described as thriving. In this study, self-efficacy was incorporated using the globally validated General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995), with example items noted in Appendix A.

Chapter 2 Summary

Ground-breaking research has contributed to employee well-being, thriving, and resilience, as well as organizational climate. Spreitzer et al. (2005) posited that individuals are in control of their own thriving capacities by paying attention to their energy level and the opportunity to learn and then taking initiative to craft their roles and goals in ways that increase their sense of learning and positive energy. Self-adaptation is also an important component of Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) thriving-at-work model, as individuals direct their own goals and related strategies over time and across new and varying situations. The thriving at work model posits that people self-adapt when they become self-aware of their personal level of vitality and learning (in combination, thriving) through self-awareness to adapt and change toward what they are wanting. In this way, people can pay attention to their own self-awareness as significant cues to self-initiate change through a new way of thinking that many researchers have overlooked (Spreitzer et al., 2005).

Based on the research on thriving, evidence indicated organizations, leaders, and team members can impact thriving at work. The implications of thriving warrant further understanding as benefits exist at the individual and organizational levels. As thriving is possible to mediate and self-regulate at an individual level, it is worth considering

whether mindfulness or self-efficacy may mediate the potential counter-effects of thriving or only experiencing learning or vitality rather than both, which leads to optimal levels of thriving.

Based on the current research, a business case exists for organizational leaders to focus on fostering well-being and resilient capacities while also impacting engagement and therefore organizational performance. The potential impact for future generations from a holistic perspective is substantial. Therefore, determining whether leadership and mindfulness are keys to unleash the cumulative potential of individual and organizational thriving and well-being will be important to uncover and appreciate. Intrinsic need satisfaction through creating a climate of well-being may relate to thriving as explored in this study. Assessing ways to foster intrinsic motivation, including mastery through growth, autonomy and purpose (having meaning, purpose and impact; Baard et al., 2004; Pink, 2009) may be related to thriving, self-efficacy, or a balance through mindfulness, (Bishop et al., 2004, Feldman et al., 2007; Kabat-Zinn, 1990, 2005; Siegel, 2007a). These individual factors may all relate to enhancing well-being by bringing balance to living in alignment and optimal thriving.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Overview

This research study included surveys to understand people's perceptions of their organizational climate, including how they view their leaders and their own level of thriving and resilience. The research began by having participants self-report the extent to which they experience a climate of well-being based on the factors the literature indicates are related to a healthy work environment as well as the leadership factors associated with employee well-being. The participants reported their own level of resilience based on two validated constructs that assess self-efficacy and mindfulness. Based on their definitions, it seems they would complement each other for sustained resilience over time. The participation of organizational climate factors associated with well-being and their personal level of resilience were then correlated with participants' self-reported level of thriving at work so that factors that were related could be uncovered for organizational leaders interested in fostering thriving over time.

Research Approach and Design

This study also involved exploring the relationship between employee thriving, and organizational climate factors based on de Vries's (2001) factors that relate to a climate of well-being, Ryan and Deci's (2000, 2001) research on intrinsic need satisfaction, and Cameron, Dutton, and Quinn's (2003) research on positive meaning through work. A correlation test assessed relationships between organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors such as engagement, commitment, and resilience and their relationship to thriving among participating employees at four companies, a small service organization, two mid-size manufacturers, and one large manufacturing

organization, with the goal of achieving at least 118 responses. Demographic factors such as age, gender, education completed, years of service, and level in organization were assessed as variables that impact the outcomes of these correlations. Literature-based antecedents of organizational climate that foster well-being were assessed (de Vries, 2001), specifically analyzing how a sense of belonging/inclusion, meaning/purpose, growth/mastery, autonomy/flexibility, impact/engagement, and enjoyment/commitment correlated to constructs of resilience made up of two parts as well as intrinsic need satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2001). The first was a measure of general self-efficacy (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) and the second was a measure of cognitive-affective mindfulness (Feldman et al., 2007). Lastly, these constructs were correlated to thriving at work to see what is related and how thriving may relate to each construct in return.

Pilot Study

The methodology used was a quantitative correlation study based on survey assessments. Specifically, Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) general self-efficacy scale and Feldman et al.'s (2007) Cognitive Affective Mindfulness Scale were used to assess individual resilience to correlate their results with the employee's own level of thriving at work based on Porath et al.'s (2011) validated Thriving at Work Construct. In addition, a newly constructed scale called the Climate of Well-Being Continuum, a construct the researcher drafted based on content validity, was established through referential work (Cameron et al., 2008; de Vries, 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2001), as shown in Table 1. The research question related to how the organizational climate of well-being would relate to levels of thriving based on Porath et al.'s (2011) Thriving at Work Construct.

Table 1

Climate of Well-being Continuum Content Validation Chart

Factors related to thriving, well-being (intrinsic need satisfaction)	Corresponding authors based on the literature review	Climate of Well-being Continuum Scale survey items by subscale
Belonging-Inclusion (relatedness, social well-being, heedful relating)	(De Vries, 2001; Rath & Harter, 2010; Rego & Cuhna, 2008; Rock, 2011; Ryan & Kasser, 1996; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Spreitzer et al. 2005) A feeling of community that comes from being part of the organization, addressing attachment and affiliation needs (de Vries, 2001, p. 109); relatedness (Spreitzer et al., 2005); Ryan and Deci (2000, 2001)	1. The people at this organization go out of their way to help each other. 2. People at this organization do not value diversity of thoughts, viewpoints and ideas of others. (R) 3. My manager respects me and trusts me to accomplish my work. 4. My team respects and cares about each other. 5. I feel like I belong at this organization.
Meaning-Purpose (community well-being)	(Cameron et al., 2003; De Vries, 2001; Pink, 2009; Rath & Harter, 2010; Rego & Cuhna, 2008; Seligman, 2011; Spreitzer et al., 2012) Meaningful connection the work they are engaged in making a difference, contributing to something meaningful such as the organization's vivid description, core purpose and values (Cameron et al., 2003; de Vries, 2001, pp. 108-109; Pink, 2009)	6. Leaders at this organization share a common purpose and values that guide our goals and actions. 7. People at this organization understand how we all contribute to fulfilling the organization's purpose. 8. I have the opportunity to contribute to something important by working for this organization. 9. This organization's work/life benefits/resources, such as coaching, training and work/life flexibility, enhance my well-being and the well-being of others. 10. I feel appreciated for my contributions.
Growth-Mastery (support for professional growth; use of coaching leadership style)	(Boyatzis, 2007; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Pink, 2009; Rath & Harter, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Spreitzer et al., in press) Signifies that employees have a feeling of personal growth & development (de Vries, 2001, p. 108; Rath & Harter, 2010; Rego & Cunha, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2001; Spreitzer et al., 2005)	11. My manager provides coaching that enhances my personal and professional growth. 12. My manager does not support my learning and growth. (R) 13. My manager trusts and shows confidence in me. 14. My manager listens to me in a way that I feel like I am heard. 15. My manager supports learning and development opportunities for me.

(continued)

Factors related to thriving, well-being (intrinsic need satisfaction)	Corresponding authors based on the literature review	Climate of Well-being Continuum Scale survey items by subscale
Flexibility-Autonomy (sense of volition, choice; control over one's life)	(Aumann & Galinsky, 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Spreitzer et al., 2012; When Work Works, 2012) Creates a feeling of control over their lives. Conditions should be created whereby employees feel that they own their own lives (de Vries, 2001, p. 108; Aumann & Galinsky, 2011;Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2001)	16. This organization provides the flexibility I need to meet my work and life needs. 17. I have the freedom I need to make decisions regarding my work to be most effective. 18. My manager does not support the flexibility I need to meet my work and life needs. (R) 19. My co-workers support flexibility for each other and ensure our work needs are met. 20. I am encouraged to suggest new ideas or changes to help my organization succeed.
Impact-Engagement (flow; strengths)	(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Rath & Harter, 2010; Rego & Cuhna, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Spreitzer et al. 2005) It is important that each organizational member is convinced that his or her actions can make a difference to the organization they are associated with (de Vries, 2001, p. 108).	21. I give my best effort in my work each day. 22. I put in the extra time or effort as needed to do my work effectively. 23. I strive to exceed expectations in my work for those I impact each day. 24. I do more than what's expected to help this organization succeed. 25. I have pride in my work.
Commitment-Enrichment (career well-being)	(De Vries, 2001; Hill, 2005; Hughes & Galinsky,1994; Rego & Cuhna, 2008) Enjoy what they do (de Vries, 2001, p. 109; Rath & Harter, 2010); work-to-family facilitation (Hill, 2005). Hughes and Galinsky (1994) suggested that participation in paid work can benefit family life and, thus, enhance family satisfaction.	26. I do not like what I do each day. (R) 27. I get the opportunity to use my personal strengths in my work each day. 28. I intend and would like to stay with this organization for a year or longer. 29. I am committed to our organization's core purpose and values. 30. In the past three months, I have had more energy to do things with my family and activities that enrich my life because I work at this organization.

Four organizations, a small service organization, a small manufacturing

organization, a mid-size manufacturing organization, and a large manufacturing

company, were invited to participate in this study to decrease the gap in the literature

regarding what fosters organizational and individual thriving and resilience. Employees

of the participating organizations received an invitation to take the four surveys through

an online questionnaire to assess their perceptions of organizational climate and leadership as well as personal resilience to correlate the results with their own level of thriving at work based on Porath et al.'s (2011) validated Thriving at Work Construct.

Subjects

The design involved purposefully sampling of four companies of varying size and industry for a broad sample size, including a small, mid-size and large manufacturing/technology organizations and professional services firm. Roles of participants also varied in both level and function. All levels from President, Vice Presidents and Directors, to Managers and Individual Contributors participated as described in Chapter 4. Organizational roles in the purposeful sample included: engineers, sales, account management, consultants, operations, quality, supply chain, marketing, design, product development, finance, human resource professionals and leaders, technicians, administrative and clerical workers, maintenance, materials, machine operators, customer service, marketing, information technology, receptionists, production and assembly positions. The goal of the study was to have at least 118 participants based on Tabachnick and Fidell's (2000) equation that an ample sample size equals 104 plus m where m equals the number of independent variables, which in this study was 14.

The study reached its goal by having a total of 163 participants complete the survey. By inviting participants from diverse organizations, a diverse set of participants with various ages, years of service, professional backgrounds, and genders provided the responses.

Consent Procedures

Participating organizations will remain anonymous in any published study based upon the completion of the results, and all participating leaders and employees will also remain anonymous. The researcher followed all necessary Institutional Review Board (IRB) requirements to protect human subjects, including providing voluntary informed consent and will keep all data in a protected location for 3 years before shredding and discarding all data. The protection of human subjects is maintained by the IRB (Miler & Salkind, 2002). All participants in this study received an invitation to participate voluntarily and were assured that their responses would be shared only on an aggregate level and not on an individual level. The research was exempt from the IRB, and signed permission of the IRB application was not necessary although it was obtained through electronic consent through the survey software. Subjects' anonymity was maintained. The study was exempt from the IRB as there was minimal risk in participating and the time required to complete the surveys was approximately 10 minutes.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in the research were Porath et al.'s (2011) Thriving at Work Construct, Resilience Part 1; Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) General Self-Efficacy Scale; Feldman et al.'s (2007) Resilience Score Part 2: Cognitive Affective Mindfulness Scale; and a literature/content validated Climate of Well-Being Continuum Scale that incorporates an engagement and commitment subscale for antecedents analyzed based on statistically significant correlations. Porath et al.'s (2011) Thriving at Work Construct has been validated in their previous research. Validation and reliability studies have also been supported on Feldman et al.'s (2007) Cognitive Affective Mindfulness Scale.

The Climate of Well-being Continuum Scale was content validated based on the literature. Table 1 provides a summary of the literature reviewed that relates to each of the items noted, which were tested for correlation. Reliability was established using Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient to measure the extent of internal reliability across the 30 items. A pilot study was conducted with 20 participants. The Climate of Well-being Continuum had an alpha of .96, where .70 is acceptable reliability score.

Procedures

In measuring thriving, respondents were asked to respond to a series of 10 thriving-at-work statements validated by Porath et al. (2012). Respondents rated each response from 1indicating strongly disagreeing to 7 indicating strongly agreeing with the items. After appropriate reversal for items noted with (R), values were summed. Higher values reflected greater thriving. The two subscales identified and scored for the Thriving at Work Construct were the learning and vitality subscores. The two resilience scores were Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) General Self-Efficacy Scale. The second resilience score was based on an overall mindfulness score, operationally defined as Feldman et al.'s (2007) Cognitive-Affective Mindfulness Scale. Lastly, the Climate of Well-being Continuum Scale had six subscales (sense of belonging/inclusion, meaning/purpose, growth/mastery, self-direction/autonomy, impact/engagement and enrichment/commitment) and the leader's impact were assessed in each dimension.

The problem of nonresponse was prevented by using instruments that were clearly written and easy to complete (Glatthorn & Joyner, 2005). The satisfactory return rate was higher based on the participants' understanding of the importance of this study for them personally and how their work environment and leadership impacted their level of

thriving. The surveys were chosen to measure the research questions and related

hypotheses from a validity standpoint. Measurement errors were reported and controlled

for within the results presentation. Limitations of this approach included the inherent

biases in the self-report survey data, which were mediated by the fact that respondents

participated voluntarily with minimal risk as their individual responses will not be shared

with their employer and will be maintained in an anonymous and confidential database.

Analytical techniques included Pearson's correlation and multiple regression of

correlated factors.

Data Collection and Recording

The participants received an e-mail with an invitation to take the survey voluntary

and a note that anonymity and confidentiality would be maintained as the researcher, who

completed the Protection of Human Subjects Training to ensure anonymity and

confidentiality in the survey responses, would de-identify all data (Glatthorn & Joyner,

2005). The factors and assumptions for design purposes were that each construct was

defined as indicators that were self-rated by employees based on experiencing each

statement from strongly agree to strongly disagree on a seven point scale. Statements

with an (R) indicated a reverse-scored item.

Data Process and Analysis

Table 2 shows the research questions, their aligned hypotheses, the scales used to

measure the related variables, and the statistical approach to obtain the appropriate

results. The alpha level was set at $p = .05$, though findings at $p = .10$ were noted as a

potential trend for future research. This study used Pearson correlations and multiple

regression analysis to answer the research questions with more than one dependent

variable. The study controlled for demographics, including gender, age, as well as individual factors such as years of service, education completed and role in the organization.

Table 2

Data Analysis Chart

Research question	Scales/survey	Statistical approach
Research Question 1: How are the seven climate of well-being scores correlated to the three thriving-at-work scores score?	Climate of Well-being Continuum Scale and Thriving at Work Construct	Pearson correlation
Research Question 2: How are the seven climate of well-being scores correlated to the two resilience scores?	Climate of Well-being Continuum, General Self-Efficacy Scale, plus Cognitive Affective Mindfulness Scale	Pearson correlation
Research Question 3: How are the three thriving at work scores correlated to the two resilience scores?	Thriving Construct correlated to General Self-Efficacy Scale plus Cognitive Affective Mindfulness Scale	Pearson correlation
Research Question 4: How are the six climate of well-being subscale scores correlated to each other?	Climate of Well-being Continuum Scale	Pearson correlation
Research Question 5: After controlling for demographic factors, how are the seven climate of well-being scores related to the three thriving scores and two resilience scores?	Climate of Well-being Continuum Scale and Thriving Construct; General Self-Efficacy Scale plus Cognitive Affective Mindfulness Scale	Multiple regression
Research Question 6: What model might be drawn from the correlations in the previous five research questions that may provide insights into factors that foster resilience, engagement, commitment, and thriving at work?	Climate of Well-being Continuum Scale and Thriving Construct; General Self-Efficacy Scale plus Cognitive Affective Mindfulness Scale	Multiple regression

The analysis included a quantitative correlation of the primary elements of each scale. Any factors that had statistically significant correlations were identified and discussed as part of the summary review in the assessment of the overall correlations to prove or disprove the above hypotheses. Descriptive statistics for all correlations appear in Chapter 4.

- Quantitative correlation study (Pearson correlation and multiple regression) using total and subscores of Thriving, Resilience (A: General Self-Efficacy, B: Cognitive Affective Mindfulness Scale) and Climate of Well-being Continuum Scale (six factor subscales and total)

- Fourteen independent variables:

  1. Individual level of resilience (general self-efficacy and cognitive affective mindfulness)

  2. Climate of Well-being factors (6 sub-scales previously noted in content validation chart, plus total score)

  3. Demographic characteristics:

     - Role: senior manager, middle manager, individual contributor.

     - Education: high school, some college, undergraduate degree, graduate degree.

     - Years of service in organization: 0-2 years, 3-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, 20+ years.

     - Gender: male, female.

     - Age: prefer not to disclose, 20–29, 30–39, 40–49, 50–59, 60–69, 70+.

- Seven dependent variables: employee thriving and resilience scores and engagement and commitment subscores on Climate of Well-being Survey.

- In assessing level of thriving, participant data were controlled for demographics.

- These variables were controlled through statistical procedures through partial correlations.

The intervening variables in this study were the participant's team, who might have had a mediating impact on the thriving of each participant or his or her organization, and related support systems or resources offered to impact engagement, commitment, and thriving at work. In addition, individuals who have higher intrinsic resilience factors such as higher self-efficacy and mindfulness qualities may also mediate level of thriving.

Methodological Assumptions

This study included the following assumptions:

1. That experiencing organizational climate and coaching leadership style would be assessed through self-reports to draw correlations to self-assessments of climate factors and individual factors such as resilience and thriving.

2. Respondents would accurately reflect on their answers to the self-report.

3. That common method error would not play a large role as participants were rating both their perceptions of organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors on dissimilar scales with some reverse-stated items and scoring.

Limitations

The following limitations were identified:

1. This study was limited to four organizations and participants who voluntarily opted in and the sample size was not large enough to make generalized findings across all industries, or demographics as too many factors may have been at play in terms of antecedents affecting outcomes.

2. Data collection was limited to a one-time event per study volunteer rather than a time study with several data collection points to assess intervention impact of results over time.

3. The data collection period was limited to one time period and was only indicative of the data at that point in time.

Further, each individual participating may have had varying physical or financial levels of well-being, personality traits, and other factors that may have contributed to the perceptions of organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors, which may have been a limitation of the study as well as not knowing what other predispositions may contribute to the scale scores for leaders and their teams. Due to these limitations, direct causation between correlations and interventions was not possible. The themes uncovered through the correlations contributed to a richer context and an evidence-based approach to assess what factors may be worth cultivating to foster resilience and thriving well-being at work.

Chapter 3 Summary

Insights uncovered through the correlation studies may help to inform future research and provided insights into strengths in the dimensions to build on for organizational leaders who intentionally choose to foster organizational and individual thriving with an evidence-based approach. Specifically, this study uncovered what

organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors correlate with employee thriving. Resilience may be a potential mediator of employee thriving in organizations with lower degrees of a climate of well-being along the continuum. Further, antecedents of employee engagement and commitment, as subscales in the Climate of Well-being Continuum, were uncovered, which may help leaders better understand what contributes to thriving as well as factors that foster low turnover, improved engagement, and relatedly performance that contributes to sustainable organizational resilience. These findings and proposed model are discussed further in Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapter 4: Presentation and Analysis of the Data

Summary of Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to explore organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors that relate to thriving at work. The research questions were based on assessing correlations between self-reported scales, including Spreitzer et al.'s (2011) Thriving at Work Construct, which has two subscales: learning and vitality. In addition, two scales were used to assess resilience, operationally defined in this study as Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) General Self-Efficacy Scale and Feldman et al.'s (2007) Cognitive-Affective Mindfulness Scale. Lastly, a content validated scale, named for this study, the Climate of Well-being Continuum, includes six subscales based on the literature discussed in Chapter 2 (sense of belonging/inclusion, connection to meaning/purpose, support for growth/mastery, flexibility/autonomy, sense of impact/engagement, and commitment/enrichment) of factors related to a healthy climate, positive meaning through work, and well-being at work through intrinsic need satisfaction (Boyaztis, 2011; J. Burton, 2009; Cameron et al., 2003; De Vries, 2001; Goleman, 2000; Hill, 2005; Hughes & Galinsky, 1994; Pink, 2009; Rath & Harter, 2010; Rego & Cuhna, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2001; Spreitzer et al., 2012).

This quantitative correlation study helped answer the following research questions:

1. How are the seven climate of well-being scores (six subscales and one total score) correlated to the three thriving-at-work scores (two subscales and one total score)?

2. How are the seven climate of well-being scores correlated to either of the two resilience scores (general self-efficacy and mindfulness)?

3. How are the three thriving at work scores correlated to the two resilience scores?

4. Are any of the six climate of well-being subscale scores correlated to each other?

5. After controlling for demographic factors, how are the seven climate of well-being scores related to the three thriving scores and two resilience scores?

6. What model might be drawn from the correlations in the previous five research questions that may provide insights into factors that foster resilience, engagement, commitment, and thriving at work?

This study's purpose was to assess connections between organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors that may relate to level of engagement, commitment, and resilience and thriving at work. Lastly, a proposed model will summarize high-level factors related to commitment, engagement, resilience and thriving at work.

One hundred sixty-three participants from four organizations of varying sizes and industries in participated in the study. Table 3 shows the frequency counts for selected variables. Participants consisted of individual contributors (60.1%), mid-level managers (28.2%), and executives or senior management (11.7%). In the sample, 46.0% had completed a 4-year undergraduate degree, and another 14.7% had completed a graduate degree. Years of service in the organization ranged from 0–5 years (30.1%) to 25+ years (14.1%), with the median being 13 years of service. More men (66.3%) than women (33.7%) participated in the study. Ages of the respondents ranged from 18–27 years old

(3.7%) to 58 and older (14.1%), with the median age in the sample being 42.5 years (see

Table 3).

Table 3

Frequency Counts for Selected Demographic Variables

Variable and category	N	%
Role		
Individual contributor	98	60.1
Mid-level management	46	28.2
Executive/senior manager	19	11.7
Educational experience		
Completed high school	35	21.5
Completed 2-year degree	29	17.8
Completed 4-year degree	75	46.0
Completed graduate degree	24	14.7
Years of service		
0–5 years	49	30.1
6–10 years	23	14.1
11–15 years	34	20.9
16–20 years	20	12.3
20–25 years	14	8.6
25+ years	23	14.1
Gender		
Female	55	33.7
Male	108	66.3
Age		
18–27 years old	6	3.7
28–37 years old	20	12.3
38–47 years old	60	36.8
48–57 years old	52	31.9
58 and older	25	15.3

Note. $N = 163$.

Table 4 displays the characteristics for the 12 summated scale scores. The

coefficients ranged from $\alpha = .73$ to $\alpha = .95$ with the median sized alpha being $\alpha = .87$.

All coefficients were $\alpha > .70$, indicating that all scales used in the study had adequate

internal reliability (Creswell, 2009; see Table 4).

Table 4

Psychometric Characteristics for the Summated Scale Scores

Scale	M	SD	Low	High	Alpha
Sense of belonging/inclusion	5.82	0.92	2.40	7.00	.81
Sense of meaning/purpose	5.64	1.04	1.00	7.00	.87
Support for growth/mastery	5.71	1.10	1.20	7.00	.89
Sense of autonomy/flexibility	5.82	0.96	2.20	7.00	.82
Sense of impact/engagement	6.20	0.67	3.40	7.00	.85
Sense of enrichment/commitment	5.83	0.84	3.40	7.00	.73
Total climate of well-being score	5.84	0.77	2.90	7.00	.95
Thriving at work – learning	5.85	0.87	2.60	7.00	.92
Thriving at work – vitality	5.61	1.06	1.00	7.00	.92
Thriving at work – total	5.73	0.86	2.80	7.00	.92
General self-efficacy	3.39	0.38	2.00	4.00	.88
Cognitive-affective mindfulness total	5.30	0.66	3.33	6.75	.82

Note. $N = 163$.

The study included 14 independent variables and four dependent variables. The 14 independent variables included the two resilience scores (general self-efficacy and cognitive affective mindfulness), thriving at work scores (energy/vitality and learning/growth), Climate of Well-Being Continuum scores (Subscale 1 "sense of belonging-inclusion", Subscale 2 "sense of meaning-purpose", Subscale 3 "support for growth-mastery", Subscale 4 "sense of flexibility-autonomy", Subscale 5 "sense of commitment- enrichment", and Subscale 6 "sense of impact-engagement"). The demographic characteristics were also independent variables: role, years of service, education experience, gender, and age. The dependent variables included the thriving (energy/vitality and learning/growth) scores, the resilience (general self-efficacy and cognitive affective mindfulness), and the engagement and commitment subscales on the Climate of Well-Being Continuum.

The first research question was as follows: How are the seven climate of well-being scores (six subscales and one total score) correlated to the three thriving-at-work

scores (two subscales and one total score)? The literature indicated there may be a positive correlation between each of the subscales and total score and the thriving-at-work scores. Table 5 shows that the Pearson correlations for the climate of well-being scores were positively correlated, with the three thriving-at-work scores at the $p < .001$ level.

Table 5

Correlations for Climate of Well-being Continuum Scores and Thriving-at-Work Scores

Scale	Learning	Vitality	Thriving total
Belonging-Inclusion	.40	.56	.55
Meaning-Purpose	.40	.57	.56
Growth-Mastery	.45	.53	.56
Flexibility-autonomy	.37	.56	.54
Engagement-Impact	.59	.53	.63
Commitment-Enrichment	.56	.75	.75
Total Climate of Well-being Score	.54	.70	.71

Note. $N = 163$. All correlations were significant at the $p < .001$ level.

The second research question was as follows: How are the seven climate of well-being scores correlated to the two resilience scores? Specifically, how are the subscales sense of belonging-inclusion, sense of meaning-purpose, support for growth-mastery, sense of autonomy-flexibility, sense of engagement-impact, and sense commitment-enrichment and the total climate of well-being score related to the cognitive-affective mindfulness score and general self-efficacy resilience score? Table 6 shows all 14 correlations to be statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. The strongest correlations were for the mindfulness score with engagement-impact ($r = .43$, $p < .001$) and the mindfulness score with sense of commitment-enrichment ($r = .43$, $p < .001$).

Table 6

Climate of Well-being Continuum Scores Relationship to Resilience Scores

Scale	Self-efficacy	Mindfulness
Belonging-Inclusion	.21**	.30****
Meaning-Purpose	.20**	.28****
Growth-Mastery	.18*	.21**
Flexibility- Autonomy	.21**	.29****
Engagement-Impact	.33****	.43****
Commitment-Enrichment	.30****	.41****
Total Climate of Well-being Score	.27****	.37****

Note. $N = 163$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Research Question 3 was as follows: How are the three thriving at work scores correlated to the two resilience scores? The three thriving at work scores included the subscales vitality and learning as well as the total thriving-at-work score. The two resilience scores included the cognitive-affective mindfulness score and general self-efficacy score. Table 7 shows that all three thriving at work scores are significantly related to both of the resilience scores at the $p < .001$ level.

Table 7

Thriving-at-Work Scores Relationship to Individual Resilience Scores

Scale	Self-efficacy	Mindfulness
Thriving at work – learning	.40	.37
Thriving at work – vitality	.38	.53
Thriving at work – total	.44	.51

Note. $N = 163$. All correlations were significant at the $p < .001$ level.

Research Question 4 was as follows: How are the six climate of well-being subscale scores correlated to each other? All 15 inter-correlations in Table 8 yielded significant positive correlations at the $p < .001$ level. The three strongest correlations were between connection to meaning/purpose with sense of belonging/inclusion ($r = .80$, $p < .001$), autonomy/flexibility with support for growth/mastery ($r = .77$, $p < .001$), and

autonomy/flexibility with sense of belonging/inclusion ($r = .75$, $p <.001$). Next includes

growth/mastery with meaning/purpose (r = .69, p < .001) followed by

commitment/enrichment with autonomy/flexibility ($r = .65$, $p < .001$).

Table 8

Inter-correlations among the Six Climate of Well-being Continuum Subscale Scores

Scale	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
1. Belonging/inclusion	1.00					
2. Meaning/purpose	.80	1.00				
3. Growth/mastery	.72	.69	1.00			
4. Flexibility/autonomy	.75	.71	.77	1.00		
5. Impact/engagement	.49	.45	.38	.35	1.00	
6. Commitment/enrichment	.63	.63	.55	.65	.59	1.00

Note. $N = 163$. All correlations were significant at the $p < .001$ level. Climate of well-being scores include Subscale 1= sense of belonging/inclusion, Subscale 2 = sense of meaning/purpose, Subscale 3 = support for growth/mastery, Subscale 4 = sense of autonomy/flexibility, Subscale 5 = sense of impact/engagement, and Subscale 6 = sense of enrichment/commitment.

Research Question 5 was as follows: After controlling for demographic factors,

how are the seven climate of well-being scores related to the total thriving score and the

two resilience scores? As a preliminary analysis, Table 9 displays the Pearson

correlations between the five demographic variables and the four relevant scale scores.

For the resulting 24 correlations, two were statistically significant at the $p <.05$ level.

Specifically, thriving-at-work total score was significantly higher for respondents who

had higher roles within the organization ($r = .20$, $p <.01$). In addition, older respondents

had higher mindfulness total scores ($r = .17$, $p <.05$).

Table 9

Pearson Correlations for Demographic Variables With Climate of Well-being Factors on Thriving and Resilience Scores

Variable	Climate of well-being	Thriving	Resilience 1	Resilience 2
Years of service	-0.01	0.01	-0.12	0.11
Gender	-0.08	0.07	0.04	-0.03
Age	0.00	-0.06	0.01	0.17*
Organizational role	0.11	0.20**	0.14	0.11
Education completed	-0.03	0.03	0.14	-0.02

Note. $N = 163$. Resilience 1 is based on the general self-efficacy score and Resilience 2 is based on the cognitive-affective mindfulness score.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Tables 10 and 11 display the results of the partial correlations between the seven climate of well-being scales with selected factors controlling for the five demographic variables. All 35 resulting partial correlations were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. The seven climate of well-being scales had the strongest correlations with the vitality score and the thriving total score while comparatively weaker correlations were with the self-efficacy scale and mindfulness scale.

Table 10

Partial Correlations: Climate of Well-being and Thriving Controlled for Demographic Variables[a]

Climate of well-being scale	Learning	Vitality	Thriving total
Sense of belonging/inclusion	.40	.57	.55
Sense of meaning/purpose	.42	.59	.58
Support for growth/mastery	.44	.54	.56
Sense of autonomy/flexibility	.37	.56	.54
Sense of impact/engagement	.60	.53	.63
Sense of enrichment/commitment	.55	.75	.74
Total climate of well-being	.55	.71	.71

Note. $N = 163$. All partial correlations were significant at the $p < .001$ level.
[a] Demographic control variables: years in organization, gender, age, role in organization, and highest education.

Table 11

Partial Correlations: Climate of Well-being and Resilience Controlled for Demographic Variables[a]

Climate of Well-Being Scale	Self-efficacy	Mindfulness
Sense of belonging/inclusion	.21**	.30****
Sense of meaning/purpose	.21**	.28****
Support for growth/mastery	.17*	.21**
Sense of autonomy/flexibility	.21**	.29****
Sense of impact/engagement	.33****	.43****
Sense of enrichment/commitment	.30****	.41****
Total climate of well-being	.27****	.37****

Note. $N = 163$.
[a] Demographic control variables: years in organization, gender, age, role in organization, and highest education. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Research Question 6 was as follows: What model might be drawn from the correlations in the previous five research questions that may provide insights into factors that foster resilience, engagement, commitment, and thriving at work? Thriving at work was most strongly correlated with commitment/enrichment ($r = .75$) and the total climate of well-being score ($r = .71$; see Table 3). In addition, total mindfulness, a measure of resilience, was most related to having a sense of impact/engagement ($r = .43$) as well as high scores for commitment/enrichment ($r = .41$; see Table 11).

Leaders fostering a sense of autonomy/flexibility being the most frequent statistically significant factor in the climate of well-being continuum, including strongly relating to support for growth/mastery, sense of belonging/inclusion (feeling cared about by manager and team), and commitment/enrichment (energy for life outside of work and intent to stay at organization).

Table 12

Partial Correlations for Climate of Well-Being Engagement and Commitment Sub-Scales and Resilience Controlling for Demographic Variables[a]

Variable	Engagement	Commitment
Self-efficacy	.33	.29
Mindfulness	.42	.40
Learning	.60	.55
Vitality	.53	.75
Thriving Total	.63	.74

Note. $N = 163$. All partial correlations were significant at the $p < .001$ level.
[a] Demographic control variables: years in organization, gender, age, role in organization, and highest education.

Table 12 displays the results of the partial correlations for climate of well-being and resilience scores controlling for five demographic variables. All ten partial correlations were significant at the $p < .001$ level with the strongest correlations being between vitality with commitment ($r = .75$) and the thriving total score with commitment ($r = .74$), followed by learning with engagement ($r = .60$) (Table 12).

A model summarizing the results of this chapter is proposed and discussed in Chapter 5 and pulls together the main themes of these results. A summary of the key findings of this chapter and recommendations for practitioners and future research are also discussed.

Table 13

Pearson Correlations for the Climate-Leadership Factors with Aggregate Individual Factors-Engagement Plus Commitment Scores

Aggregate climate-leadership factors	Aggregate individual factors engagement plus commitment
Belonging-Inclusion	.64
Meaning-Purpose	.62
Growth-Mastery	.53
Flexibility-Autonomy	.58
Aggregate Climate-Leadership Factors	.66

Note. $N = 163$. All correlations were significant at the $p < .001$.

Table 13 displays the results of the Pearson product-moment correlations between the first four sub-scales of the Climate of Well-being Continuum, including employee perceptions of having a sense of belonging-inclusion, meaning-purpose, growth-mastery, flexibility-autonomy through working at their organization and their level of engagement and commitment aggregate score. All 5 correlations were positive and significant at the $p < .001$ level. The aggregated climate factors score was found to have a significant positive correlation with the aggregate engagement plus commitment score, $r = .66$, $p < .001$ (Table 13).

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

This concluding chapter contains a summary of the key findings from the study. The chapter also contains a review of how the results compare to the literature review findings, including literature that supports and does not support the results. Lastly, the chapter includes a discussion on the implications and recommendations for future research.

The purpose of this study was to explore the organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors that relate to thriving at work. Specifically, this study included a review of the organizational climate and leadership factors that relate to thriving, engagement, and commitment at work, as well as how individual resilience may impact thriving. The organizational climate and leadership factors included a sense of belonging toward inclusion, connection to meaning/purpose, support for growth/mastery, provide flexibility toward autonomy; sense of impact for their contributions toward engagement, as well as commitment toward enrichment in work and life.

Each of these factors that comprised a Climate of Well-Being Continuum was significantly correlated to Porath et al.'s (2011) thriving at work construct, including its subscales of learning and vitality, as well as individual resiliency indicators, including Feldman et al.'s (2007) Cognitive-Affective Mindfulness Scale and Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1995) General Self-Efficacy Scale. The research questions reviewed the relationships including exploring the significance as well as controlling for demographic characteristics, which were found not to affect the overall correlations between the factors. Lastly, the themes from the findings include practices leaders and employees may use to enhance thriving at work based on a model outlined in this chapter.

Summary of the Key Findings

The key findings from this study indicated that organizational leaders can make a difference in the level of thriving among their team members through the climate they create. Specifically, fostering a sense of belonging toward inclusion among all their team members, providing them with a connection to meaning in their work and how they align with a larger purpose through working at the organization, inspiring a sense of impact for their contributions, creating engagement, supporting personal and professional growth toward mastery, and empowering decision making through flexibility to provide a sense of autonomy will impact not only team members' level of engagement in going further, intent to stay, and commitment to the organization, but also enrichment in their life through work–life integration, which enhances their level of thriving at work, including vitality and resilience in work and life.

It was also important to determine, if employees do not experience a climate of well-being, whether there may be practices or intrinsic need satisfaction that enhances thriving at work, regardless of the climate they work in or based on the manager they have, such as intrinsic mindfulness practices, including self-regulating levels of thriving (learning plus vitality), building self-efficacy, or cognitive-affective mindfulness, based on cultivating attention, present focus, awareness, and acceptance. The findings indicated that cultivating *intrinsic mindfulness*, defined as being mindful of intrinsic needs as described in this study include a sense of belonging-inclusion, a sense of meaning-purpose, a sense of growth-mastery, flexibility-autonomy, as all collectively enable thriving, including learning and vitality, as well as a sense of impact towards engagement, and a sense of commitment towards enrichment in work and life.

Additionally, intrinsic resilience, discussed in this study as factors including general self-efficacy and cognitive-affective mindfulness may be a way to enable both thriving as well as engagement and commitment towards enrichment in work and life regardless of the team or organizational climate in which one works.

The final research question was as follows: What model might be drawn from the correlations in the previous five research questions that may provide insights into factors that foster resilience, engagement, commitment, and thriving at work? Based on all the organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors, the correlation study showed statistically significant relationships between organizational and leadership factors uncovered through the literature and thriving at work as well as individual resilience factors including the engagement and commitment subscales in the Climate of Well-being Continuum. Figure 1 shows a proposed model representing their relationships.
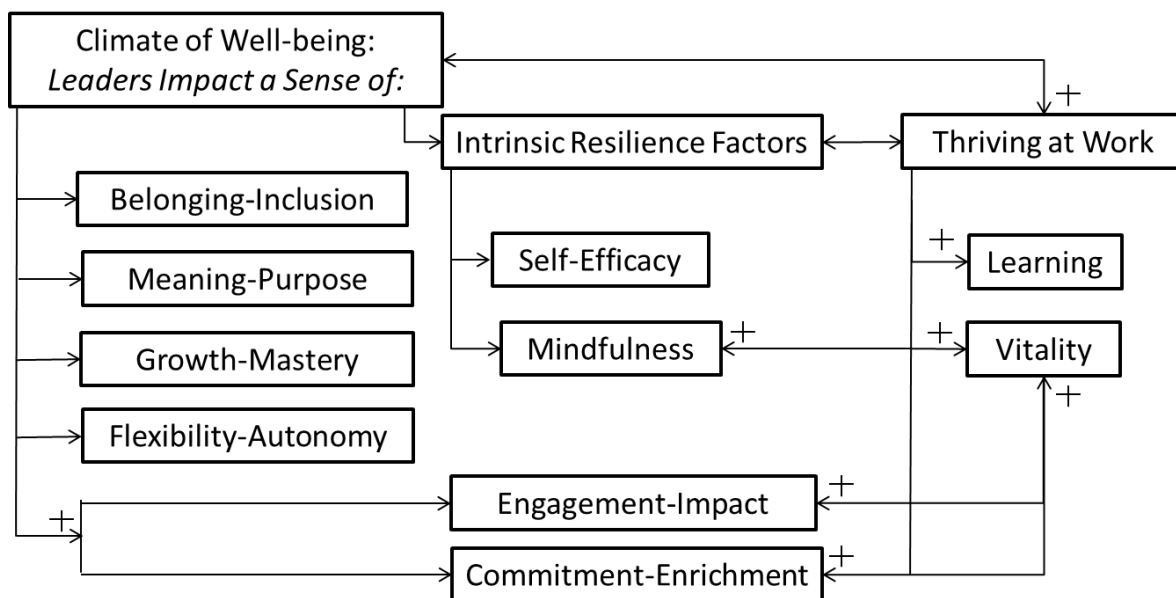

Figure 1. Leading towards well-being.

All the organizational climate factors uncovered in the literature review that indicated relationships to thriving at work were demonstrated in this quantitative

correlation study. The factors that significantly relate to thriving at work and impact-engagement as well as commitment-enrichment at work include leaders practicing mindfulness of the intrinsic needs of their team to foster a sense of belonging-inclusion, connection to meaning-purpose, support for growth/mastery through coaching, and flexibility-autonomy. The individual factors that significantly relate to Porath et al.'s (2011) Thriving at Work Construct as well as impact/engagement and commitment-enrichment in the Climate of Well-being Continuum include the two resilience scales of general self-efficacy (Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995) and an even stronger significant relationship with mindfulness through attention, present focus, awareness, and acceptance (Feldman et al., 2007). Even if individuals are not working in a supportive culture or for a supportive manager, they may self-adapt their own level of thriving through finding ways to meet their intrinsic needs outside of work or through a new organization, also by building intrinsic resilience including self-efficacy and mindfulness, cultivating attention, present focus, awareness, and acceptance to self-regulate their own levels of thriving towards experiencing learning and vitality at work and in life.

Leaders may also be mindful of fostering the intrinsic needs uncovered in the literature review and summarized in the Climate of Well-being Continuum to enhance thriving but also positively impact both retention through commitment and engagement. Figure 2 represents the inter-related dimensions that organizational leaders may want to keep top of mind to enhance resilience, engagement, commitment and thriving through developing both organizational, team and self- awareness through present focus, intentional decision-making and aligned action through cultivating intrinsic mindfulness

to lead towards well-being in one's own life, which may also lead towards enhancing the well-being of others.

Figure 2. Inter-related dimensions in cultivating *intrinsic mindfulness*.

Figure 2 displays a visual of the inter-related dimensions organizational leaders and individuals may want to cultivate intrinsic mindfulness of to enhance well-being in their own lives and that of others. Intrinsic mindfulness may be cultivated by self and organizational awareness of these dimensions though present focus, reflection intentional decision-making and aligned action to foster a sense of belonging-inclusion, meaning-purpose, flexibility-autonomy, growth-mastery, engagement, thriving, commitment and work-life enrichment, both in in one's own life and the lives they impact each day. Additionally, regardless of the climate one is in, cultivating intrinsic resilience through mindfulness and self-efficacy will also lead towards higher levels of thriving and vitality. Cultivating intrinsic mindfulness over time may lead towards individual and

organizational sustainability and long-term success, through enhanced well-being, intrinsic resilience, engagement, commitment, and thriving in work and life.

Literature Review Analysis: Literature in Support of the Findings

Consistent with Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) research of thriving at work that indicated individuals are in control of their own thriving capacities by paying attention to their energy level and the opportunity to learn and taking initiative to craft their roles and goals in ways that increase their sense of learning and positive energy relates to the findings in that mindfulness based on intrinsic need satisfaction was found to enhance thriving and vitality in particular. Both leaders and team members may remain mindful of the intrinsic needs of both themselves as individuals and those they work with to enhance thriving at work as well as a sense of impact/engagement and commitment/enrichment. The practice of intrinsic mindfulness may be considered a form of self-adaptation, which is discussed in Spreitzer et al.'s aspects of thriving at work, as self-adapting individuals direct their own goals and related strategies over time and across new and dynamic or adverse contexts. Similar to the awareness found in mindfulness, Spreitzer et al.'s thriving-at-work research discussed how people self-adapt when they become aware of their personal level of vitality and learning (in combination, thriving) by paying attention to cues. These cues may prompt self-initiated adaptation through intrinsic mindfulness, being mindful of satisfying one's own and other team members' intrinsic needs based on the literature to enhance individual and team thriving through a self-adaptation process.

Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) research on thriving at work indicated that thriving employees produce original knowledge, find meaning in their work, and create better relationships with colleagues, especially when they also have high vitality. Porath et al.

(2012) suggested thriving employees have more sustainable high performance. The literature discussed how the learning dimension of thriving contributes to higher performance both at the individual contributor and leadership level (Porath et al., 2011). Similarly, this study found that leaders who are more effective enhance thriving when they incorporate or offer coaching to team members in a way that enhances employees' personal and professional growth, as well as through listening to them in a way that they feel heard and by providing learning and development opportunities.

Spreitzer et al. (2012b) noted the problems associated with lack of human and organizational sustainability are great, and the American Psychological Association (2010) indicated approximately 75% of U.S. citizens may be at risk for chronic disease, including heart disease, depression, and diabetes due to elevated stress levels. As the literature reviewed in this study demonstrated, as well as the findings, to counter these issues, organizational leaders may enable thriving teams and thriving organizations to have healthier and higher performing teams that are more engaged (Spreitzer et al., 2012b), which may create a competitive advantage. Spreitzer et al. (2012b) established that thriving employees may counter stress and burnout more effectively and become more healthy overall, as shown in this study as well through the significant connections between thriving with both self-efficacy and mindfulness. Mindfulness is a way to increase the mind's and the body's awareness of stress reactions and create new neural pathways for responding to them in constructive and balanced ways (Stahl & Goldstein, 2010). Kabat-Zinn (1990) discussed stress reactions as being fueled by unconscious habitual patters learned from past challenges and experiences, whereas a stress response involves acknowledging emotions rather than suppressing them while also transforming

them in a developed way through awareness and presence. This study incorporated a validated measurement of Feldman et al.'s (2007) Cognitive-Affective Mindfulness Scale as a measurement of resilience found to enhance individual well-being at work or foster thriving regardless of the manager one has or the climate one works in.

J. Burton (2009) summarized a population-based study that showed men who have low control over their jobs but high demand or job insecurity concerns experienced greater risk for major depression at a higher rate, whereas women with low control and high demand had minor depression indicators; work and family conflict or lack of work–life fit was most associated with mental disorders for men and women.

Kelloway and Day (2005) reviewed the literature on how work impacts health and reported that there is solid scientific evidence that mental health is negatively impacted by overwork; role stressors such as conflict, ambiguity, and inter-role conflict; working nights and overtime; poor-quality leadership; aggression in the workplace, such as harassment and bullying; and perceived job control, as reported by J. Burton (2009). These findings are indicative when there is high work-life conflict affects well-being at work at for employees and relatedly organizational well-being. Stress, depression, and burnout are linked to health care costs from lower physical and mental well-being, but also lower levels of innovation, risk taking and the creativity that impacts an organization's competitive advantage, new product and process development and ultimately hits the bottom line (EOPCEA, 2010). Stress, depression and burn out also impacts productivity and enrichment that may come from family roles, and ability to nurture families, therefore not addressing the work-life conflict issues can have much broader economic and societal impacts over time (EOPCEA, 2010).

J. Burton's (2009) literature review indicated employers who foster psychological well-being experience higher performance and productivity through strong engagement and more competitiveness in attracting and retaining key talent, while also impacting the bottom line through cost savings associated with workplace psychosocial, or health and well-being, initiatives. Porath et al. (2012) and Spreitzer et al. (2012) indicate that thriving, a combination of vitality and learning, is a means for sustaining an organization's human resources and a key mechanism impacting an organization's performance and health care costs as thriving employees are stronger performers who are more proactive, resilient, committed, and healthy. As research on both self-efficacy and mindfulness has proven positive health results in several ways, cultivating these resilient capacities may impact not only thriving at work but thriving in life as well. Leaders who want to impact the thriving capacities of their team members may take into account their intrinsic needs by fostering the dimensions in the Climate of Well-being Continuum (de Vries, 2011; Porath et al., 2011; Wrzesniewski et al., 2010). This model's alignment with the literature as noted above indicates the existence of a business case for enhancing thriving in a time of low engagement, high susceptibility of burnout, and employees striving to do more with less, compounded with the national crisis of rising health care costs, stress, and depression with ongoing demographic changes in the workforce (Cameron et al., 2003; Ryff & Singer, 1998; Spreitzer et al., 2005).

Spreitzer et al. (2012) and Porath et al.'s (2011) thriving construct encompasses well-being from both affective (reduced burnout) and physical (general health score) links, as well as demonstrates the link between thriving and self-adaption towards development and performance, meets Cameron et al.'s (2003) and Luthans and Youssef's

(2007) call for positive organizational behavior (POB) and positive organizational scholarship (POS) research on indicators that have impact on both performance and well-being. This also aligns with the newest dimension of human resource development (HRD) literature on the call for contributions to the work-life integration literature (Polach, 2003). Relatedly the Climate of Well-being Continuum construct in this study may offer another positive tool for organizations and researchers in the fields of POS, POB, and HRD. Constructs in positive psychology that focus on flourishing, in all contexts, though not with a focus in an organizational or work setting where the research in POB, POS, and HRD focus more directly (Spreitzer et al., 2012). As this study has shown in the relationship between vitality and thriving and commitment, enrichment through work to life, Spreitzer et al. (2012) also suggested that thriving at work fuels positive energy, and confidence through self-efficacy that spills over into life outside of work, contributing to meaning through work in new ways, even if not always through conscious connections. Raising awareness about the connection and becoming more intentional to enable positive spillover from work to life may enhance thriving at work and at home. This is an area for future research within a broader view of work–life fulfillment.

Additionally, individuals may proactively select organizations they screen for an organizational climate that fosters thriving. A set of interview questions may be posed that aligns with the Climate of Well-being Continuum dimensions that significantly relate to fostering well-being at work. For example, behavioral-based interview questions of hiring managers or human resource professionals that uncover examples of whether people at the organization go out of their way to help each other demonstrate they care

and foster a sense of belonging both in terms of requesting and valuing the ideas of everyone as diverse ideas lead to innovation, but also create a culture of inclusion across gender, age, ethnic background, and so forth where all people are valued for their contributions and for who they are as unique individuals.

In turn, organizational leaders and human resource practitioners may want to ensure they have examples they may cite to help ensure they are able to hire the best candidates or top talent by creating environments where people can thrive in work and life while also positively impacting engagement and commitment to sustain high organizational performance for long-term success by incorporating the climate of well-being dimensions into their corporate culture, which is the local climate each leader creates for his or her team. Having a focus on building a climate of well-being will help leaders and HR practitioners in attracting talented future employees to their organizations as the findings suggest they are common climate factors that relate to thriving across age, gender, tenure and level in organization.

As engagement and retention are just as critical if not more than attracting key talent, another opportunity to utilize this data may be for leaders and HR practitioners to incorporate the findings in a follow-up process at a team or team member level into a goal-setting process that includes not only organizational and team goals, but also leadership development goals to support team members in what is most important to them for their personal level of impact-engagement and commitment-enrichment to their work. There may also be follow-up interview questions that may be created to qualitatively discuss each of the climate of well-being sub-scales in greater depth and where the team or organization believes they should or want to be as may be culturally

relevant for each organization as well as department/function, and even at an individual level for one-to-one discussions between leader and team member.

Outcomes of such follow-up discussions may include organizational, team, leader and/or individual actions plans and related goals to enhance thriving, engagement and commitment. While the intrinsic resilience and mindfulness factors may also be developed at the leader, team and individual level to enhance further thriving for sustainability of energy/vitality and thriving at work over time, to counter inevitable adversity, challenge, change and stress prevalent in most organizations.

An organization development or human resource development intervention, such as training or education of the climate of well-being factors and how they integrate with an organization's values or compliment their focus on wellness or resilience at the programming level, as this form of organizational and leadership development may enhance traditional health promotion activities focused on increasing well-being at work in a more strategic, integrated and sustainable way. By assessing change at the team and organizational level of the climate of well-being continuum scales over time through pre and post interventions may help determine progress over time as well as effectiveness of specific goal/improvement interventions.

As J. Burton (2009) indicated, retaining resilient talent will become critical in knowledge-based companies where success depends on highly functioning, engaged, innovative, and creative employees to continually find ways to sustain a competitive advantage, and Porath et al. (2012) and Spreitzer et al. (2012) contend that thriving fuels these behaviors, as do the climate of well-being dimensions discussed in this study's literature review and findings. More than ever before, organizations and their leaders

require the minds of workers to function at an elevated capacity with energy and vitality to weather the ambiguous, dynamic, and stressful daily challenges they will continually face (J. Burton, 2009). Even if the company depends on simple repetitive tasks with little room for innovation or creativity, an engaged and committed worker is more productive and useful than one who has low energy, is depressed, or is constantly stressed (J. Burton, 2009). Creating a climate of well-being and a healthy workplace is not just a matter of caring for the well-being of employees. The health and well-being of workers strongly impact the ability of an organization to perform its functions and to meet its stakeholder needs, its purpose and goals, and ultimately sustainable value, growth and success over time (J. Burton, 2009).

This study was supported by research on how providing flexibility and a sense of autonomy are related to both engagement and commitment. Bloom, Liang, Roberts, and Ying (2013) found in a controlled study that working from home improves performance and has even greater performance impact when allowing autonomy or employee choice rather than requiring working from home. Bloom et al.'s findings also showed a dramatic drop in turnover that they indicated highlights how many of their employees value flexibility and autonomy in their work. Specifically Bloom et al. (2013) found a 13% higher performance from tele-commuting, both from working more time and higher productivity, as well as no impact on employees who stayed in the office versus telecommuted. Teleworkers had higher job satisfaction and morale scores, which related also to turnover rates decreasing by over half what they were for non-teleworkers or the same work unit prior to telework opportunities. Management at the firm Bloom et al. studied were surprised by the results, as the authors discussed there was risk-aversion at

play based on career concerns of senior managers. Bloom et al. indicated these concerns may represent obstacles that deter management or process innovations in many companies, which the authors attribute to be factors in why there has been under experimentation and research in managerial and operational experiments.

As telework has risen rapidly in both the United States and Europe (Bloom et al., 2013), there is still some uncertainty and skepticism about it, as highlighted by Yahoo and Best Buy's recent decision to take away flexibility and autonomy in where and when work gets done by ending their flexible work arrangements, and the media attention and controversy it spurred (Goudreau, 2013). Yahoo's recent decision seemed to be based on the presumption that having more face-time and less autonomy through flexibility will foster more creativity, initiative, and imagination leading to innovation by mandating all employees work at the office, limiting flexibility and autonomy (Italie, 2013). Only time will tell the fate of Yahoo and Best Buy's public decision to move back to what some critics are referring to as the stone ages of face time management (Goudreau, 2013) in the hopes of improving performance, innovation, or potentially risk management where other researchers have reported that there are no scholarly studies that have linked higher innovation to face time (Italie, 2013), though scholarly researchers have reported that telework improves effectiveness, productivity, social well-being through reduced work-family conflict and enhanced community well-being through reduced greenhouse gas emissions contributing to sustainability (Aumann & Galinsky, 2008; Bloom et al., 2013; Moen, Kelly & Huang, 2008; Sloan Center on Aging & Work at Boston College, 2013).

Some work is more be easily measured in terms of quantity and quality of performance as discussed by Bloom et al.'s (2013) study evaluated through process

innovation or experimentation, more research is needed in this area. One
recommendation is to use the climate of well-being continuum to help assess factors that
relate to teamwork and creative collaboration, such as the belonging/inclusion or
engagement and commitment scales in the climate of well-being continuum with
performance in terms of behaviors and results that indicate creativity, collaboration or
teamwork competencies as assessed by the team's manager. Further research may show
more direct links between effort and performance in a range of jobs including sales,
information technology, engineering, and administrative work, or even experimenting in
more creative work that allows for collaboration through technology. As Bloom et al.
indicated, the authors of the study all worked from home to collaborate and come up with
ideas as well as problem solve for the study they executed and found very instructive
results contributing the literature. So it seems collaborating knowledge workers who need
task focus, collaboration, creativity, and execution to achieve results is certainly possible
based on their example. Future research may continue to build through controlled
experiments, case studies and qualitative research, which may uncover even more than a
quantitative study on new or expanded elements that impact these factors.

   This study also aligned with the newest dimension of human resource
development literature, referred to as work–life integration (Polach, 2003). The literature
and findings supported the business case for organizations to consider a holistic and
integrated approach to foster well-being and resilience capacities while also impacting
engagement, retention, and therefore organizational performance. The potential impact
for future generations from a holistic perspective is substantial if organizational leaders
were to have a broader focus of not only performance, but also human sustainability over

time through fostering well-being and thriving at work. As discussed in this study, fostering intrinsic motivation, including mastery, autonomy and purpose (Baard et al., 2004; Pink, 2009), will enhance thriving through vitality and work–life enrichment. Further, the study found thriving and vitality in particular may be cultivated through mindfulness of intrinsic needs at the organizational, leader, and individual level.

De Vries's (2001) meta-analysis of Fortune's List of Most Admired Companies, indicated that the great challenge of 21st century leaders is to create organizations that possess the qualities that instill a healthy climate for team effectiveness and competency, but also the autonomy that drives initiative, creativity, and entrepreneurship. De Vries (2001) further noted that working in a positive, healthy climate will become an antidote to work–life stress by instilling a healthier way of being, enhancing imagination, and ultimately contributing to a more enriching life. This is congruent with the outcomes of this study, as thriving at work and vitality specifically have a strong, significant relationship to thriving, as well as impact-engagement and commitment-enrichment, which has a positive spillover to home life.

This research is important as indicators have shown that low engagement and commitment can lead to organizational costs from decreased productivity and turnover of key leaders and employees contributing to high replacement and training costs (Cascio, 2006; Rath & Harter, 2010a). Further, low levels of thriving at work can relate to higher health care costs, burnout and reduced performance, innovation, and productivity over time (Rath & Harter, 2010a; Spreitzer & Porath, 2012). Leaders and HR practitioners may look at correlations between team or leader performance assessed by their manager in the areas of collaboration, knowledge sharing, creativity, execution, performance

results and how they relate to the team member's assessment of the climate of well-being

or lack there of that they are experiencing. Further knowledge on the climate leaders are

creating for their teams may prompt new or broader thinking on how to improve

performance or collaboration for project or idea implementation beyond face-time

requirements as has become the approach of companies like Yahoo and Best Buy at the

time of this study.

Policy makers and practitioners having a better understanding of what factors

contribute to thriving, well-being, and resilience, not through extrinsic or monetary

means but through mindfulness of intrinsic needs, will enable organizations and leaders

to impact human and organizational sustainability and performance over time. This study

contributes to the research on what organizational climate and leadership characteristics

contribute to thriving and well-being at work and relatedly engagement and commitment,

which also contribute to the business case for enhancing thriving.

The final research question was what model might be drawn from the correlations

in the previous five research questions that may provide insights into factors that foster

resilience, engagement, commitment, and thriving at work, and all the organizational

climate factors uncovered in the literature review indicated relationships to thriving at

work were demonstrated in this quantitative correlation study. The factors that

significantly relate to thriving at work and impact/engagement as well as

commitment/enrichment at work include leaders fostering a sense of belonging/inclusion,

connection to meaning/purpose, support for growth/mastery through coaching, and

flexibility toward autonomy. The individual factors that significantly relate to Porath et

al.'s (2011) Thriving at Work Construct as well as the climate of well-being continuum's

impact/engagement and commitment/enrichment include the two resilience indicators of general self-efficacy (Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995) and an even stronger significant relationship with mindfulness (Feldman et al., 2007).

The WHO has indicated that a specific area of worker health that has received significant attention in recent years due to the demographic shifts in the workforce is the area of work–life balance, or work–family conflict, and in fact climate or culture initiatives to impact the psychosocial factors such as those in this study are likely to become the fastest growing area of health and well-being promotion among organizations in the next 2 to 3 years (Buck, 2012). Therefore an integrated, holistic approach will become more necessary than ever.

As demonstrated in this study, even if individuals are not working in a supportive culture or for a supportive manager to foster their level of thriving, they may do so through their own intrinsic mindfulness practices of meeting their own intrinsic needs and those of others through developing self-efficacy and cultivating attention, present focus, awareness, and acceptance to self-regulate their own levels of thriving to experience growth and vitality for work and relatedly in life. Creating new awareness about these factors through education or coaching may create more intentional action to enhance thriving at work, and how energy at work may impact home life. A future research study may assess whether intrinsic mindfulness, including awareness, attention and presence enhances thriving at work and relatedly at home, specifically by looking at the commitment – enrichment scale. By creating new awareness about how well each intrinsic need is being met and its level of importance, may create a dialog around areas of strength as well as potential areas of dissatisfaction or improvement opportunities with

one's manager, HR partner or team. This type of follow-up action and related outcomes may also create awareness of intrinsic mindfulness practices at the individual, organizational and leadership level over time to enhance resilience and thriving, as well as commitment and engagement for collective success over time.

Organizational leaders may enhance thriving and the sustainability of high performance through engaged, committed, and thriving team members by being mindful of both their team members' and their own intrinsic needs and self-adapting, which may be described as practicing intrinsic mindfulness in thought, action, and decision making both for themselves and in consideration of others. The hope is that this study may enhance awareness and foster more thriving for people in their work and home life by providing insights into the organizational climate, leadership, and individual factors that foster intrinsic need satisfaction to enhance thriving and relatedly well-being at work.

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APPENDIX A

General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995)

Sample items

I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.

I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.

APPENDIX B

Thriving at Work Construct (Porath et al., 2011)

Sample Items

Learning items

I see myself continually improving.

I am developing a lot as a person.

Vitality items

I feel alive and vital.

I am looking forward to each new day.

APPENDIX C

Cognitive-Affective Mindfulness Scale (Revised) (Feldman et al., 2007)

Sample Items

It is easy for me to concentrate on what I am doing.

I am able to focus on the present moment.

I am able to pay attention to one thing for a long period of time.

APPENDIX D

Demographic Questions

How long have you worked for this organization?

0-5 years; 6- 10 years; 11-15 years; 16-20 years; 20 – 25 years; 25+ years

What is your gender?

Prefer not to disclose; Male; Female

What year were you born?

Prior to 1946; Between 1946- 1955; Between 1956- 1965; Between 1966-1975; 1976-1985; Between 1985-1995; Prefer not to disclose

What is your general role in this organization?

Individual Contributor; Supervisor or Mid-Level Manager; Senior-Level Manager or Executive

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

Did not complete school; Graduated from high school; Completed 2 Year College Degree; Completed 4 Year Undergraduate/Bachelor's Degree; Completed Graduate Degree; Completed Post-Graduate Degree