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Introducing the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model: A Model to Inform the Establishment of Organizational Well-Being Programs

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Keywords
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Disciplines
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Emily Santos

University of Pennsylvania

A Capstone Project Submitted
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Applied Positive Psychology

Advisor: Faisal N. Khan

August 1, 2019
Introducing the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model: A Model to Inform the Establishment of Organizational Well-Being Programs
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Introduction

Imagine a world in which almost all organizations are typified by greed, selfishness, manipulation, secrecy, and a single-minded focus on winning. Wealth creation is the key indicator of success. Imagine that members of such organizations are characterized by distrust, anxiety, self-absorption, fear, burnout, and feelings of abuse. Conflict, lawsuits, contract breaking, retribution, and disrespect characterize many interactions and social relationships. Imagine also that scholarly researchers investigating these organizations emphasize theories of problem-solving, reciprocity and justice, managing uncertainty, overcoming resistance, achieving profitability, and competing successfully against others.

For the sake of contrast, now imagine another world in which almost all organizations are typified by appreciation, collaboration, virtuousness, vitality, and meaningfulness. Creating abundance and human well-being are key indicators of success. Imagine that members of such organizations are characterized by trustworthiness, resilience, wisdom, humility, and high levels of positive energy. Social relationships and interactions are characterized by compassion, loyalty, honesty, respect, and forgiveness. Significant attention is given to what makes life worth living. Imagine that scholarly researchers emphasize theories of excellence, transcendence, positive deviance, extraordinary performance, and positive spirals of flourishing. (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003, p. 3)
Which of these worlds sounds more familiar to you, the competitive scenario (scenario 1) or the flourishing scenario (scenario 2)? If you are like many others, the competitive scenario is likely closer to what you witness, hear about, and live.

But what if we could enable all of our organizations to function more closely to the flourishing scenario? What if instead of relying on competition and profitability as key motivators, excellence and well-being were also identified drivers of organizational success, leading to the type of organization described in the flourishing scenario? Organizations like these create environments that enable employees to thrive and, as a result, can reap the benefits of enhanced employee well-being.

Through decades of research exploring the relationship between employee well-being and positive business outcomes, there is strong support that employee well-being is an organizational competitive advantage (Nielsen et al., 2017). Though the link between employee well-being and positive organizational outcomes has been identified and strongly supported, there is a need for clearer, more actionable resources for leaders, managers, and employees to drive positive change in their organizations (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2002). Great progress has been made in positive psychology (i.e., the science of well-being) and affiliated disciplines (e.g., positive organizational scholarship, positive organizational behavior) to disseminate information into the hands of people who can make a difference in workplaces. This paper adds to the existing body of practical resources by synthesizing a proposed Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model – a framework of considerations for workplaces who would like to implement workplace well-being programs in their organizations. This model can be found in Figure 4. These programs are designed to enhance employee well-being and ultimately
organizational success by creating work environments that resemble the flourishing scenario described above.

**A Call for Change**

The world we live in today has challenged us to reassess the way we work. Detaching from work can be difficult, as our technological interconnectedness has created a 24/7 workday. This new world of work has pushed the limits on traditional forty-hour work weeks. A Gallup poll revealed that salaried workers work an average of 49 hours per week (Saad, 2014). Of which 25% of these workers work 50-59 hours per week, and another 25% work more than 60 hours (Saad, 2014). While it was once believed that longer hours equated to greater productivity, we now know that longer hours have adverse effects on employee physiological, psychological, and overall health (e.g., Sparks, Cooper, Fried, & Shirom, 1997).

Several job demands have been identified as sources of stress for employees. I introduce one model categorizing job demands, the Challenge-Hindrance-Threat model, for explicative purposes, though other models exist (see, for example, Karasek, 1979). This model distinguishes between 3 types of demands: 1) challenge demands, or those demands that create an imbalance between what is expected of an employee and employee skills (i.e., workload and task complexity); 2) hindrance demands, or those demands that keep employees from performing optimal work (i.e., noise/distractions and organizational constraints); and, 3) threat demands, or those demands that create fear of loss for employees (i.e., job insecurity and bullying/harassment; Tuckey, Searle, Boyd, Winefield, & Winefield, 2015). Note that the demands identified here can be linked to either the employee, the organization, or both; in other words, employees and organizations have their respective roles in addressing workplace
demands to enhance the well-being and productivity of employees and ultimately the success of the organization.

These demands impact employee well-being in various ways, including emotional exhaustion, psychological distress, and work dedication (Tuckey et al., 2015). The purpose of briefly explicating these various demands is to portray the multidimensionality of stress at work. High stress has several consequences that impact the organizations that employees work for, including worsened creativity (Amabile, Hadley, & Kramer, 2002) and physical health (Quick, Horn, & Quick, 1987), increased work conflict (Jamal, 1990), job dissatisfaction, burnout, job mobility (Manshor, Rodrigue, & Chong, 2003), employee turnover, sick leave, and worsened product and service quality (Schabracq & Cooper, 2000; Murphy, 1995; McHugh, 1993).

These stressors combined with round-the-clock technological access and non-work demands can create devastating impacts on employee well-being. Just as athletes need time to recover after intense physical exertion, employees need time to recover from stress. There is strong empirical evidence for the benefit of psychological detachment from work (i.e., a recovery experience of refraining from job-related activities and thoughts outside of work hours; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2014). A lack of psychological detachment from work has been shown to decrease employee well-being through increased burnout and lower life satisfaction (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2014).

Interest in employee burnout has increased over the last several decades (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Burnout has been defined in the literature as “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do ‘people work’ of some kind” (Maslach, 1982, p. 3). The prevalence of
Employee burnout is of concern, as a Gallup study found that 23%-44% of employees report feeling burned out at work at least sometimes, with some respondents claiming they always feel burned out (Wigert & Agrawal, 2018).

Employee stress and burnout are costly for organizations; the emotional exhaustion associated with burnout has been shown to decrease employee work performance (Wright & Bonnet, 1997). Emotional exhaustion has also been associated with decreased in-role performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003). Goh, Pfeffer, and Zenios (2015) built a model to estimate health care expenditures and mortality in the United States based on the following ten work-related stressors: unemployment, lack of health insurance, shift work, length of working hours, job insecurity, work-family conflict, low job control, high job demands, low social support at work, and low organizational justice. Their analysis yielded that somewhere between $125-190 billion of annual United States health care costs (5-8% of annual healthcare costs) may be connected to the indicated workplace stressors and that there are roughly 120,000 deaths per year connected to workplace stress (Goh et al., 2015).

These numbers illustrate the hazardous consequences of workplace stress and burnout. In fact, as of May 28th, 2019, the World Health Organization (WHO) has included burnout in its International Classification of Diseases and characterizes burnout as:

A syndrome conceptualized as resulting from chronic workplace stress that has not been successfully managed. It is characterized by three dimensions: 1) feelings of energy depletion or exhaustion; 2) increased mental distance from one’s job or feelings of
negativism or cynicism related to one’s job; and 3) reduced professional efficiency.

(World Health Organization [WHO], 2019, para.4)

As the lines between work and life blend, there is a greater need for intervention on behalf of the employee. As the emphasis on workplace stress and burnout grows, I hypothesize that the way organizations are addressing employee wellness – if they are at all – is insufficient. Fortunately, a new field of study with valuable insights on the topic of human flourishing has made strides since its inception more than 20 years ago. Positive psychology – the science of well-being – can move the needle on employee burnout and work-related stress. The field has the potential to do more than alleviate employee burnout and mental and physical illness. With positive psychology’s research-backed methodology, organizations can reap the benefits of employee well-being rather than simply avoid the costs of employee ill-being.

**Workplace Wellness Meet Positive Psychology**

“Wellness” in organizations has primarily focused on disease management, or monitoring and addressing employee mental (e.g., anxiety and depression) and physical (e.g., smoking cessation and obesity) health risk factors (e.g., Baicker, Cutler, & Song, 2010; Ott-Holland, Shepherd, & Ryan, 2019). More recently, positive psychology may challenge the way various institutions think of wellness.

When Dr. Martin Seligman became president of the American Psychological Association in 1998, he confronted his peers to better understand what makes life worth living, which led to the emergence of positive psychology. While mainstream psychology focused on remediating pathology, the focus of positive psychology has turned towards examining positive experiences (e.g., pleasure, fulfillment), positive individual traits (e.g., character, talent), and positive
institutions (e.g., families, businesses, communities; Seligman, 2002). Positive psychology better understands how to help people, organizations, and communities thrive (Seligman, 2011).

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines health as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity” (WHO, 2006). Though WHO has fallen under scrutiny for the word “complete” in this definition (e.g. Huber et al., 2011), the definition nicely captures the purpose of expanding the way organizations approach workplace wellness to encompass a more holistic perspective on well-being. There are two elements of this definition worth highlighting. The first is that the WHO’s well-being definition is multidimensional (Lomas, 2019). While it does include mental well-being, WHO also highlights the importance of physical and social well-being. It examines the whole person versus fragments of the human experience.

The second element of the definition I deem important is that the essence of the definition aligns with one of the most fundamental findings in positive psychology: well-being and mental health are not simply the absence of ill-being or mental illness (Keyes, 2002; Seligman, 2011). In other words, addressing what is wrong with people will not elevate what is right in them, just as correcting weaknesses does not promote strength and optimal functioning. Addressing mental and physical illness is important, but does not always lead to the elevation or improvement of people’s well-being above neutral.

Imagine a number line, labeled from a range of negative ten to ten. This number line represents a spectrum of mental health, with negative ten indicating total ill-being and positive ten illustrating total well-being. Zero on this number line represents a neutral point, where a person is experiencing neither ill-being nor well-being. Mainstream psychology has made
incredible progress in helping people whose mental health can be characterized somewhere between negative ten and negative one but has neglected to study topics such as the presence of strengths and meaning (Gable & Haidt, 2005). These types of topics, explored in positive psychology, can help those at or above neutral advance their well-being ‘north of neutral’ towards positive ten (Gable & Haidt, 2005). If well-being is not the absence of ill-being, then mainstream psychology had neither sufficiently studied nor disseminated information about the constituents of the good life.

The Why of Well-being at Work

Positive psychology has made strides at filling these gaps, identifying research-backed strategies to enable people to thrive. Two additional fields, positive organizational scholarship (POS) and positive organizational behavior (POB) have emerged, as well, to shift the narrative of their parent-fields (organizational scholarship and organizational behavior, respectfully) towards examining the positive in the workplace. Workplaces have a unique opportunity to intervene on the behalf of employee well-being through the implementation of workplace well-being programs, as the average adult spends a great deal of his her or life working, and much of a person’s well-being is related to his or her vocation (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003).

Just as traditional psychology focused on alleviating mental illness, a conventional workplace wellness program approach – by focusing on mitigating or preventing physical or psychological ill-being – is indirectly positive at best. This approach to employee wellness includes conventional Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs; Leiter and Cooper, 2017), which have been defined as:
A set of company policies and procedures for identifying, or responding to, personal or emotional problems of employees which interfere, directly or indirectly, with job performance. This program provides information and/or referrals to appropriate counseling, treatment, and support services for which the company may pay in whole or in part. (Walsh, 1982, p. 494)

These programs are meant to minimize or prevent psychological and physical health issues or risk factors in employees. Providing treatment for alcoholism is an example of an EAP (Walsh, 1982). While these types of programs are essential, they are mitigating potential harm or addressing employee issues versus promoting strengths and building on what is right in employees. See Figure 1 for an integrated approach to employee mental health.
While conventional wellness strategies focus mainly on preventing harm and managing illness, positive psychology introduces a new approach towards improving employee health through “developing the positive aspects of work as well as workers strengths and positive capacities” (LaMontagne et al., 2014, p. 3). While the Integrated Approach to Employee Mental Health focuses on mental health, I propose that it can inform well-being more broadly by including other dimensions of well-being (e.g., physical and social, as presented in the WHO definition of well-being; WHO, 2019).
Traditional employee offerings, like EAPs, pensions, and benefits, are no longer sufficient on their own for employee needs. Employees of this millennium are seeking more from their work than these incentives and other traditional workplace perks. Instead, surveys indicate that today’s workers would like greater meaning, personal development, and fulfillment from their work (Avolio & Sosik, 1999; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997). Those who see their work as callings generally experience greater life, health, and job satisfaction than those who pursue vocations for money or status (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). More money does not always suffice, either, as research shows there are diminishing returns from material wealth on subjective well-being (Myers & Diener, 1995).

Furthermore, Luthans and colleagues (2004) argue that company competitive advantage consists of more than traditional economic capital, or “what you have,” human capital, or “what you know,” and social capital, or “who you know” (p. 46) Luthans and colleagues (2004) supplement these existing sources of competitive advantage with positive psychological capital, or “who you are” (p. 46). A person’s ability to cope effectively with stress mediates the severity and frequency of stress-related outcomes (Jex & Beehr, 1991; Jex, Bliese, Buzzell, & Primeau, 2001). A more in-depth description of psychological capital will follow in the next few sections of this paper, but its inclusion in this section demonstrates how the narrative is shifting in organizations towards connecting well-being indicators with desirable business outcomes. If researchers and practitioners in positive psychology, POS, and POB can connect topics such as positivity and psychological capital to desirable business performance outcomes and bottom-line metrics, we can more effectively reinforce to key business stakeholders that psychological
resources and employee well-being are just as important as the more conventionally identified competitive advantage factors (Youssef & Luthans, 2012).

The science of positive psychology and affiliated disciplines (e.g., POS and POB) can provide positive strategies to improve employee well-being by building on human strengths and potential. This approach to employee well-being does not neglect the importance of addressing mental illness and physical health risks; rather, it examines well-being more comprehensively. With positive psychology’s empirical basis, workplaces should take a more holistic intervention approach aimed at both indirectly (conventional wellness approach) and directly (as informed by positive psychology, POS and POB) improving employee well-being. These types of interventions, when applied to organizational contexts, will be referred to as workplace well-being programs in this paper. The proposed Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model embeds lessons learned from positive psychology, POS and POB to inform program development and implementation.

The next sections of this paper will briefly review PERMA, a model of well-being used widely within the field of positive psychology (Seligman, 2011). Organizations should leverage this model of well-being to ensure their workplace well-being programs target pathways to well-being and have solid research foundations. The following sections will also describe some topics within POS and POB that are particularly applicable to the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model. These brief discussions will set the foundation for the subsequent application content in this paper, as the theory of these various disciplines is important in the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model, Figure 4, proposed in this paper.
PERMA: A Positive Psychology Construct of Well-being

The study of well-being requires a construct or model of well-being to support its growth. Several constructs of well-being have been identified and validated. Perhaps the most widely used construct is Dr. Martin Seligman’s PERMA model, which stands for positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment (Seligman, 2011). Without a construct of well-being, it would be difficult to measure how various interventions improve well-being. By delineating what constitutes well-being, we can more effectively study the construct, synthesize new interventions to improve well-being and measure the effectiveness of new interventions.

Goodman, Disabato, Kashdan, and Kauffman (2017) found that PERMA has a near-perfect (.98) correlation with Diener’s (1984) subjective well-being (SWB; i.e., “a broad category of phenomena that includes people’s emotional responses, domain satisfactions, and global judgments of life satisfaction”; Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999, p. 277). While Goodman and colleagues (2017) argue that “new models of well-being [PERMA] do not necessarily yield new types of well-being” (p. 10), constructs of well-being such as PERMA do still have inherent value. By delineating elements of well-being, Seligman (2011) introduced tangible pathways towards flourishing (Seligman, 2018). Such pathways are useful for organizations looking to synthesize workplace well-being programs to enhance employee well-being. For example, it is far more tangible for an organization to implement a program meant to inspire purpose in its employees versus setting out to enhance employee subjective well-being. While it is effective to increase SWB more broadly, a construct like PERMA allows organizations to create a more specific and targeted set of program components and thus allows the program to be more tailored to organizational needs. In determining strategies to improve
well-being, PERMA offers instruction and direction and provides five avenues towards well-being and, as such, is useful in addition to SWB.

I offer a brief review of character strengths – arguably the foundation for positive psychology – and each element of PERMA, as these concepts will be woven throughout the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model proposed in this paper.

**Character strengths.** As part of the discovery of what makes life worth living, psychologists set out to develop a common language that could describe what is best in people (Niemiec, 2017) and consolidated list of 24 universal character strengths, sorted into 6 categories of virtues: wisdom, courage, humanity, transcendence, justice, and moderation (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Every person has some combination of signature strengths, which are strengths that we connect with, value, and use often (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). They are essential to who we are, and we would have a hard time imagining life without them (Niemiec, 2017). Simple awareness of your strengths has been found to significantly contribute to flourishing (Hone, Jarden, Duncan, & Schofield, 2015), but using your strengths in the different contexts of your life can have really powerful outcomes.

As will be described in the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model, certain conditions are more favorable in an organization for a workplace well-being program to be successful, a concept I refer to as “Cultivating the Soil.” In the context of individual well-being and PERMA, strengths are the fertilizer that creates the type of conditions for each of the PERMA elements to grow. See Appendix A for more information about character strengths.

**Positive emotions.** Most of us experience a variety of emotions every day. Unfortunately, the negative emotions we experience are more pervasive than our positive
emotions. We are prone to a negativity bias, which causes us to pay more attention and give
greater weight to negative things (Rozin & Royzman, 2001). It was useful for our ancestors to
interpret the world in this way, as they were constantly exposed to life-threatening stimuli, like
drought and carnivorous animals. Those who were keenest at spotting potential threats were the
ones that survived. In our world today, many of us are safe from the types of dangers our
ancestors dealt with regularly, though we are left with pervasive negativity biases that often
cause us to react strongly and negatively to non-life threatening stimuli, like a cold shoulder from
a boss. It is important to note that some degree of negativity is crucial to well-being because it
makes us rational (Fredrickson, 2009) and alerts us to danger (Peterson, 2006). But we often
experience good things in life that elicit positive emotions. Emotions like awe, gratitude,
serenity, joy are essential components of the good life and can unleash an upward spiral that
enables us to flourish.

**Engagement.** Engagement is categorized by completely absorbing experiences; you lose
track of time and self-consciousness (Seligman, 2011). This concept is referred to as flow, or an
experience during which one is completely immersed in the activity at hand (Csikszentmihalyi,
1990). Flow is not experienced easily; rather, flow happens when perceived skill matches the
perceived challenge of the task. If a person’s skills are too advanced for the task, he experiences
boredom; if a person perceives his skills as insufficient to handle the task, he experiences anxiety
(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). The experience is more profound than pleasure because it is
intertwined with personal development and an increase in skills as challenges increase. When
intentionally included in everyday experiences, flow can enable us to live a life of deep
enjoyment. One way to increase engagement and the likelihood of flow is to discover and utilize
one’s top strengths (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). See Appendix A for more information on character strengths and its relationship to flow.

**Relationships.** The people we connect with every day can have lasting impacts on our well-being. We all know the way a sour relationship can make us feel, but many of us also know that the deeply meaningful relationships in our lives can be the purest sources of fulfillment. Chris Peterson, one of the pioneers of positive psychology, encapsulated positive psychology’s purpose with the expression, “other people matter” (Peterson, 2006, p. 249). Not only do we benefit greatly from dyadic relationships with others (Seligman, 2011), but we also desire to feel a part of something larger than ourselves. In her book, *The Power of Meaning*, Emily Esfahani-Smith identifies belonging in a group as a strong source of meaning in our lives. Such group connection further allows or relationships through which people—in the workplace, employees—will feel understood, recognized, and valued (Smith, 2017).

**Meaning.** Seligman (2011) defines meaning as “belonging to and serving something that you believe is bigger than the self (p. 17). Smith (2017) delineates four pillars of meaning: 1) belonging (i.e., receiving affection from and feeling understood, recognized, and affirmed by others); 2) purpose (i.e., goal we work towards that in some way contributes to the world); 3) storytelling (i.e., the way we make sense of and communicate the sequences of events that constitute our lives); and, 4) transcendence (i.e., rising above the everyday experience as part of a higher reality). Smith (2017) identifies belonging as the most important component of meaning, and describes two conditions necessary for someone to feel he belongs: 1) mutual care and respect 2) frequent pleasant interactions with others.
Accomplishment. Accomplishment involves self-efficacy (i.e., belief that one is capable of achieving certain outcomes; Bandura, 1997), a sense of accomplishment, and personal goal-pursuit (Butler & Kern, 2016). A discussion of self-efficacy and its relationship to workplace well-being programs is outside the scope of this paper, but a brief review of self-efficacy and its relationship to goal-setting can be found in Appendix B. These subjective characteristics are important, as success factors for one person may be different from another person’s success factors (Butler & Kern, 2016).

Research across various domains supports the assertion that talent is not always a sufficient predictor of success, and that grit – passion and perseverance for long term goals – has valuable predictive validity for success (Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, & Kelly, 2007). As an extreme state of self-discipline, grit is the integral ingredient of extraordinary achievement (Seligman, 2011). The unyielding pursuit of a goal is what differentiates gritty individuals from others (Duckworth et al., 2007).

PERMA is a construct of well-being intended for individual flourishing. Two fields – positive organizational scholarship (POS) and positive organizational behavior (POB) – have emerged to better inform ways to cultivate workplace well-being and link well-being to positive business outcomes. While POS focuses on creating organizational conditions for employees to thrive, POB has emerged to focus more on the individual drivers of employee performance and flourishing (Luthans, 2002b; Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008).

In addition to a brief overview of each of these fields, the subsequent sections will summarize relevant topics that have emerged from each field. This theoretical foundation is established here because each topic has implications for the development and implementation of
workplace well-being programs and will be referenced throughout the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model proposed in this paper.

**Positive Organizational Scholarship**

POS examines how the shift towards the positive that psychology experienced can be applied to the workplace to drive organizational well-being (Cameron et al., 2003). POS “focuses attention on the generative dynamics in organizations that lead to the development of human strength, foster resiliency in employees, enable healing and restoration, and cultivate extraordinary organizational performance” (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012, p. 1). By studying strengths, excellence and virtue, the field can highlight the goodness in all people to inform employee and organizational flourishing. It is important to note that the field does not neglect organizational adversity; rather, it approaches challenges through a different, more adaptive and optimistic lens (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012). What categorizes the field as ‘positive’ is not necessarily the content it covers, but the lens through which it approaches both positive (e.g., celebration) and negative (e.g., tragedies) experiences within organizations. Aside from examining positive deviance (i.e., “intentional behaviors that depart from the norm of a reference group in honorable ways”; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003, p. 209) and approaching conventional organizational experiences with a new lens, POS also examines how positivity is able to unlock new resources (e.g., relationships, ideas) for employees, groups, and entire organizations (Fredrickson, 2009; Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012).

The following topics emerged from POS and will be woven throughout the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementing Model presented in Figure 4: POS mechanisms, high quality connections, appreciative inquiry, Everest goals, and positive energy. While other topics from
POS might be applicable (e.g., sharing negative feedback more positively), I have identified these as topics that I believe add the most value to the proposed Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model.

**Three POS mechanisms.** Three main mechanisms through which POS studies optimal functioning are positive meaning-making (i.e., the way people interpret and make sense of the things that happen to them), positive-emoting (i.e., the experience of positive emotions), and positive inter-relating (i.e., the way people interact with each other; Dutton & Glynn, 2008).

Among other topics, such as optimism and hopefulness, positive meaning-making is related to our orientations towards our work (i.e., job, career, or calling; Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swindler, & Tipton, 1985). Another element included in positive meaning-making is the way organizations promote a corporate purpose that connects the business to social responsibility (Glynn & Smith, 2007). The experience of positive emoting can occur individually, between a dyad, or within a group to unlock new resources and inspire an upward spiral towards flourishing (Fredrickson, 2009; Dutton & Glynn, 2008). In terms of positive inter-relating, our professional relationships become our social capital. Social capital, or “who you know,” (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004, p. 46) influences career success (Burt, 1992; Gabbay & Zuckerman, 1998; Podolny & Baron, 1997; as cited in Adler & Kwon, 2002), among other benefits (for more information, see Adler & Kwon, 2002).

**High quality connections.** Interactions with others that involve positive mutual regard, trust and active engagement are referred to as high quality connections (HQC; Dutton, 2003). HQCs can have profound influences on the quality of work experience and the vitality of individuals and organizations (Dutton, 2003). HQCs can occur from a variety of interactions
with others, stretching from an email exchange to an intimate conversation, and can improve physical and psychological well-being (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003). Organizations can benefit not only from the improved health and well-being of their employees, but can also use HQCs as a mechanism through which organizational values such as kindness and honesty are promoted (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003). For a more in-depth review of the benefits of HQCs, see Appendix C.

Dutton (2014) highlights four pathways to HQCs: 1) respectfully engage others (i.e., demonstrating that “one person exists and is important in the eyes of another”; p. 13), 2) task-enable others (i.e., the facilitation of another person’s success on a task or goal; 3) trust; and 4) play.

**Appreciative inquiry.** Appreciative Inquiry (AI) is an inquisitive method for inspiring organizational change that encourages stakeholders to ask questions like, ‘what is the organization doing well,’ ‘what are the organization’s strengths,’ and ‘what would the ideal organizational look like’ (Cooperrider, 2017). These questions are rooted in an overarching inquisition, “what gives life to a living system when it is most effective, alive, and constructively capable,” (Cooperrider, Whitney, & Stavros, 2008, p. 3). At this point, AI has been leveraged by thousands of organizations, including nonprofits, Fortune 100 companies, and schools (Stavros, Godwin, & Cooperrider, 2015). For more information about the AI approach versus more tradition problem-solving approaches and some implications for practitioners of a strengths-driven practice, see Appendix D.

The AI change process has been delineated into five key steps. See Figure 2 for an image of the AI 5-D cycle.
This process starts with defining the area of focus for organizational change and then moves through discovering the organization’s strengths, envisioning the dream state (i.e., the ideal state of success), designing the activities or elements that constitute the change, and maintenance and delivery to realize the new destiny of the organization. Each of these phases will be discussed in greater detail in the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model.

Everest Goals. So often, there is an emphasis on the creation of SMART goals (i.e., specific, measurable, aligned, realistic, time-bound; O’Neil & Conzemius, 2006). While this goal-setting approach has shown to be effective in adult and student populations (O’Neil & Conzemius, 2006), it may not be the goal-setting technique that produces the greatest outcomes.

Research shows that setting organizational Everest goals enables organizations to reach
unprecedented performance levels (e.g., Cameron & Lavine, 2006). These are the types of goals that take an organization beyond ordinary performance, towards positive deviance. Everest goals “represent the peak, the culmination, the supreme achievement that we can imagine… accomplishment well beyond ordinary success” (Cameron, 2013, p. 99). Everest goals push performance past normal expectations and towards spectacular and extraordinary performance by focusing on creating cultures of abundance in organizations versus focusing solely on addressing organizational problems or deficits (Cameron & Levine, 2006). It is important to note that Everest goals have SMART goal attributes (specific, measurable, aligned, realistic, time-bound) integrated (Cameron, 2013).

In addition to the inclusion of SMART goal dimensions, for a goal to be considered an Everest goal it needs to have the following characteristics (Cameron, 2013):

1. Positive deviance (i.e., a focus beyond addressing problems and deficits; reaching for extraordinary performance).
2. Goods of first intent (i.e., an end in and of itself as opposed to a means to an end; intrinsically motivating and valuable).
3. Affirmative orientation (i.e., capitalization on strengths and possibilities).
4. Contribution (i.e., benevolence towards others above personal achievements; unique value creation).
5. Sustainable positive energy (i.e., intrinsically motivating; highlighting energy derived from relationships with others).

These Everest goal characteristics will be described in the context of workplace well-being program goal-setting in this paper.
**Positive Energy.** Positive energy, which is derived from relational energy, is defined as “feelings of aliveness, arousal, vitality, and zest…life-giving force that allows us to perform, to create, and to persist” (Cameron, 2013, p. 49). Positive energy has been identified as the single most important attribute of positive leaders (Cameron, 2013). While other types of energy such as physical, psychological, and emotional energy are depleted when used, relational energy increases with use. Our positive interpersonal relationships can uplift and rejuvenate us (Cameron, 2013). Those who are positive energizers have been found to have greater individual goal achievement, engagement, job satisfaction (Cole, Bruch, & Vogel, 2011), are likely high performers (e.g., Baker, 2001), and are more adaptive, creative and have more robust interpersonal relationships (Spreitzer, Lam, & Quinn, 2012). Organizational units with positively energizing leaders tend to have “more cohesion among employees, more orientation toward learning, more expression of experimentation and creativity, and higher levels of performance than units without energizing leaders” (Cameron, 2013, p. 56). Appendix E includes a list of attributes of energizers versus de-energizers in organizations and Appendix F has an example of a method for identifying positive energizers within an organization.

POS can inform the creation of workplace well-being programs by cultivating conditions for excellence in organizations. A similar field, POB, takes a more micro-level approach to workplace well-being by developing a resource called psychological capital (PsyCap) in employees.
Positive Organizational Behavior

POB was born from organizational behavior – just as positive psychology was born from psychology and POS was born from organizational scholarship – to create a more proactive and positive approach to organizational behavior (Luthans, 2002b). POB has been defined as:

The study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace. (Luthans, 2002a, p. 59)

Four psychological resources have been identified within this field as PsyCap – hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism (HERO; Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). POB is important in the context of this paper because PsyCap informs interventions targeted at improving employee well-being. PsyCap can be introduced quickly into organizations through training interventions (Luthans et al., 2007), including online delivery (Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008), which makes its inclusion in workplace well-being programs a straightforward one. Return on investment for PsyCap development training is estimated above 200% (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006). See Appendix G for a description of each element of PsyCap and for more information about the benefits of PsyCap.

Much of the implementation of PsyCap in organizations has focused on one to four-hour training interventions (Youssef & Luthans, 2012), though there is an opportunity for other methods of dissemination. Youssef & Luthans (2012) suggest the following options, which will be referred to in the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model:
• Create PsyCap activities for employees to choose from and simultaneously create a forum for employees to communicate about and follow-up on their experience with these activities;
• Adapt existing positive psychology interventions (e.g., gratitude journals, meditation, flow-activities) to create workplace interventions; and,
• Coaching, mentoring, and role modeling by leaders high in PsyCap.

PsyCap provides an extremely useful source of intervention possibilities and areas of application for workplace well-being programs, as it is empirically supported and connected with various positive business outcomes. As such, PsyCap will be referenced throughout this paper. Workplace well-being programs can target each PsyCap element and the methods of delivering PsyCap development to enhance employee psychological capital and ultimately see positive business results.

**How to Transform Your Workplace**

The previous sections reviewed the consequences of employee stress and burnout, described the benefits of employee well-being, and introduced positive psychology, POS, and POB. The remainder of this paper offers recommendations for the implementation of workplace well-being programs, from assessing the needs of organizations to program execution.

As organizations look to improve employee experience and performance, they should consider strategies outside conventional approaches. In other words, solving problems and focusing on employee and organizational deficits might move the needle on organizational performance, but to truly achieve positively deviant levels of performance, organizations need to leverage extraordinary tactics (Cameron, 2013).
Consider the concept of ‘north of neutral’ described in this paper concerning individual well-being. A similar concept can be applied to organizations. Traditional problem-solving approaches to organizational change can take an organization’s health from negative ten through to a neutral place, but to drive excellence, an organization needs to use different tactics to elevate organizational health above neutral towards positive ten. Figure 3 represents a similar continuum to the one previously discussed in this paper, though this continuum represents negative to positive deviance in organizations (as opposed to languishing to flourishing for individuals).

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{deviance_continuum.png}
\caption{A Deviance Continuum. Reprinted from Practicing Positive Leadership: Tools and Techniques that Create Extraordinary Results (p. 105), by K. Cameron, 2013, San Francisco, CA, Berrett-Koehler, Inc.}
\end{figure}

Between negative deviance and normal or expected performance, there is a focus on errors, issues, and obstacles (Cameron, 2013). Workplace wellness programs that focus on solutions for employee health problems are likely targeting this range and will produce, at best, normal or expected performance. To achieve the extraordinary opportunities of positive deviance, different approaches are needed.

Several studies in a variety of industries have demonstrated how the implementation of positive psychology-based positive practices in organizations can produce desirable, positively
deviant outcomes, including profitability, productivity, quality, customer satisfaction, and employee retention (e.g., Cameron, Bright, & Caza, 2004; Cameron, Mora, Leutshcer, & Calarco, 2011; Gittel, Cameron, Lim, & Rivas, 2006). Moreover, employees who are developed in organizational cultures informed by positive psychology-based practices will likely acquire the skills necessary to become positive leaders in their organizations. The development of employees and leaders rooted in more positive environments can have ripple effects on organizations over time (Cameron, 2013).

That said, there is also evidence that wellness strategies in organizations might not work to improve business outcomes. A paper published this year found that after a series of eight modules focused on nutrition, physical activity, stress reduction, and other topics, employees reported significantly greater positive health behavior, but researchers found no significant difference in other measures such as health care spending and utilization (Song & Baicker, 2019). The study recognized statistical and methodological limitations, such as missing data from employees (Song & Baicker, 2019). There is also concern about employee engagement in wellness and well-being programs (e.g., Robroek, van Lenthe, van Empelen, & Burdorf, 2009; Riberio, Martins, & Carvalho, 2014; Spence, 2015; Rongen et al., 2014).

Overall, the literature provides evidence for workplace wellness program success, but highlights that these successful programs are implemented in organizational cultures that facilitate success, are well-designed, well-executed, and have an evidence-based research foundation (Goetz et al., 2014). This discussion suggests that not all workplace well-being programs are created equal; in other words, program development and execution matter. The remainder of this paper will review the proposed Workplace Well-Being Program.
Implementation Model that highlights various considerations to keep in mind as workplace well-being programs are synthesized. These recommendations are intended to optimize the likelihood of program success and move organizations towards positive deviance. This section offers insight into how to transform organizations through workplace well-being programs to enable employees and organizations to achieve their highest potentials and sustain optimal well-being.

A Model of a Successful Workplace Well-being Program

Through a review of the literature, I synthesized a model of what I propose are the effective steps to consider in the ideation and implementation of a workplace well-being program. This model is not the first of its kind (see, for example, Day, Hartling, & Mackie, 2015; Watson, 2008). This paper instead drives the conversation in the direction of establishing the success criteria of workplace well-being programs that intend to grow the good in employees as opposed to or as a supplement for conventional wellness strategies. This perspective is a unique one from much of the existing literature promoting models of conventional workplace wellness program implementation. See Figure 4 for the proposed Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model and outline for the forthcoming discussion. The model is color-coded and has an accompanying key to indicate where each recommendation derives its support from. This model:

1. Includes lessons learned from positive psychology (blue), POS/PsyCap (red), a combination of insight from these fields (purple), and organizational well-being programs based on these fields,

2. Considers general organizational program implementation strategies (green).

3. Draws from previously proposed wellness program implementation models (green).
4. Is connected to positive business outcomes.

**Figure 4.** Proposed Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model.

This model is not complete once an organization reaches program execution. Rather, organizations should continue to reassess the conditions of the organization and employee needs, reset organizational goals and program purpose as the program develops, integrate design process elements and maintain the sustainability plan. As new program elements are delivered, program execution can support an effective rollout. As such, the elements of the Workplace
Well-Being Program Implementation Model are interconnected and dynamic. The subsequent sections will describe this model and its academic foundation in further detail.

I. Cultivating the Soil: Optimal Conditions for Program Success

Before investing in the creation of workplace well-being programs, it is important to address several foundational considerations. Imagine you are building a house; you could acquire the highest quality materials, invest tremendously in interior design, and select the best neighborhood. Yet, if the foundation for the house is unstable, you will likely experience costs and difficulties down the line.

The creation of a workplace well-being program requires similar considerations. Even with the best of intentions, there are certain foundational elements necessary for workplace well-being programs to lead to desired outcomes.

Perceived Organizational Support & Sincerity

Employee perceptions are one such consideration. Perceived organizational support – employees’ beliefs that their work organizations value their contributions and care about their well-being – plays an important role in establishing workplace well-being programs (Ott-Holland et al., 2019). Generally speaking, perceived organizational support is associated with favorable employee outcomes (e.g., positive mood and job satisfaction) as well as organizational outcomes (e.g., better performance, loyalty, and affective commitment; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The size of the organization may impact how much responsibility organizations genuinely feel for the well-being of employees. A qualitative study that collected research from ten focus groups of employers in a variety of industries found that employers of smaller organizations tended to feel more responsible for employee health, particularly mental health
Smaller workplace employers may have established personal friendships with employees, which led to greater employer concern for employees’ mental and physical health. Employers from larger companies tended not to discuss friendship in their responses and felt less responsibility towards employee mental and physical health (Pescud et al., 2015). Pescud and colleagues (2015) posited that corporate culture might play a large role in this distinction, as employers from larger companies likely do not work directly with every one of their employees. Managers and lower-level leaders may play a more direct role in employee health behavior due to their proximity and frequent interactions with employees.

In a longitudinal physical wellness study, researchers found that perceived organizational support had a relationship with program participation in the years following intervention inception (Ott-Holland et al., 2019). Ott-Holland and colleagues (2019) argue that perceived organizational support “may play a small but meaningful role in encouraging or dampening employee enthusiasm” for organizational wellness programs (p. 12).

Of importance here is the sincerity that employers demonstrate when introducing workplace well-being initiatives in their organizations. Sincerity has been defined as “the extent to which one’s outward expression of feelings and thoughts are aligned with the reality experienced by the self” (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 320). With this definition in mind, perceived organizational support is more than an employee perception that employers care for their well-being. It is crucial that employees perceive sincerity in their organizations’ well-being efforts.

Spence (2015) offers the example of employees perceiving an organization’s well-being initiatives as part of a public relations stunt to land higher on a ‘best places to work’ list. Other
research suggests that if employees perceive that a well-being program is administered for cost-saving purposes instead of genuine care for employee well-being, then employees will doubt the organization’s motives and the program will likely be unsuccessful (Ott-Holland et al., 2019).

Human Resource (HR) practices – including wellness strategies – are affected by the same concept. Nishii, Lepak, and Schneider (2008) demonstrated how HR practices that employees perceived as having positive motives led to better employee work attitudes and outcomes than when employees perceived HR practices as motivated by controlling reasons, like cost reduction and insincerity. Such employee perceptions could render even the most well-executed workplace well-being program unsuccessful.

**Strategies to enhance sincerity and perceived organizational support.** Organizations can leverage the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) to assess the construct in their organizations (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). The SPOS has been adapted for different contexts (e.g., Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993; as cited in Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). A copy of the SPOS is included in Appendix H.

This section will briefly review three antecedents (i.e., fairness, supervisor support, and rewards/job conditions) to perceived organizational support and will provide strategies to enhance perceived organizational support to create the ideal conditions for a workplace well-being program to flourish.

**Fairness.** In terms of perceived organizational support, fairness manifests through procedural justice and organizational politics (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Procedural justice
involves a fair distribution of resources and information across employees in an organization (Greenberg, 1990). Within procedural justice lies structural determinants (i.e., rules, policies, procedures that communicate information fairly to employees and give employees a say in decisions) and interactional justice (i.e., treating employees with respect and dignity; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Organizational politics include “attempts to influence others in ways that promote self-interest, often at the expense of rewards for individual merit or the betterment of the organization” (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p. 700).

To set the stage for workplace well-being programs, fairness translates to transparent promotion processes based on performance as opposed to favoritism, handling interpersonal conflict with compassion as opposed to contempt, and following through on communicated commitments to employees as opposed to inaction. These types of processes rooted in fairness communicate to employees that the organizations have a vested interest in the employee experience and, when launching a workplace well-being initiative, a commitment to deliver the intended outcomes sincerely and fairly.

**Perceived supervisor support.** To feel one matters stems from the self-perception that one is important and impactful (Schlossberg, 1989; Taylor & Turner, 2001; Prilleltensky, 2014). Perceived supervisor support, as an offshoot of perceived organizational support, refers to employees’ perceptions that managers value their contributions and care for their well-being (Kottek & Sharafinski, 1988). Before the implementation of a workplace well-being program, organizations should review the effectiveness of their managers by, for example, surveying employees to assess the extent to which employees feel valued and cared for by their managers. Supervisor support is indicated in the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model as
an important element of developing a sustainability plan for workplace well-being programs. If assessment results demonstrate inadequate perceived supervisor support, then organizations might consider developing interventions to improve manager effectiveness before implementing an employee well-being program. The SPOS in Appendix H can be adapted to assess perceived supervisor support by replacing ‘supervisor’ for ‘organization’ in the measures (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

**Organizational rewards and job conditions.** Certain human resources practices can contribute to employees feeling valued by their organizations and therefore experiencing increased perceived organizational support, including fair recognition, pay, promotions and training as employee investment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). If such practices are not in place before the implementation of a workplace well-being program, an organization can either establish several of the practices first or can integrate various practices within the workplace well-being program itself. Certain role stressors can also be accounted for, including job ambiguity (i.e., employees unclear about their job responsibilities), work overload (i.e., employee demands exceed time and skill constraints), role conflict (i.e., employees feel they have unharmonious job responsibilities). Accounting for these role stressors can give employees the mental space necessary to engage in workplace well-being programs. These human resource practices enhance perceived organizational support and would, therefore, establish more fertile conditions to implement a workplace well-being program.
Trust, Respect, & High Quality Connections

As alluded to in the perceived organizational support section, interactional justice (i.e., treating employees with respect and dignity; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) is an important foundation for a workplace well-being program.

Day and Penney (2017) suggest that a culture of mutual respect is an integral component of developing a workplace well-being initiative. Respect, as a component of a positive social environment at work, is related to well-being (Repetti, 1987). Respect and support must be present between employees and supervisors, employees and leaders, and employees and employees. Along similar lines is the necessity of organizational trust, which is defined as a shared experience of vulnerability (e.g., feeling comfortable telling your boss that you feel overwhelmed) and the expectation of fair exchange (Edmondson, Kramer, & Cook, 2004). If a workplace well-being program is implemented in an organization with an unsupportive, untrustworthy and disrespectful environment, the program will likely fail because employees will be more hesitant to participate in and connect authentically with the program (Day & Penney, 2017).

**How to develop trust and respect in an organization.** While a body of literature exists around trust and respect, for the scope of this paper, I describe how one strategy – high quality connections (HQC) – can improve organizational trust and respect. Conditions that enable HQCs also enable the type of compassionate and inclusive work environment that workplace well-being programs can thrive in.

In this section, I highlight two pathways to HQCs – respectful engagement and trust – and describe a few ways to activate these two pathways to HQCs as ways to cultivate the ideal
conditions for a workplace well-being program. These two pathways are highlighted for explanatory purposes, but other strategies to improve organizational trust and respect exist.

**Respectful engagement.** Respectfully engaging with others comes down to demonstrating that “one person exists and is important in the eyes of another” (Dutton, 2014, p. 13). One can demonstrate respectful engagement by showing up with physical or virtual presence, actively listening, demonstrating empathy, and using supportive communication (Dutton, 2014). The forthcoming recommendations for building respectful engagement primarily concern organizational leadership. Leaders can set the ‘tone at the top’ for interpersonal respect by respectfully engaging with others through the pathways identified (i.e., presence, active listening, empathy, and supportive communication), which ultimately sets the stage for workplace well-being programs.

Leaders establish respectful engagement and portray sincere care for employee well-being by sacrificing their time and leveraging a physical presence in front of employees to discuss employee perspectives. Leaders can also demonstrate that they are interested in employee well-being by holding open forums for employees to share their concerns and ask questions. By leveraging active listening and supportive communication, leaders build HQCs with their employees and have the opportunity to gather feedback about employee experiences. Leaders can practice empathy by remembering what it was like to be a junior employee. They can also practice active supportive communication by paraphrasing, summarizing what employees are sharing, asking questions, and requesting feedback (Rogers & Farson, 1984). By establishing a ‘tone at the top’ of respectful engagement, leaders can role-model the behavior for employees and work towards creating a culture of respect.
Trust. Trust may be difficult in a work context, as it requires opening oneself up for vulnerability (Dutton, 2014). Trust is an ongoing process of authentic discussions and transparent communication. Trust is difficult to develop, but easy to lose, which makes it a fickle yet important aspect of the introduction of a workplace well-being program.

Organizational trust develops based on a few factors: 1) benevolence (i.e., benign motives and directed kindness); 2) ability (i.e., competence to carry out obligations); 3) integrity (i.e., adhering to agreed upon principles, fairness, honesty, and avoiding hypocrisy); and, 4) predictability (i.e., consistency of behavior; Dietz & Hartog, 2006). Dutton (2003) offers some strategies to enhance trust in an organization to create conditions for HQCs to foster, which may also create the best conditions for workplace well-being initiatives to succeed. The recommendations included in the forthcoming discussion are in terms of organizational leadership.

Organizational trust develops when leaders share valuable and personal information (Dutton, 2003). By continuously keeping employees abreast on the latest company-wide developments, employees are more likely to feel that employers care for them. This recommendation is particularly salient in times of organizational change; by informing employees of changes and news promptly, employees will feel as if they are part of the larger organizational agenda (Zand, 1997).

Leaders can also share personal information to create cultures of trust with employees. In the context of workplace well-being, leaders can disclose their stories of mental health or work-life balance struggles. This process of storytelling elicits vulnerability from leadership and requires the development of a narrative that allows for employees and leaders to connect through
shared experiences. This connection from leadership’s storytelling enables people to feel understood, recognized, and valued by one another and contributes to a sense of meaning (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002; Smith, 2017). Dutton (2003) highlights how the vulnerability that accompanies storytelling is a signal that the storyteller trusts the listeners. Such an exercise can contribute to a culture of trust within an organization and allows for employees and leaders to break down the barriers of the corporate hierarchy.

II. Needs Assessment

Once the soil has been cultivated and an organization is ready to begin developing a workplace well-being program, organizations need to consider how to plan for such an investment. Intervention development models are typically framed around identifying, defining, and solutioning problems (e.g., Wight, Wimbush, Jepson, & Doi, 2016). As previously mentioned, positive psychology introduces a different approach, one that is based on organizational strengths and opportunity as opposed to a focus on deficits and problem areas. To achieve positively deviant performance, non-conventional strategies, such as well-being audits and AI, should be leveraged for an organizational needs assessment.

This section will describe well-being audits and the first two steps of the AI 5-D cycle, Define and Discover, which can drive organizational performance beyond the status quo. This section will also explore the diversity of employee needs from a person-activity fit perspective. In determining what an organization needs, keep in mind that a healthy workplace minimizes the negative while also promoting the positive (Day & Penney, 2017). Well-being is not one size fits all, so a variety of tactics should be leveraged to meet the specific needs of both the organization and its employees.
Well-Being Audits

Well-being audits capture employee perspectives on the ideal, fulfilling, constructive workplace (Leiter & Cooper, 2017). Workplace well-being audits adopt a long-term information gathering model, happen frequently, and build on organizational strengths, though they also consider opportunities for improvement (Leiter & Cooper, 2017). The Foresight Mental Capital and Well-being Project (2008) found that investment in well-being audits may produce considerable economic benefits (as cited in McDaid & Park, 2011). Though these audits may uncover problems within organizations, they are geared towards identifying strengths, values, and opportunities. As such, they are powerful tools for positive change (Leiter & Cooper, 2017).

If an organization’s measures are solely problem-oriented (e.g., attrition, stress, burnout), then efforts will be invested towards minimizing these negatives in the workplace. While these are important measures to consider from a holistic well-being perspective, organizations should also include more positive measures, such as employee senses of purpose, psychological capital, subjective well-being, and engagement. The inclusion of these measures enables organizations to strive for abundance in addition or as opposed to minimizing deficits.

One particular type of well-being audit, HEalthy & Resilient Organizations (HERO) audits, has shown to be promising in supporting the enhancement of positive organizations (Salanova, Llorens, Acosta, & Torrente, 2013). Organizations can be classified as HEROs if they:

…make systematic, planned, and proactive efforts to improve employees’ and organizational processes and outcomes…aimed at improving the work environment at the levels of (a) the task (autonomy, feedback) (b) the interpersonal (social relationships,
transformational leadership, and (c) the organization (HR practices). (Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, & Martinez, 2012, p. 788)

The HERO model involves the interconnectedness of healthy organizational resources and practices (i.e., increasing shared resources among employees; e.g., social support, work-family balance), healthy employees (i.e., employees have more positive psychological resources at work; e.g., work engagement, self-efficacy, resilience), and healthy organizational outcomes (e.g., customer service, employee performance, quality; Salanova et al., 2012). HERO audits collect this information from a variety of stakeholders, including CEOs, employees, and customers. While the information collected in such audits is crucial for driving decisions, these audits are only useful if paired with organizational action towards improving the health and resilience of the organization (Salanova et al., 2012). Such action can manifest through the creation of a workplace well-being program that targets the various elements of HEROs (i.e., healthy organizational resources and practices, psychological resources of healthy employees, and healthy organizational outcomes). Importantly, well-being audits can act as baseline measurements to monitor program success throughout the rollout and after the implementation of the workplace well-being program.

AI Phases: Define and Discover

The essence of well-being audits (i.e., to capitalize on strengths and involve a variety of stakeholders) is similar to the AI approach of organizational change. By taking a more appreciative approach to conducting a need assessment, organizations ask questions that take them towards more positive and advantageous outcomes.
During the needs assessment, the first two elements of the AI 5-D cycle, Define and Discover, are applicable and useful. A brief review of each phase will be described with implications for workplace well-being initiatives.

**Define.** In the Define phase, organizations identify how and why they are using AI. The Define phase helps to remold an organizational issue into an opportunity for growth and inquiry (Stavros et al., 2015). The key question to ask during this phase is, “what generative (i.e., life-giving/life-creating) topic do we want to focus on together?” (Stavros et al., 2015, p. 120).

When British Airways leveraged AI for a change initiative, they were able to shift their change focus from “how do we deal with excessive baggage loss [emphasis added]?” to “how do we create outstanding arrival experiences [emphasis added]?” (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005; Stavros et al., 2015, p. 121). The subsequent change initiative became one of British Airways’ most successful change programs in company history (Whitney & Trosten-Bloom, 2010).

In the context of a workplace well-being program, organizations might start their journeys by asking questions like, “how do we deal with the chronic disengagement of our workforce?” or “how do we handle the high stress and burnout of our employees?” The Define phase of the AI 5-D lifecycle would call for a reframing of these types of questions into questions such as “how do we create the most engaged workforce?” and “how can we enhance the well-being of all employees north of neutral towards flourishing?” By reframing these types of questions, organizations turn their focus away from close-minded adversity mitigation towards excellence and positive deviance. After all, organizations tend to move in the direction of the questions they ask and the material they study (Cooperrider et al., 2008).
Discover. As the second phase in the AI 5-D cycle, Discovery builds on the Define phase to reframe questions and learn about the best in organizations and among employees (Stavros et al., 2015). A great way to put this phase into action is by conducting one-on-one interviews with stakeholders and asking questions similar to “when we have been at our best, what were we doing?” (Stavros et al., 2015, p. 121). This question and the extension questions in Figure 5 identify the life-giving elements of employees and organizations so that change initiatives can build off of these strengths.

| 1. Reflecting on History and High Point Moments: What is a peak experience of “x” or at “y” (customized to the focus of the inquiry)? |
| 2. Learning from Others/Search for Inspirational Practices: What are best practices from others regarding “x” and how can we learn from what has worked elsewhere to inform what we want to do? |
| 3. Building on What We Value Most/Continuity: No matter what changes about “y,” what do we value most about ourselves, our colleagues, and our organization? |
| 4. Images of the Future: Imagine it is five years in the future and the organization has become what you most want it to be, what does it look like? |
| 5. Three Wishes: If you had three wishes for your organization, what would they be? |


In Figure 5, “x” can be replaced with a topic of inquiry (e.g., engaged workforce) and “y” can be replaced with the organization. Story sharing should be highlighted in the Discovery phase as one-on-one AI interviews are conducted with stakeholders. Stories can include
experiences in the organization and visions for what the future state of the organization could look like if the organization were to achieve optimal results of the intended change initiative.

Those conducting the interviews should be instructed to listen intently, be curious, and ask questions that dig deeper into the stories and visions the interviewee is sharing based on the questions in Figure 5. The interviewers can either be people professionally trained in AI, or members of the organization who have been instructed by AI professionals. Once several AI interviews have been conducted with a variety of stakeholders, the responses are consolidated and categorized into themes to be communicated back to those who were interviewed and to be leveraged in the next phase of the AI 5-D cycle, the Dream phase (Stavros et al., 2015). The Dream phrase will be important for the Organizational Goal Setting element of the proposed Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model.

**Identify Individual Differences**

A needs assessment is intended to understand the needs of an organization and its employees, but this process should dig deeper to identify the variation in employee needs across the organization. People are told that they should embrace their uniqueness, that no two people are the same and that we should be proud of our differences. If such advice is true, then the strategies used to help each person flourish should honor his or her individuality. The most successful workplace well-being programs should honor individual differences among employees and should be able to be personalized for the employees taking part in the programs. This section highlights some lessons learned from positive psychology interventions for individuals and then examine this consideration at an organizational level.
One of the outputs of positive psychology is a collection of positive interventions, which are “aimed at cultivating positive feelings, positive behaviors, or positive cognitions.” (Sin & Lyubomirsky, 2009, p. 1). Positive interventions are strategies to enhance the well-being of various populations, and some can even be used in clinical populations (e.g., Rashid & Seligman, 2018).

Assessing individualized needs. In a meta-analysis of 51 positive interventions, Sin and Lyubomirsky (2009) discovered participant factors that moderated the effectiveness of positive intervention strategies, including depression levels, self-selection, and age. Results indicated that depression level was important for the efficacy of positive interventions, self-selected individuals benefited more from positive interventions than those who were not self-selected, and intervention effectiveness increased linearly with age (Sin & Lyubomirsky, 2009). Sin and Lyubomirsky (2009) highlight various ways for practitioners to account for the uniqueness and individuality of their clients. They recommend that practitioners consider depression level, motivation, and age and caution that the effects of various interventions may vary based on these characteristics.

Let’s use depression level, as an example in organizations. Organizations would benefit from traditional Employee Assistance Program (EAP) opportunities that provide counseling to employees suffering from high levels of depression. However, this offering does not apply to the entire employee population. Consider the north of neutral metaphor of the continuum from languishing to flourishing. Employees whose mental health falls between negative ten and negative one need different mental health attendance than those whose mental health is relatively neutral or above neutral. Traditional EAPs, such as therapy, might improve the mental health of
those who are languishing but would not necessarily be of much help to those at or above neutral mental health. These types of employees, for example, might benefit more from positive psychology based coaching to help them achieve greater levels of flourishing. Coaching interventions in organizations have been shown to have positive effects on employee performance/skills, well-being, coping, work attitudes, and goal-directed self-regulation (Theeboom, Beersma, & van Vianen, 2014).

Other factors are worthy of consideration, which can be found in the Positive-Activity Model in Appendix I. Such individual differences can impact the efficacy of certain programs and should be identified as nuances during the needs assessment phase. Employees have different physical and mental health baselines. By providing a broad range of well-being strategies and activities, workplace well-being programs can accommodate for a variety of employee baseline health measures (Ott-Holland et al., 2019). This variety might include a mix of traditional Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) and more positive psychology driven programs (e.g., coaching and resilience training). A model like the Integrated Approach to Employee Mental Health in Figure 1 (LaMontagne et al., 2014) captures the type of integrated approach necessary to account for the individual well-being differences that exist among employees.

III. Organizational Goal-Setting

Through the needs assessment, organizations can better understand the current state and optimal future state of the organization. As organizations look to implement workplace well-being programs to improve employee engagement and well-being, they should leverage the information collected in the needs assessment phase to engage in a formal goal-setting process.
To supplement this information, organizations can also look to the Dream phase of the AI 5-D cycle during the organizational goal-setting process. Organizations can set Everest goals and create a program purpose statement to inform the direction of their workplace well-being programs. This section will review each of these steps so that organizations can work towards well-being objectives.

**AI Phase: Dream**

In the Dream phase of the AI 5-D cycle, organizations leverage the themes from the Discovery phase from the needs assessment to harness creativity, excitement, and motivation for the optimal future state of the organization. In this phase, the key question to ask is “When we achieve our ideal state of success, what will it look like?” (Stavros et al., 2015, p. 220). This conversation is, of course, tailored to the area of inquisition decided upon in the Define phase. In the case of workplace well-being, the ideal state of success might look like an employee population with strong social ties and deep, meaningful connections to the purpose of the organization. The ideal state could also be an organization that has employees with high levels of psychological capital (i.e., hope, optimism, resilience, and efficacy) who are confident in the face of job-related adversity. Although the defined intention of the AI intervention might be well-being, each organization can identify what the ideal state of well-being looks like in its respective context. Constructs like PsyCap and PERMA are helpful, as they delineate building blocks of well-being.

In the Dream phase, the current state of the organization begins to move towards this new collectively imagined future and inspires the types of ideas that are needed in the next phase of the AI 5-D cycle: Design, which will be described during the Developmental Process stage of the
Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model. Organizations can create breakout groups across the organization and gather responses to the key questions in the Dream phase, consolidate the collective shared vision, and communicate it to the broader organization to inspire more energy towards the envisioned future state (Stavros et al., 2015).

**Organizational Everest goal**

Everest goals can then be leveraged to turn these ‘dreams’ into tangible goals that organizations can work towards. In Table 1, I identify how the various elements of Everest goals can be applied in the context of workplace well-being to inform the creation of workplace well-being programs. Much of the information collected in the first three phases of the AI 5-D lifecycle can contribute to the Everest goal characteristics. Just as AI relies on stakeholder involvement, Everest goals should be created with input from stakeholders throughout the organization (Cameron, 2013).
<table>
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<th>Everest Goal Characteristics</th>
<th>Application to Workplace Well-Being Program</th>
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| Positive deviance (i.e., a focus beyond addressing problems and deficits; reaching for extraordinary performance). | • Focus on abundance gaps of the deviance continuum.  
• Focus on creating well-being versus mitigating ill-being.  
• Define phase change focus. |
| Goods of first intent (i.e., an end in and of itself as opposed to a means to an end; intrinsically motivating and valuable). | • Identify organizational and individual virtues that are valued for their own sake by employees (e.g., compassion, honesty, generosity) and highlight these virtues as key objectives of the workplace well-being initiative. |
| Affirmative orientation (i.e., capitalization on strengths and possibilities).                   | • The questions asked in the Discover phase of the AI 5-D cycle attend to a focus on building strengths as opposed to tackling deficits.  
• Develop an opportunistic mindset; when an idea is suggested, approach it with “why not” versus “why” to entertain possibilities and avoid the risk of limiting potential with challenging ideas. |
| Contribution (i.e., benevolence towards others above personal achievements; unique value creation). | • Identify how a focus on workplace well-being benefits the larger community outside of the organization.  
• Connect increased employee well-being with the larger purpose of the organization.  
• Be wary of overly communicating the positive business outcomes (e.g., attrition, performance) to avoid marketing the well-being initiative as intended for company self-interest (sincere perceived organizational support). |
| Sustainable positive energy (i.e., intrinsically motivating; highlighting energy derived from relationships with others). | • Construct the well-being vision around meaning: social support, belonging, and acceptance of others.  
• Establish compassion as one of the core drivers of the workplace well-being efforts.  
• Connect the well-being efforts with what employees identify as meaningful (e.g., time with family, traveling, volunteer work). |

*Note: Characteristics of Everest goals descriptions are paraphrased from Cameron (2013).*
As a reminder, Everest goals include each of the criteria identified in the left column of Table 1 and SMART goal characteristics. Below is an example of an Everest goal. Although it is not an employee well-being specific goal, it is useful for explanatory purposes here. Cameron & Lavine (2006) describe an Everest goal that was set by the company responsible for the cleanup of a facility in Colorado. This company had produced nuclear weapons during the Cold War:

We will clean up and close the facility in twelve years in order to remove as quickly as possible, and forever, the threat of personal harm pollution, and the dangers of the radioactivity for our children and grandchildren. (as cited in Cameron, 2013, p. 111)

Experts had estimated that this job would take between seventy and two hundred years to complete with a cost of $36 billion to $270 billion. After establishing this lofty goal, the company was able to complete the cleanup in ten years for $6 billion and outperformed federally-mandated cleanliness standards (Cameron & Lavine, 2006).

Since organizational Everest goals are so profound and represent concepts that are meaningful for employees, they can inform the creation of program purpose statements. These program purpose statements can, in turn, become sources of significance for stakeholders in the organization and can enable stakeholders to become more connected to the organization’s well-being efforts.

Program Purpose Statement

Upon establishing a clear Everest well-being goal towards which an organization can work, a valuable next step in the workplace well-being program implementation process is to identify a program purpose. Workplace well-being programs should identify a strong purpose statement, a profound reason for their creation and implementation. Purpose suggests a far-
reaching goal towards which one can progress, which motivates behavior towards creating impact or serving something larger than the self (Damon, Menon, & Cotton Bronk, 2003). By establishing such a statement and connecting it with what is meaningful to employees, organizations can energize, inspire, and connect employees.

This purpose statement can derive elements from the Everest goal, or might even be a slightly modified version of the Everest goal itself. The purpose statement can also be less formal, and could be adapted from the Dream phase answers to the question, “When we achieve our ideal state of success, what will it look like?” For example, imagine an organization discovers a reoccurring theme in stakeholder responses that the ideal state of success of a well-being initiative is to have employee well-being be the measure of organizational success as opposed to profitability. This idea is also intertwined in the organization’s Everest goal. A few ideas for well-being program purpose statements could include “to drive excellence through creating a flourishing organization,” “to drive performance and enhance employee experience through developing employee positive psychological resources,” or “well-being as our priority.” This statement should be personalized to and resonate with the organization.

The purpose statement can be disseminated throughout the organization by branding communications about the workplace well-being program and company gear. Research shows that deriving meaning from and having a purpose at work leads to stronger organizational work commitment (e.g., Geldenhuys, Laba, & Venter, 2014), so having a clear workplace well-being program purpose may also produce similar program commitment. By participating in such programs, employees can learn to develop clearer purposes at work thereby enabling them to connect more deeply with their work and the organization.
How much meaning we derive from our work can greatly impact our well-being. The literature shows that each of us likely has a Job orientation, a Career orientation, or a Calling orientation towards our work (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). People with Jobs generally work for material benefit and derive little to no meaning from their work (Bellah et al., 1985). People who have Careers may still care about compensation, but they also care about achievement, success, advancement, and promotion (Bellah et al., 1985). Those with Callings work because it fulfills them and are unconcerned with monetary incentives (Bellah et al., 1985). Those with Calling orientations derive deep purpose and fulfillment from their work (Bellah et al., 1985), have been shown to spend more time at work (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), and have been shown to be more resilient when encountering setbacks (Blatt & Ashford, 2006). A shift in perspective towards better understanding one’s purpose at work is one way for employees to derive more meaning in their work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

In addition or as opposed to defining a clear workplace well-being program purpose statement, organizations might approach leveraging the benefits of clear purpose and meaning at work by integrating an emphasis on well-being into the organization’s overall purpose/mission statement. Organizational identity – who the organization is – is demonstrated through an organization’s collective decisions and behaviors (Schultz, Hatch, & Larsen, 2000). By including employee well-being as part of an organization’s overall purpose, well-being can be infused into the organization’s decisions and behaviors, engraining it into the company culture. Such a commitment to well-being can strengthen the efforts of an organizational well-being program and, if done with sincerity, may increase perceived organizational support for well-being.
IV. Development Process

The transition from establishing well-being goals and purpose to beginning to understand what the workplace well-being program will look like might be one of the more challenging transitions in the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model. During this phase, the grandiose ideas generated by stakeholders in the organization are organized, prioritized, and molded into actionable steps towards program development. This section reviews some procedural considerations as an organization moves into the development phase of a workplace well-being program.

AI Phase: Design

During the Design phase of the AI 5-D cycle, organizations begin to take action towards creating the ideal conditions that were envisioned in the Dream phase (Stavros et al., 2015). This phase generally involves a two-step process – brainstorming and rapid-prototyping – but can become more complex contingent upon the complexity of the initiative (Stavros et al., 2015).

During brainstorming, a key question is, “How might we make our vision a reality?” (Stavros et al., 2015, p. 230). In terms of a workplace well-being program, what types of activities or processes could be modified, enhanced, or added to enhance employee well-being? It would be helpful at this point in the process to include an expert on well-being, employee engagement, or a related discipline to infuse the ideas that are generated with research and experience.

Rapid-prototyping involves answering the question, “What will these ideas look like in action?” (Stavros et al., 2015, p. 230). In this phase, the ideas generated during brainstorming are sketched out into actual program elements. The outputs of this phase outline processes such as
communication plans and program calendars (Stavros et al., 2015). The previous AI phases were expansionary, such that they explored all potential possibilities. This phase is more contractionary, as it takes the ideas generated in previous phases and determines how to mold them into a reality.

An important AI element alluded to in earlier sections of this paper is the importance of including a variety of stakeholders in the program development process. The next section explores this concept as an element of the program development process because involving different stakeholders, particularly employees, arguably has the biggest impact on program success during this phase.

**Stakeholder Involvement**

In the community psychology literature, stakeholder involvement is referred to as ‘shared decision-making’ and has been defined as “collaboration, community involvement or participation, local input, local ownership” (Durlak & DuPre, 2008, p. 338). A typical approach to the creation of new workplace initiatives is to ask participants for feedback after programs have been implemented, but, in doing so, program creators forego a valuable opportunity to increase employee acceptance of and motivation for change (Maslach & Banks, 2017). AI promotes the importance of stakeholder involvement through the use of AI summits. The subsequent sections will review AI summits and then discuss one particularly important type of stakeholder involvement: employee involvement.

**Appreciative inquiry summits.** In the past several decades, researchers and practitioners have developed an Appreciative Inquiry Summit methodology for organizations as an AI intervention. Appreciative Inquiry Summits are events that build on AI by gathering a variety of
internal and external stakeholders and following a refined methodology. Appreciative Inquiry Summits have been used in a variety of fields, including technology companies, medical centers, and universities and have resulted in company revenue increases of over 200% and decreased employee turnover (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005).

A key factor in the success of Appreciative Inquiry Summits is the inclusion of a wide range of stakeholders. So often organizational change is a closed-door practice, during which leaders come together to make decisions for the entire company. Appreciative Inquiry Summits promote the inclusion of others in the decision-making process, including anyone from customers to leaders to employees, to facilities and maintenance staff. These summits design attendance by considering the five I’s – “everyone who is interested, has influence, has information or access to it, may be impacted and has an investment” (emphasis added) (Whitney & Cooperrider, 2000, p. 3). This approach encourages a sense of unity and wholeness, creates relationships of trust among company stakeholders, and inspires a sense of belonging to something larger than the self (Whitney & Cooperrider, 2000).

Even if a large scale Appreciative Inquiry Summit is out of scope, organizations should consider this methodology when creating organizational well-being programs. Instead of relying solely on leadership or one small team, organizations should leverage a variety of stakeholder participation. One important stakeholder, discussed next, is the group of people these well-being programs are essentially for: employees.

Employee involvement. Organizational well-being interventions tend to be most successful when there is employee involvement in development (Nielsen, Randall, Holten, & Golzalez, 2010). By giving employees a say in the development of workplace well-being
programs, organizations empower and give employees a sense of autonomy. Employee involvement has been identified as a healthy workplace practice in the literature and has been connected to positive individual and organizational outcomes, such as organizational commitment, morale, job satisfaction, productivity, lower turnover, and more (Grawitch, Gottschalk, & Munz, 2006). Empirical research offers some support for the assertion that employee involvement influences employee well-being (e.g., Grawitch, Trares, & Kohler, 2007).

In addition to influences on these positive business and employee outcomes, employee involvement in program development and decision-making likely enables organizations to better adapt programs for employee needs (Pfeffer, 1998; Lawler, 1991). For general program development (i.e., not solely concerning workplace well-being programs), “the literature overwhelmingly shows a positive relationship between community participation and sustainability” (Sheliac-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998, p. 103). In other words, employee involvement might also make organizational programs more effectively implemented and longer-lasting, so this technique “cannot be underestimated” (Durlak & DuPre, 2008, p. 338). Employee involvement—including participation at the management level—is of central importance to the success of well-being programs (e.g., Neilsen et al., 2010). With these benefits of employee involvement in mind, organizations should include it as a key driver of workplace well-being program success.

**Points of Entry**

One of the important considerations for an organization to make during the workplace well-being program development process is which points of entry the program should target. Day and Penney (2017) argue that workplace well-being programs can focus on the following points
of entry: 1) individuals (i.e., interventions aimed at building psychological resources, coping skills, resilience, new habits, and new behaviors); 2) group (i.e., interventions aimed at improving the social context of work); 3) leaders (i.e., interventions aimed at enhancing leadership ability to role model healthy behavior, support and provide resources for employees, and educate on well-being initiatives; includes managers as well as senior leaders); and, 4) organization (i.e., interventions aimed at the work environment). Workplace well-being programs typically intervene at the individual level by offering education, prevention counseling, and other training offerings to improve employee physical and psychological health (Day & Helson, 2016; Parks & Steelman, 2008). These types of programs tend to be straightforward and cost-effective (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). In the creation of a workplace well-being program, all four avenues for enhancement should be considered, and a holistic, dynamic inclusion of these four approaches may produce the strongest results (Day & Penney, 2017).

**Determine Program Interventions**

Various interventions could be leveraged at each of the identified points of entry. Organizations have a few options when designing the components of a workplace well-being programs: 1) look to the literature and the industry for published examples of workplace well-being programs and adapt to fit context, or 2) create a new program based solely on organizational needs and employee preferences (Ludwigs, Haese, Sivy, Weber, & Schromgens, 2019). The decision is ultimately based on preference, need, and resources; organizations can determine which option better suits them by weighting the costs and benefits of each option. The information gathered in the needs assessment phase can help mold the scope of the program so that the program is in-line with organizational needs. There is evidence in the literature that
tailoring existing programs to fit organizational needs may be more effective and better received by participants (e.g., Skinner, Campbell, Rimer, Curry, & Prochaska, 1999). A brief discussion of the pros and cons of each approach is below, though I argue that a blend of the two options is likely the most effective.

**Option 1: leverage existing programs.** With the first option – to leverage published well-being programs – an organization has to ensure that these programs are adapted for organizational context. A useful example of this approach is PsyCap training. As mentioned in a previous section, PsyCap development has been estimated to have an ROI of over 200% (Luthans et al., 2006). Typically, PsyCap is developed in employees through training (Youssef & Luthans, 2012) and has shown effectiveness with both in-person training and web-based training (Luthans et al., 2008). PsyCap training is effective, has a strong literature foundation, and can be leveraged in a variety of ways, so it proves to be an effective starting point for organizations. The benefit of this type of approach to program development is that if a program has been studied using strong empirical methods, then organizations may be more confident in their investments.

**Option #2: start from scratch.** Recent literature on the implementation of workplace well-being programs also provides some support for the second option. This option, to build a workplace well-being program from the ground up, is rooted in asking employees what they think will improve their well-being (Ludwigs et al., 2019). Employees can offer suggestions that are interpreted by the program development team and/or external specialists to synthesize a new well-being program. For example, Ludwigs and colleagues (2019) implemented a six-week well-being program in a young, mid-sized company. They created what they called a “flowlab,” which was intended to improve employee sleep quality, mindfulness, and focus, thus increasing
the likelihood of employees to enter flow states and ultimately improve well-being. The program was successful, as evaluations demonstrated – as compared to the control group (i.e., a group with similar demographics who did not receive the intervention) – significant positive effects on employee sleep quality, mindfulness, flow, happiness, life satisfaction, work commitment, corporate appreciation, and inter-department cooperation (Ludwigs et al., 2019). This type of program may be a riskier investment but allows for a more targeted approach to enhancing employee well-being.

Those organizing the program should still target elements of well-being (e.g., PERMA). To do so, organizations can look to empirically tested positive interventions, like gratitude exercises or meditation, and adapt them for organizational contexts to include in workplace well-being programs (Youssef & Luthans, 2012). Since the efficacy of many positive psychology interventions is supported by empirical evidence (see, for example, Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005) and a rigorous peer-review process, they provide a strong foundation for workplace well-being program interventions, particularly for those that are synthesized from the ground up. The use of the scientific method ensures that positive psychology interventions can legitimately improve well-being (Vella-Brodrick, 2014) in individual and organizational contexts. As such, positive psychology interventions are credible tools to leverage for the enhancement of workplace well-being and offer some investment reassurance. Positive psychology interventions can be refined into smaller elements that can be adapted for different contexts and needs (Pawelski, 2009). Appendix J provides a review of the elements of positive psychology interventions and illustrates how existing interventions can be synthesized and new
interventions created. Appendix J also offers one sample demonstration of how existing positive interventions could be adapted for workplace contexts.

**Integrating approaches.** Another option is to consider these two approaches less as dichotomist perspectives and more as simultaneous starting points. Organizations can look to the literature and the market for existing well-being programs and hand-select facets of other programs, based on employee evaluations. Organizations can also look to positive interventions and create some program elements themselves, based on employee preferences. In doing so, organizations can tailor acquired program elements and supplement them with some homegrown ideas. Research shows that piecing together positive interventions into packages and identifying complementary interventions is an effective approach (Schueller, 2010; Schueller & Parks, 2012).

When determining how to piece together the elements of a workplace well-being program either from new ideas, gold-standard programs, or positive interventions, organizations should consider points of entry to ensure the well-being intervention approach enters the organization from multiple angles. Two case studies have been presented below to demonstrate how different organizational needs can inform the development of different intervention program packages. The intervention packages are simplified for the sake of this paper but are useful to envision how these recommendations come to life for development.

**Case study #1.** Consider the case study below to clarify the points made in this section. After conducting the needs assessment phase of the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model, an organization found the following themes in their results:
• Employees reported feeling overwhelmed and unable to handle the pressure of their workdays. The work culture is demanding, and employees do not feel like they can communicate overwhelm to their management for fear of adverse consequences for their careers.

• Employees reported feeling disconnected with leadership in the organization.

• Leaders reported feeling unsure of how to create a more positive culture in the organization.

• Clients reported a lack of satisfaction with junior staff level performance.

See Figure 6 for an example of an integrative approach that considers all four points of entry, the results of the needs assessment and a mixture of positive interventions, previously established well-being programs, and new program elements.
At the employee level, an organization can introduce well-being training. The training examples included here are: 1) PsyCap training to improve employee hope, optimism, resilience, and efficacy because of the strong empirical support for such training and 2) mindfulness training because the literature shows that mindfulness interventions at work have a variety of benefits, including improved emotion regulation, decreased employee emotional exhaustion and increased employee job satisfaction (Hülsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013). To supplement the mindfulness training, an organizational policy is established that mandates two minutes of mindful breathing at the beginning of in-person meetings that are scheduled for an
hour or longer. This type of policy reinforces the organization’s commitment to creating an environment that is conducive to caring for well-being, particularly in high-paced and high-pressure organizations, and builds off of the skills learned in the mindfulness training. At the group level, mentoring has been identified as a form of task-enabling through coaching and teaching. Since task-enabling is a pathway to HQCs, a mentoring program for junior employees might create ripple effects for both the mentor and the mentee, strengthening social connection (Dutton, 2003; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). From a leader perspective, introducing a training curriculum that teaches leaders about the positive practices that constitute positive leadership can benefit both the leaders in their careers and the broader organization. Several resources exist that delineate positive leadership practices and their benefits (e.g., Cameron, 2013). These elements, when combined, would constitute an organization’s employee well-being program.

Case study #2. Let’s explore another example to demonstrate how different organizational needs inform the creation of different types of well-being programs. After conducting the needs assessment phase of the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model, an organization found the following themes in their results:

- Competition among employees leads to very self-focused success.
- Employees feel the promotion process is unfair and based on favoritism, which leads to undercutting other employees and hiding mistakes or problems from supervisors.
- Employees are overworked to meet the demands of competition among employees.
The example in Figure 7 is adapted for a completely different set of organizational needs than Figure 6. Since the majority of the feedback in the Needs Assessment demonstrated high competition among employees and a fear of speaking up about mistakes, the interventions here focus on HQCs, generosity, and psychological safety. Individual employees would receive training on the four pathways to HQCs: task enablement, trust, respectful engagement, and play. HQCs are aligned with cultures of compassion, and a higher frequency of HQCs should have positive effects on workplace relationships. See Appendix C for the benefits of HQCs. This strategy would be accompanied by an organizational level policy that includes task-enablement.
as an assessment criteria for promotions. Since task-enablement involves the sacrifice of one’s time to help another, it is helpful to offer an incentive for employees to engage in this behavior.

Leaders would receive training on how to create a psychologically safe work environment so that employees feel more comfortable sharing ideas and speaking up about concerns. Psychological safety is a shared belief by members of an organization or a team that interpersonal risk-taking is safe (Edmondson, 1999). As an extension of this definition, a climate of psychological safety has been defined as “a work environment where employees are safe to speak up without being rejected or punished” (Baer & Frese, 2003, p. 50). By providing leaders and managers with training around strategies to create a climate of psychological safety for employees, leaders can create more of an open environment for employees to raise concerns or share ideas.

At a group level, reciprocity rings could be an annual or semiannual occurrence at a group, department, or organizational level. Reciprocity rings have been leveraged by companies such as Deloitte, Google, and Goldman Sachs to create cultures of generosity in their organizations and are used in a majority of the top business schools around the world (“Reciprocity Ring,” 2018). It is essentially an event during which members of an organization (or team, department) identify something that they need or want publicly for their colleagues to witness. Colleagues then identify which of the ‘asks’ they can help with and offer their connections or knowledge wherever helpful. Results show a monetary benefit of roughly $150,000 and an estimated 1,600 hours saved for participants due to the generosity of coworkers.
These elements, when combined, would constitute an organization’s employee well-being program.

**Review of case studies.** These two case studies allude to the variety of intervention packages that an organization can look towards to create a well-being experience for employees. And each of the ‘solutions’ presented was different contingent upon the outcome of the Needs Assessments. The most effective approach is likely one that leverages this variety of sources, rooted in employee needs, to synthesize the more effective workplace well-being program. In doing so, organizations create programs based on their needs and a robust research foundation. The areas of opportunity presented in the needs assessment will guide organizations in personalizing their well-being program to match the unique needs of their population and will inform more effective implementation.

**Strengths-Based Interventions**

While a plethora of intervention options exist, one type of intervention that should be integrated into a workplace well-being program is strengths-based interventions. As mentioned in the introduction to PERMA, strengths are the soil from which PERMA (i.e., well-being) blossoms. Interventions such as learning about one’s strengths and spotting strengths in others can shift the conversation in an organization towards a more appreciative one and allow the other elements of a workplace well-being program to be more effective.

An organizational awareness of character strengths offers people a common language to discuss the best that exists within others. As members of the organizations learn about strengths,

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1 For more information about reciprocity rings, visit [https://giveandtakeinc.com/reciprocity-ring/](https://giveandtakeinc.com/reciprocity-ring/).
they can disseminate this way of being and communicating positively across the organization. Just as the VIA classification of character strengths (see Appendix A for more information) provided a positive complement to the DSM – the psychological classification of mental illness (Seligman et al., 2005) – knowledge of character strengths can shift the focus from individual and organizational deficits to assets. The lessons learned from positive psychology can help create collaborative, virtuous, and engaged organizations; the science of well-being drives the creation of the world many of us would like to live in. An integration of strengths into well-being programs can modify the type of language employees use to describe and communicate with one another. Such education and messaging can catalyze the positive change among employees and throughout organizations that so many desire.

A robust selection of strengths-based intervention packages can be found in Character Strengths Interventions: A Field Guide for Practitioners by Ryan Niemiec. This field guide offers intervention packages targeted at improving work engagement, relationships, health, stress, and more.

V. Sustainability Plan Development

The previous section identified some procedural considerations when creating a workplace well-being program. This section will highlight some program design elements that help sustain the positive effects of workplace well-being programs. While the aforementioned sections indicate important procedural steps towards creating a workplace well-being program, they may not be enough to engrain the program’s purpose into the company culture. Work demands and stress are challenges in our workforce, as discussed in detail in the introduction of this paper. Even with the known benefits of well-being at work, a stronger culture shift is needed
towards well-being as a *priority* at work. Culture is an important consideration when determining how to achieve high levels of performance (e.g., Cameron & Quinn, 2011). To truly create a program that is sustainable and has its principles embedded into company culture requires a focus on developing a sustainability plan before program execution. Ultimately, the more thoughtfully executed this phase of the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model, the more likely that the intended benefits of the program will become salient. Each of the recommendations here is described in the context of program utilization and sustainability to enhance program success.

**Leverage Workplace Relationships: Well-Being Advocates**

Consider nominating several employees to act as well-being advocates, program champions, well-being champions, or any other naming convention that suits the organization. Durlak and DuPre (2008) defined this type of program champion as “an individual who is trusted and respected by staff and administrators, and who can rally and maintain support for the [program], and negotiate solutions to problems that develop” (p. 337). These champions can also gather feedback and input from employees who feel more comfortable sharing information with their peers than via electronic data collection. Internal advocates have been identified in a thorough meta-analysis as a factor that impacts program success (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). While management-level program champions are preferred, having at least one program champion towards whom the other employees show great respect can improve program success.

Although this information is not well-being program-specific, there is evidence that this approach is beneficial in the context of workplace well-being programs. In a longitudinal study that examined participant and workplace outcomes concerning the success of workplace physical
wellness programs, Ott-Holland and colleagues (2019) suggested that program awareness and education initiatives could strengthen the long-term prospects of wellness programs. By establishing these program champions at the inception of program development, organizations can ensure they have the necessary resources to communicate and educate about the program past its inception.

Another study created a workplace wellness champions program, arguing that this approach to employee well-being is relatively low-cost, yet high-reaching (Wieneke et al., 2016). In their study of 2,315 employees at a large healthcare organization, Wieneke et al. (2016) found that, compared to those not familiar with the program, program participants were more likely to:

- Agree that their organization provides an environment that is supportive of living a healthy lifestyle,
- Agree that co-workers support one another in healthy lifestyle practice, and
- Give higher ratings for their overall health and wellness.

These results demonstrate the effectiveness of program and well-being advocates not only for organizational programs in general but for well-being programs more specifically. There is a certain magic that comes from teaching others about well-being, as identified by Seligman (2011). Seligman (2011) explains that throughout his career, teaching a variety of grades and content, he had the most extraordinary experience teaching positive psychology. He explains that the content itself is fun, personal, and engaging. By teaching and applying positive psychological concepts, the behavior becomes self-reinforcing, improving the well-being of the educator. As these program advocates educate others and disseminate the messaging of well-being initiatives taking place in organizations, they have the potential to spread their excitement and energy to
others in the organization. Emotional contagion – “a process in which a person or group influences the emotions or behavior of another person or group through the conscious or unconscious induction of emotion states and behavioral attitudes” (Schoenewolf, 1990, p. 50) – can carry this energy and positive emotion to others in the organization.

Consider identifying positive energizers in the workplace and including them as program champions. See Appendices E and F for characteristics of positive energizers and one strategy for identifying positive energizers in an organization. As program champions, these positive energizers can cultivate relational energy with other employees and encourage participation in the workplace well-being program. Accessing positive energizers can help make group energy among program participants more sustainable, encouraging greater commitment to well-being and continued participation over time, which improves program sustainability.

Moreover, well-being is not department, gender, or any other demographic-specific. In other words, people generally care about being well, feeling happy, and living meaningful lives (Seligman, 2011). As such, program advocates can reach something personal in everyone by discussing the importance of taking time for well-being. While other programs, like technical training, might only apply to subsets of the organization, well-being does not exist in siloes. If program advocates can demonstrate to others how the workplace well-being program has directly improved their well-being, they can reach across departments to spread motivation and inspiration for program participation.

As described when the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model was introduced, this model is an iterative process of the indicated phases. In other words, the introduction of a new phase is not the culmination of the previous phase. Instead, the phases of
the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model are interconnected. Since program advocates act as ‘eyes and ears’ into the organization, the feedback they collect from employees could contribute to a reoccurring Needs Assessment throughout the creation and development of a workplace well-being program. In collecting this feedback, organizations can continue to modify workplace well-being programs for evolving employee and organizational needs.

The inclusion of program advocates can act as a powerful driver of program sustainability, but the responsibility does not fall solely on them. Supervisors should act as advocates for the workplace well-being program but need to be equipped with the necessary information and materials to perform this responsibility knowledgeably.

**Leverage Workplace Relationships: Supervisor Support**

Relationships between managers and counselees can dictate the results of workplace well-being programs. Managers can act as well-being advocates, and organizations can support this function by providing managers with tool-kits, conversations starters, and training (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). One such way managers play a key role in supporting employee well-being is by ensuring that employees take time for their well-being. By providing managers with education, toolkits, or other training mechanisms, they can be more informed about the benefits of employee participation in well-being programs and may be more likely to support employee time away from work for well-being participation (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2013).

**Mandatory well-being time.** Managers can do more than offer encouragement for employees to take part in well-being programs. Managers can assist employees in determining how to manage their workloads to take time to participate in well-being programs.
One strong example of this point is the creation of mandatory well-being time. In a study promoting physical activity programs within a corporate setting, researchers argued:

Although participants in all studies were encouraged by their organizations to commit to the program, they did not perceive support from the organization to take time out from work for exercise; instead *it was considered an additional activity leading to stresses associated with time pressures* [emphasis added]. (Scherrer, Sheridan, Sibson, Ryan, & Henley, 2010, p. 11)

The program alluded to involved exercise, but consider how this framework can be more broadly applied to encompass any well-being behavior. Training, as an example, requires that employees take time from their days to attend sessions of various lengths, but by mandating training, organizations make it clear to employees that they value training and that training is important (Tsai & Tai, 2003). As a result of the perceived organizational importance, employee motivation for training increases (Tsai & Tai, 2003). Since many workplace well-being programs are rooted in training and education, (Day & Helson, 2016; Parks & Steelman, 2008), this particular recommendation is salient. There should be a consistent pulse across the organization to gauge whether or not employees feel they have permission to take time away from their work for their well-being.

To compliment mandatory well-being time, managers can support employees in leaving work responsibilities at their desks so that employees can fully immerse themselves in well-being training. Managers should be vocal in recommending that employees refrain from checking or answering emails during the designated well-being time. Managers can also help employees delegate or disperse their workloads and meeting schedules for the duration of their
time spent with the program. By releasing employees of their work demands during the
designated training time, managers demonstrate active support for the importance of well-being
at work with action rather than purely verbal support.

**Align workplace well-being programs with employee strengths.** Supervisors can also
support the sustainability of workplace well-being programs by highlighting employee strengths.
By providing managers with training about strengths use at work, managers can guide employees
to determine how different elements of well-being programs are in-line with their strengths. For
example, if an employee has two top strengths of love of learning and curiosity, managers can
guide the employee to seek out new well-being training opportunities as provided in a workplace
well-being program. See Appendix A for more details on how to discover employee strengths.

Research demonstrates how pursuing activities or interventions that are in-line with one’s
strengths is more intrinsically motivating and therefore more self-sustaining (Schueller, 2014).
Conventional wellness programs tend to focus on fixing employee problems, like mental and
physical health issues. Deficit-based interventions – known as compensation approaches –
involve engaging in activities that one does not typically do or that one lacks skill in. Those in
support of compensation approaches argue that improving upon weaknesses is likely to create a
well-rounded person. Deficit-based interventions are less self-sustaining and demonstrate less
long-term commitment because the interventions become boring and are demotivating (Cronbach
& Snow, 1977).

Positive psychology based workplace well-being programs focus on cultivating human
strengths and capitalizing on employee potential. This type of strengths-based approach – known
as capitalization – highlights assets. The capitalization perspective contends that strengths-
aligned interventions will be more successful because the activity will be more intrinsically rewarding, is likely to produce flow experiences (Seligman, 2002), and is likely to be self-sustaining (Schueller, 2014). A strengths-based intervention approach is more enjoyable and has longer-lasting benefits than deficit-based intervention approaches (Schueller, 2014). With this in mind, workplace well-being programs can choose to highlight and capitalize on employee strengths to prolong program benefits.

Such conversations between employees and managers can have ripple effects on employee well-being. Positive energy is created when organizations recognize and highlight employee strengths (Cameron, 2013). The Gallup Organization found that the chances of an employee being engaged at work increase from 9% to 73% when leadership focuses on employee strengths (as cited in Niemiec, 2017). Gallup also found that the two most important predictors of employee retention and job satisfaction were: 1) reporting the use of top strengths at work and 2) reporting that an immediate supervisor recognizes one’s top strengths (as cited in Niemiec, 2017). The use of strengths can also lead to more flow experiences (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). See Appendix A for some information about the benefits of using strengths and experiencing flow at work.

**Integrate Play**

Another element of the sustainability plan, play, involves the inclusion of some fun-inspiring elements into program design. Play, one pathway to HQCs, is often thought of as non-work activities, as some may consider play to be a distraction from work. Those with this belief risk foregoing the benefits of play in the workplace. Organizational play is an energizer for employees and a catalyst for engagement (Mainemelis & Ronson, 2006; West et al., 2013), is
correlated with improved creative culture (Bateson, & Martin, 2013; West, 2014), and fosters creativity by increasing intrinsic motivation, openness and collaboration (West, Hoff, & Carlsson, 2013). Play is also one strategy to cultivate positive energy in organizations (Cameron, 2013). High-stress environments decrease creativity (Amabile et al., 2002), so play might be an effective tool for counteracting the damaging effects of stress on creativity. Play often elicits positive emotions (Dutton, 2014), which catalyzes the beneficial ripple effects of positivity (Fredrickson, 2009).

Workplace well-being programs can incorporate play in a variety of different ways. For example, humor can be incorporated in the communication strategy of the program; emails, videos of leaders, and other vehicles of communication can take a more lighthearted approach to messaging – a contrast from typical program communication. For well-being training sessions, instructors can integrate games and team building activities. Workplace well-being programs can also encourage “playtime” and relationship building among employees by dispersing “play supplies” like games around office buildings. Celebrations can also be used as opportunities to foster play and relationships by bringing employees together in a non-work, low-pressure environment (Dutton, 2014). An important point to consider, however, is that forced play (i.e., play that is not intrinsically motivated) will likely not produce the same benefits as voluntary play (i.e. play that is intrinsically motivated). Forcing employees to participate in activities an organization deems as “fun” will not be as successful as voluntary play in inspiring employee creativity (Huizinga, 1949; Owler et al., 2010).

Workplace well-being should be enjoyable as opposed to another source of job requirements and work-related stress. Incorporating play into these programs can help them
become sources of positive emotions. Play is often associated with the positive emotion joy, and when done socially can build social bonds (Aron, Norman, Aron, McKenna, & Heyman, 2000; Lee, 1983; Simons, McCluskey-Fawcett, & Papini, 1986; as cited in Fredrickson, 2001). If employees derive pleasure from these programs, they may be more likely to participate, to share information about the program with other employees, and to continue to participate in the program over time.

**Experience Positive Emotions**

Positive emotions, such as joy, gratitude, and serenity are powerful mechanisms in the pursuit of a flourishing life. Positive emotions can be the first step in a chain of positive events, as explained by the broaden and build theory of positive emotions. The broaden and build theory indicates that positive emotions momentarily broaden our cognitive scope, which leads to the long-term development of new resources (i.e., alliances, knowledge, skills) for survival and can potentially lead to an upward spiral that enables people to flourish (Fredrickson, 2009). This upward spiral is self-reinforcing and functions to improve odds for survival, health, and fulfillment (Fredrickson, 2013). The broadened awareness associated with positive emotions enables us to entertain new ideas, which encourages us to become more creative, innovative, and social (Fredrickson, 2013), all of which are ideal for the workplace. Workplace well-being programs should focus on eliciting positive emotions throughout the program to realize the benefits of experiencing such emotions.

Importantly, this experience does not solely occur at an individual level; there are group and dyadic benefits of the experience of positive emotions that build resources like relationships and knowledge. For example, Losada and Heaphy (2004) coded team member interactions
during corporate meetings and found that high performing teams had a significantly higher ratio of positive (e.g., showing support or appreciation) to negative (e.g., showing disapproval or cynicism) communication. With greater experiences of positive emotions, team members become more open to new ideas, broaden their perspectives, and build resources like new knowledge and relationships that enable them and their teams to perform at higher levels than their less positive peers (Fredrickson, 2009).

**Examples for workplace well-being programs.** For workplace well-being programs, social play, as previously mentioned, is a useful way to jumpstart the broaden and build effects of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2001). Positive emotions can also be targeted more intentionally in workplace well-being programs. Once there is an understanding of the build effects of various positive emotions, it becomes clearer as to how each of them might benefit the employee population of an organization. While a list of positive emotions can be found in Appendix K, I have provided two examples of how positive emotions could be targeted directly in the development of a workplace well-being program.

One example of a way to leverage positive emotions to enable better workplace well-being program outcomes is to inspire the positive emotion of *pride* during the program. Contingent upon how an organization approaches workplace well-being, consider ways to highlight the pride people feel to work for a company that is committed to employee success and flourishing. As a positive emotion, pride works to broaden our cognitive scopes and leaves us more open to the acquisition of new experiences and resources. Pride, in particular, motivates people to connect with others, to share achievements, and to strive for prospective accomplishments (Lewis, 1993). Pride leads to more motivation for future achievement and
feelings of confidence and self-assuredness (Fredrickson, 2013) and may enable employees to feel as if they are part of something larger than themselves.

Another positive emotion, inspiration, can be activated in the experience of workplace well-being programs through a communication plan, for example. Inspiration occurs upon observing human excellence. By communicating a shared vision of a future for the organization focused on flourishing employees and an inclusive culture, workplace well-being programs can inspire employees. Utilizing leaders to share a vision of excellence for the organization through storytelling can be an exciting way to elicit inspiration in employees. Research shows that leader charisma is significantly related to employee inspiration and motivation to achieve organizational visions and that this relationship becomes more profound with higher-level leaders (James & Lahti, 2011). The resources accrued from inspiration during the broaden and build process include motivation for personal growth (Algoe & Haidt, 2009; Thrash & Elliot, 2004), as it encourages people to become better versions of themselves (Fredrickson, 2013). By eliciting inspiration in employees, workplace well-being programs motivate employees to desire greater levels of excellence for themselves and the organization.

These acquired resources and the continued experience of positive emotions work in tandem to lead to an upward spiral of flourishing (Frederickson, 2013), so positive emotions can be powerful self-reinforcing mechanisms to promote workplace well-being program participation, sustainability and success. Appendix K includes a list of ten positive emotions that indicates how each initiates the broaden and build response and indicates the resources that are acquired as a result of the positive emotions.
Using positive emotions to prolong positive program effects. Positive emotions can also help buffer against hedonic adaptation, a phenomenon that prevents the permanence of something’s positive effects (Bao & Lyubomirsky, 2014). For example, think of the last car you purchased. You likely felt excitement upon purchasing the car, but over time the joy you derived from the purchase subsided. Hedonic adaptation is at work in experiences such as these; upon repeated exposure, we grow accustomed to the positive effects of things that once generated positive emotion.

The hedonic adaptation prevention model (Lyubomirsky, 2011; Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2012) demonstrates that hedonic adaptation occurs when positive activities generate fewer positive events and positive emotions over time, both of which are associated with worsened well-being. There are several ways to sustain happiness despite this type of adaptation, through choosing the right types of activities and modifying activities. Certain activities, like performing acts of kindness, nurturing relationships and pursuing intrinsically motivated goals, produce more positive emotions than other activities do. The positive emotion gratitude can also intervene and buffer against hedonic adaptation because being aware and appreciating the positive changes in one’s life maintains the positive effects of the positive changes for longer (Bao & Lyubomirsky, 2014). By focusing on cultivating positive emotions, the effects of and commitment to workplace well-being programs will likely extend as the benefits of such programs are prolonged.

Appreciation is one way to use positive emotions to prevent hedonic adaptation. Appreciating a positive change – in this case, an organization’s commitment to employee well-being – can prolong the effects of the positive change (Bao & Lyubomirsky, 2014).
Organizations can encourage their employees to appreciate those in the organization that have enabled them to make time for their well-being and, in doing so, elicit gratitude in employees. For example, writing letters of gratitude to others has shown to improve one’s well-being (Boehm, Lyubomirsky, & Sheldon, 2011; Lyubomirsky, Dickerhoof, Boehm, & Sheldon, 2011). Employees could, for example, write a gratitude letter to a colleague who helped him through a difficult time at work.

This intervention could be done less formally by creating a place, either electronically or physically in office spaces, for employees to post conditions, people, or events they are grateful for, based on the organization’s newfound investment in employee well-being. Some examples of posts might include, “I am grateful that I can adjust my hours in such a way that allows me to pick my kids up from school twice a week,” or “I am thankful for my company’s interest in my development and the creation of the mentorship program.” By encouraging employees to reflect on the positive changes of the workplace well-being program, organizations can elicit gratitude in their employees and help their employees sustain the positive effects of the program.

Intrinsically Motivated Employee Goal-Setting

To shift the culture towards one that is embedded with well-being requires a deeper diffusion than simple participation in well-being sessions. To create lasting organizational level changes, there needs to be behavioral changes among employees in the organization. Goal-setting is a powerful motivation and accountability tool in the pursuit of behavioral change, and an important element of goal-setting is that the goals are intrinsically motivating (Rawsthorne & Elliot, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Establishing goals is an integral element of achieving high performance (Locke & Latham, 2006). This section will discuss individual goal-setting as a way
to motivate behavioral change towards well-being behavior, while the subsequent section Well-Being Habit Formation, will review how to create new well-being habits.

**Goal setting.** In the context of driving participation and increasing sustainability for workplace well-being programs, one needs to consider how goal-setting can drive individual employee performance towards well-being behavior. Importantly, goals that are intrinsically motivated results in increased self-determination (i.e., autonomy) and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsically motivated behavior is done for its own sake out of interest, enjoyment, and potential mastery and is, therefore, more self-sustaining (Brown & Ryan, 2015). While a dichotomy exists between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, there are varying levels of extrinsic motivation, such that some are more autonomous than others (Ryan & Deci, 2000). See Figure 8 for a continuum of motivation.

Well-being programs should include intrinsically motivating goal-setting tactics so that the lessons learned in well-being programs make sustainable differences in employee lives. By including well-being goals for employees to work towards and implementing accountability structures, employees can build new well-being habits to help them achieve their well-being goals. Depending on the elements of a workplace well-being program, these goals could include meditating for fifteen minutes a day, exercising for thirty minutes four days a week, or to carve out at least thirty minutes a day for a hobby (to invigorate flow, play, and/or social relationships). To build on the lessons learned from motivation research, these activities should be self-selected and autonomous.
**Multifaceted intervention approach.** Well-being is highly individualized, so a workplace well-being program should capture the individuality of its employees by providing a variety of well-being options. By providing a variety of well-being offerings (e.g., different types of training), employees can make more autonomous decisions about which opportunities are better fits for them. Research shows that self-selected well-being activities are most successful because individuals are more motivated to participate in the well-being behavior (Sin & Lyubomirsky, 2009). Incentives like money or training requirement satisfaction might be leveraged to drive participation for well-being programs, but I caution against relying on solely driving behavior with incentives. With incentives, the decision to participate and the subsequent behavior becomes less autonomous and more externally driven. Instead, encourage employees more broadly to participate in well-being behavior by, as discussed earlier, creating broad well-being requirements. Intrinsic motivation has been shown to create sustainable behavioral changes, greater well-being, and improved relationships (Ryan, Huta, & Deci, 2008). Offering employees the choice about how to fulfill these well-being requirements will offer the opportunity for more intrinsically motivated behavior, but will also ensure employees can make well-being a priority in the workplace.

This multifaceted intervention approach is similar to the one used by Page and Vella-Brodrick (2013) in their “Working for Wellness Program”, a positive psychology-based workplace well-being program. This program included a series of six interactive sessions with small groups of employees to cover topics such as the use of strengths, goal striving, flow, and relationships. Training sessions were paired with homework for employees to complete outside of the sessions. Overall, employees in the intervention condition reported significant
improvement in subjective well-being, psychological well-being, and work-specific affective well-being compared to the control group. Page and Vella-Brodrick (2013) contributed some of the success of this program to the fact that it was multifaceted in providing several different activities that employees could engage in. These opportunities allowed employees to have autonomy and choice in their decision to participate in certain well-being activities and led to increased intrinsic motivation for the activity at hand (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Offering variety and choice (e.g., physical activity programs, resilience training, mindfulness, social gatherings, play interventions, and purpose campaigns) can address individual differences among employees and can help employees feel empowered in their well-being behaviors.

Qualitative evidence suggests that offering the flexibility to adapt and tailor programs at an individual level can increase program success and participant satisfaction (Day & Penney, 2017). This adaptation could be in terms of program content and/or timing so employees can accommodate their schedules, thereby increasing autonomy over one’s behavior and schedules.

An employee’s commitment and engagement in a workplace well-being program depends partially on the degree to which elements of the program resonate with the employee. By providing adaptable and person-activity fit opportunities, organizations can increase the likelihood that employees will connect authentically with their workplace well-being programs.

Well-Being Habit Formation

In the context of achieving one’s goals, creating habits that redirect behavior in the pursuit of well-being can make a difference in the sustainability of a workplace well-being program’s effects. The creation of habits requires intense discipline (James, 1892/1984). When determined to create a new habit, one must be as relentless as possible from the start, continue to
repeat the process without interruption until it has become habitual, and choose to act whenever an opportunity arises for him to apply the habit (James, 1892/1984). It is difficult to create a new habit, but with the proper discipline, one can reap the benefits.

In her book *The How of Happiness*, Sonja Lyubomirsky (2007) – a leading researcher on the science of well-being – delineates four steps to commit to a goal of becoming happier:

1. Resolve to undertake a program to become happier,
2. Learn what you need to do,
3. Put weekly or daily effort into it, and
4. Commit to the goal for a long period of time, possibly for the rest of your life

(Lyubomirsky, 2007, p. 274).

Research shows that when a certain behavior is repeated, associations are generated in the brain that connect that specific behavior to the context in which the behavior occurs (e.g., Wood, Tam, & Witt, 2005). The more the behavior is repeated in a certain context, the more the behavior becomes automatic (Shiffrin & Schneider, 1977). In terms of creating habits directed towards well-being:

- the more often you initiate a positive activity – for example, savoring meals with family or appreciating your life during bad moments – the stronger the connection becomes between that activity (savoring or appreciating) and the cues around you (family dinner or daily hassles). So the next time… you might be prompted… by the surrounding cues.

Of course, such connections take time and a great deal of practice to build.

(Lyubomirsky, 2007, pp. 278-279)
By integrating goal-setting, intrinsic motivation, and habit formation into a workplace well-being program, organizations can empower their employees to transfer the lessons learned in the well-being program and establish them into their lives. The use of intrinsically motivated goals and habit formation creates a more appealing workplace well-being program and enables the program’s effects to become more sustainable.

Peer support can also be leveraged as a strategy to support employees as they develop new well-being habits. The inclusion of social elements into workplace well-being programs has shown to be a useful accountability strategy and has been indicated by program participants to be one of the most effective well-being program components (e.g., Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). The use of ‘buddy’ systems can ensure that colleagues keep each other accountable for adopting well-being behavior and could foster discussions about ways to navigate any adversity that arises during the pursuit of workplace well-being (e.g., time management or stress).

In the Working for Wellness program previously discussed in this paper (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2013), several of the success factors identified in the study are in-line with the claims made in this section. Page and Vella-Brodrick (2013) argue that the program’s focus on intentional, self-concordant, and repeated well-being activities (e.g., applying one’s strengths) and a variety of offerings enabled the pursuit of more intrinsically motivated (autonomous) behavior. As a result, employees in the intervention condition reported significant gains in subjective well-being, psychological well-being, and work-specific affective well-being (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2013).

Another workplace well-being program described previously in this paper, the Trivago FlowLab (Ludwigs et al, 2019) identified habit formation as a central intent of the program. By
building well-being habits (e.g., meditation) that targeted mindfulness, sleep quality, and focus. Ludwigs and colleagues (2019) were able to significantly improve sleep quality, mindfulness, frequency of flow experiences, work-related well-being, happiness, life satisfaction work commitment, corporate appreciation, and inter-department cooperation. By identifying habit formation as a main goal of workplace well-being programs, organizations can do more than introduce well-being content; they can ensure that the lessons learned during workplace well-being programs are adopted and engrained in employee lives and company culture.

A nudge in the right direction. While the pursuit of well-being should be intrinsically motivated, organizations can use a few tactics to increase commitment to workplace well-being programs. A few have already been discussed, including manager support, mandatory well-being time, and peer support. One final strategy, nudges, can influence goal attainment and habit formation and may be particularly useful in the context of workplace well-being programs.

Nudges are discrete environmental features that attract attention and are meant to influence human behavior in a particular direction (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008). Decision architects, those trying to influence others’ decisions, manipulate the environment in such a way that recipients may not even be aware the environment has been manipulated. As such, the manipulated behavior may feel intrinsically motivated, even if it were influenced mildly by an external party. Nudges are useful in the development of new habits, as they can work to reinforce desired behaviors (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008). Nudges have been useful in promoting health behaviors such as smoking cessation and weight loss (e.g., Volpp et al., 2008; Volpp et al., 2009), vegetable intake (e.g., Reicks et al., 2012), vaccinations (e.g., Chapman et al., 2010), and others (as cited in Li & Chapman, 2013; for a review, see Li & Chapman, 2013). Research shows
that nudges are helpful for creating exercise habits, staying committed to exercise, and achieving exercise goals (Bhattacharya, Garber, Goldhaber-Fiebert, 2015). The use of nudges has been utilized in the context of positive psychology-based workplace well-being programs as a way to build well-being habits (e.g., Ludwigs et al., 2019).

Nudges can be placed electronically or physically around an office space to discretely push employees in the direction of their well-being goals and can help to develop well-being habits. This is an extremely cost-effective accountability tactic for organizations to leverage, as a nudge can be as simple as a short phrase and a colorful photograph displayed on an electronic monitor. Phrases that inspire mindfulness, movement, compassion, and social connection are among the various topics that can be leveraged for nudges. Try to keep nudge phrases relatively short (i.e., one sentence or fragment).

**AI Phase: Destiny**

The Destiny AI 5-D cycle phase involves taking action on the ideas and plans synthesized in the previous four AI phases and is helpful during the development of a sustainability plan of a workplace well-being program. A key question in this phase is, “how do we continue to leverage our strengths to deliver on the promise dreams and ensure our system flourishes in the future?” (Stavros et al., 2015, p. 231). A useful strategy during this phase is to repeat the other four phases (i.e., Define, Discover, Dream, and Design), to assess program status, and to enhance the vision for the future state of the program and organization. Stavros et al. (2015) offer the following sample sequence of program destiny:

This review involves asking the system/group another discovery question: “Tell a story about the best things that have happened in this project since we began.” This is followed
by a dream question that refocuses them on creating an updated image of success; that is, “Imagine it is three months from now and the project has become wildly successful, what does that look like?” This can be followed by another Design process to continue moving the project forward with new iterations. Ultimately, the Destiny phase transforms the organizational culture into an appreciative learning culture and the cycle continues. (p. 231)

By leveraging AI-type questions throughout program implementation and maintenance, workplace well-being programs continue to move in a more affirmative direction as new opportunities are discovered and actioned upon.

The final element of the Workplace Well-being Program Implementation Model is program execution. This section will recommend a few considerations for organizations to keep in mind once they have developed the program and are looking to bring it to fruition.

**VI. Execution**

Program implementation (i.e., what I refer to as ‘execution’) has been defined broadly as “how well the program is conducted during a trial period (Durlak & DuPre, 2008, p. 327). During this phase, the program is put into practice in the organization. Findings from a meta-analysis of nearly 500 studies demonstrate strong support for the importance of thoughtful program execution (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). This does not mean, however, that development ceases at the start of this phase. Program development and modification should be ongoing processes, as program monitoring and evaluation are crucial elements of introducing a workplace well-being program (Kaufman & Keller, 1994; Watson, 2008).
I recommend that organizations pilot the well-being program in a pocket of the organization to assess the efficacy of the developed program structure and to compare results to a control group if possible. As the program is scaled to the greater organization, small program victories should be communicated and celebrated across the organization, and there should be ongoing measurement, maintenance, and modification.

**Start Small, Scale Up**

As a way to measure program efficacy and cost-benefit early in the process, organizations should consider administering workplace well-being programs to a representative subset of the employee population before rolling the program out to the entire organization. In doing so, organizations can ensure that workplace well-being programs produce the intended and desired effects (Ludwigs et al., 2019). This approach can help organizations save costs and use feedback to improve the program before rolling it out to the broader population (Ludwigs et al., 2019).

Jim Barnett, CEO and co-founder of Glint (i.e. a company’s whose aim is to enable greater happiness and success for employees), shares his sentiments about ongoing measurement and initial workplace well-being program implementation:

As with all workplace programs, implementing perks should be a continuous process of implementing, gathering feedback, iterating, and communicating. Not every program will hit the mark right away. That’s okay. Treat the first month or quarter as a pilot period, and continue to check in with employees regularly to see how these perks are being utilized, or if they require a refresh. (Barnett, 2019)

As with any other program in the workplace, trial and error is okay. Well-being programs can be distinguished from other programs in that well-being is inherently individualized and
personal. By continuously gathering feedback from employees, organizations can adapt as needed so that workplace well-being programs fit employee needs and preferences as they scale up.

**Control Group**

Another effective way to understand the program’s benefits before scaling up to the broader population is to include a control group. The presence of a control group is considered an element of “gold standard” research (Vella-Brodrick, 2014). While organizations are likely not looking to publish the results of their workplace well-being programs in academic journals, the inclusion of a control group will enable organizations to better understand whether the workplace well-being program is creating the desired improvements in employee well-being and business outcomes, or if there are other factors (e.g., time of year, favorable organizational announcement) influencing program outcomes. By including a control group and starting small, organizations can ensure that their investment in broader program dissemination will be effective.

Aside from cost-saving and program improvement benefits, organizations can ensure that they avoid large-scale harm by starting small and including control groups. If a program is not implemented well, there is the unfortunate potential of creating negative employee outcomes (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). In the creation of a workplace well-being program in particular, it should be unlikely that these programs cause employee harm. Members of the program development team should either include well-being experts or be informed by best practices in the field. Early program monitoring can prevent this type of rare occurrence by giving organizations ample time to stop or correct programs (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).
Despite its benefits, the inclusion of a control group might be challenging in a non-academic environment. If an organization were to offer well-being training, for example, and certain employees are barred from participating in the training, tensions might arise. In this case, organizations might consider including waitlist control groups versus standard control groups. Waitlist control conditions do not receive the intervention (e.g., program, training) during the duration of the trial, but eventually receive the intervention (Hart, Fann, & Novack, 2008). This approach could manifest, for example, by offering well-being training to employees at a later date. Control groups can be distinguished by identifying different geographical locations, offices, or different departments within the firm that have similar needs. For non-academic institutions, this approach might be more costly, but allows for a more refined research methodology and likely more convincing results. It ultimately is the decision of the employer whether or not a control group would add value to workplace well-being program implementation.

**Identify and Celebrate Small Wins**

Once the program is implemented at a larger scale, consider seeking opportunities for ‘small wins’ in the workplace well-being initiative. Small wins could include social events, program project team progress, high participation numbers, or small policy changes. As these small wins are accomplished, communicate them to the organization as a way to build momentum for the program’s progress. The celebration of small program victories will generate greater program commitment and excitement as stakeholders observe the way the organization follows through on its commitment to enhance well-being (Cameron, 2013). Seek small wins throughout the growth of the program and continue to leverage communication platforms to inform stakeholders of these accomplishments.
Ongoing Measurement, Maintenance, & Modification

Ongoing evaluation, measurement, and feedback enable the organization to learn about which elements of the program are working well, which can be improved, and which need to be eliminated (Day & Penney, 2017). As indicated in the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model, organizations should begin an ongoing measurement and evaluation process at the beginning of this phase to continuously assess program effectiveness and modify when necessary.

Measuring the effects of workplace well-being programs on employee well-being depends on a demonstration that 1) employee well-being has changed and 2) the change in employee well-being is due to the workplace well-being program (Kelloway, 2017). Organizations can consider administering psychological (e.g., PsyCap, mood, anxiety), physical (e.g., sleep disturbances, upper respiratory infections), behavioral (e.g., nutrition, exercise, meditation logs), and organizational (e.g., employee turnover, absenteeism) measures to collect well-rounded information about the efficacy of workplace well-being programs (Kelloway, 2017). Organizations should continue to leverage well-being audits to capture changes in response trends as the program is implemented as sustained. Well-being audits should have also been leveraged as baseline measures, so organizations can refer back to the initial state of the organization and track progress. With continuous measurement, organizations can continue to adapt programs to their business and employee needs, which will ultimately lead to more effective program implementation.

Upon introducing the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model, I indicated how the model represents more of an ongoing process versus an end state of a workplace well-
being program. Just as the first four phases of the AI 5-D cycle should be repeated throughout the fifth AI cycle phase, the elements of the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model should be revisited and reassessed as the program is executed and maintained. For example, re-administering needs assessments throughout program maintenance can ensure that future adaptations or new interventions introduced into the program target the most current state of the organization. There may also be iterations of the model in between program elements, such as a re-evaluation of Organizational Goal Setting between Sustainability Plan Development and program Execution to ensure the organization is working effectively towards its goal and to assess whether or not any final changes need to be made. Organizations should use the proposed model as an iterative process once workplace well-being programs are executed.

**Discussion, Limitations, and Future Directions**

The Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model proposed in this paper is not only a pathway towards creating greater well-being in organizations but is also infused with components of well-being. This proposed model documents a process to initiate more conversation around the strategy behind implementing organizational well-being programs. While positive psychology, POS, and POB have made substantial progress in the last few decades on informing the content of well-being programs, less emphasis has been placed on creating best practice strategy approaches to establish and sustain such programs in an organization. The research used to inform the proposed model (e.g., perceived organizational support, PsyCap, HQCs, PERMA) is rooted in sound theory and practical application that has been tested in a variety of contexts.
Before concluding this paper, I would like to briefly highlight some limitations of this review and propose some future directions to direct the conversation of well-being at work towards a more strategic future.

One of the most salient limitations in this review is that well-being program strategy from the perspective of creating positive psychology-based workplace well-being programs is still in its infancy. The Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model synthesized in this paper is one of the first of its kind and, as such, some extrapolations have been made for the context of workplace well-being programs. That said, the majority of the concepts discussed have strong empirical foundations and have been studied in a variety of contexts, including workplaces. The recommendations made in this paper extend these concepts to inform the creation of well-being programs in the workplace, as opposed to general workplace well-being. This model and others of its kind could be used as a basis to conduct future research to better understand how the science of well-being in individuals and organizations influences workplace well-being program success. I invite practitioners and academics to use this model as a source of future research to better understand how the concepts presented influence workplace well-being program success.

There may be other content that could be included in such a model as the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model, but the focus of this paper was specifically the role positive psychology could play in the creation of workplace well-being programs. Future work can be done either expanding upon this model or using this model as a base for the creation of future models. Of importance here is the focus on shifting the literature towards examining how
to synthesize well-being programs that stretch behind a conventional wellness approach and towards a more positive psychology, POS, and POB based approach.

Another future direction is informed by the fact that a review of organizations, such as Johnson & Johnson, that have successfully implemented robust workplace well-being programs was out of the scope of this paper. While this paper focused primarily on workplace well-being interventions and research published in academic journals and books, future work could be done to supplement the existing model with unpublished workplace well-being programs that have demonstrated success in organizations. Lessons could be gleaned from these programs, so I recommend that future research review qualitative and quantitative data for companies like Johnson & Johnson to determine critical success factors in program development and implementation.

A recognition of the limitations of this paper is important to inspire future research towards a more strategically informed direction for workplace well-being programs. That said, the Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model is rooted in a robust array of research so that organizations can be better informed as they seek to increase employee well-being. This model is a valuable tool for organizations and practitioners and a useful step towards an important focus of study for academia.

Conclusion

The world of work is changing, so organizational Talent Management and Human Resources strategies need to adapt with it. Conventional wellness programs intended to prevent or treat employee ill-being may no longer be sufficient, as employees are seeking more from employment. To develop with the evolving world of work, organizations should turn to positive
psychology, POS and POB to construct the employee experience in such a way that drives optimal performance and well-being. Workplace well-being programs offer a structured vehicle through which organizations can deliver well-being to employees.

Two worlds were presented in the introduction of this paper: the competitive scenario, in which organizations are driven by profitability and competition and the flourishing scenario, in which organizations are driven by excellence and well-being. To achieve the positively deviant outcomes produced in the flourishing scenario, organizations need to explore strategies unique from the norm. The Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model may inform one such strategy: the creation of initiatives intended to improve the well-being of employees.

The Workplace Well-Being Program Implementation Model extends the conversation from why workplace well-being is important to how to deliver workplace well-being most effectively. The ideas presented in this paper are rooted in a strong research foundation and can inform the establishment of organizational well-being initiatives to enable employees to flourish and to create positive business outcomes for organizations.
Appendices

Appendix A: Character Strengths & Flow

To discover a person’s unique blend of character strengths, take the VIA Survey of Character Strengths (https://www.viacharacter.org/survey/account/register). Figure 9 provides a brief description of each character strength sorted into the six virtues.
Figure 9. VIA Character Strengths Descriptions. Reprinted from VIA Institute on Character, 2018, Retrieved from https://www.viaclassification.org/www/Portals/0/Icons%20Classification%20Adult2_1.pdf.
Some benefits of using strengths at work. The use of strengths at work has been associated with a variety of positive outcomes, including increased work performance, organizational citizenship behavior, less counterproductive work behavior (Littman-Ovadia, Lavy & Boiman-Meshita, 2017), less absenteeism and turnover, fewer on-the-job accidents and less unethical behavior (Harter, Schmidt, Killham, & Agrawal, 2009), more positive work experiences, and the feeling that the work you do is a calling (Harzer & Ruch, 2012).

Some benefits of experiencing flow at work. The use of strengths can increase the chances of experiencing flow (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Experiencing flow more frequently can contribute to multiple dimensions of our well-being. Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, the world’s leading expert on the phenomenon, describes the benefits of flow by explaining that it is “important both because it makes the present instant more enjoyable, and because it builds the self-confidence that allows us to develop skills and make significant contributions to humankind” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 42). Flow can produce an enjoyment that arises when a person accomplishes something unexpected. This enjoyment is a “forward movement” categorized by novelty, the achievement of the previously unachievable, and intrinsically motivated pursuits of growth (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 46).

In the context of work, flow experiences positively influence the acquisition of personal (i.e., self-efficacy at work) and organizational resources (e.g., social support, innovation; Salanova, Bakker, & Llorens, 2006). This acquisition of new resources functions similarly to the broaden and build theory and leads to an upward spiral towards flourishing (Salanova et al., 2006). Work produces ideal conditions for flow; jobs include goals, feedback, rules, challenges, and necessary skills (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Flow has also been associated with and predictive
of positive mood at work (e.g., Fullagar & Kelloway, 2009). Since flow leads to increased enjoyment, experiencing flow at work will likely lead to increased employee efficiency and goal actualization (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

For a robust list of character strengths interventions, see *Character Strengths Interventions: A Field Guide for Practitioners* by Ryan Niemiec.
Appendix B: Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy, or the belief that one is capable of achieving certain outcomes (Bandura, 1997), has direct and indirect effects on the goal-setting process (Locke, 1996). Maddux (2009) argues that self-efficacy is perhaps the most important factor of success and a crucial determinant of perseverance, which is one driver of grit (Duckworth et al., 2007). As described earlier in this paper, grit is passion and perseverance for long term goals (Duckworth et al., 2007). Grittier individuals tend to be more devoted to life commitments (e.g., job retention, marital commitment) than less gritty individuals (Eskreis-Winkler, Duckworth, Shulman, & Beal, 2014).

The belief that we have control over our environments, thoughts, behaviors, and feelings is fundamental for well-being. Self-efficacy is influenced by both internal and external factors. If the environments in our early lives are responsive to our actions then we are more likely to develop self-efficacy. As we mature, five factors – performance (i.e., attributing success to one’s own behavior), vicarious (i.e., how we observe others’ behaviors and the consequences of those behaviors), and imagined (i.e., picturing ourselves or others behaving effectively in different situations) experiences, verbal persuasion (i.e., feedback from others), and physiological and emotional states (i.e., the way we associate perceived success or failure with physiological and emotional states) – have the potential to further the development of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Maddux, 2009).

Empirical research demonstrates a significant association between self-efficacy and work-related performance (e.g., Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). The inclusion of these different types of experiences in workplace well-being programs will increase employee self-efficacy in
accomplishing their well-being goals and will ultimately drive greater performance towards goal achievement.

The inverse relationship also exists between goal-setting and self-efficacy; in other words, achieving goals works to increase self-efficacy. There are various ways that the goal-setting process can raise one’s self-efficacy: the goal can be adjusted to the person’s capacity; the person’s capacity can be raised by training and experience; or, the person’s perspective of his own capacity can be altered through feedback of confidence and role modeling (Locke, 1996). Each of these strategies to increase self-efficacy can be leveraged in a well-being program with supervisor support. By empowering employees to determine their well-being goals and providing instructor-led or other coaching opportunities, employees can adapt their well-being goals to better serve their success and ultimately increase their self-efficacy.
Appendix C: Benefits of High Quality Connections

When employees have greater frequencies of HQCs at work, they experience increased learning behaviors (Carmeli, Brueller, & Dutton, 2009), individual and team resilience (Stephens, Carmeli, Heaphy, Spreitzer, & Dutton, 2003), work commitment, organizational citizenship behavior (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008), and team creativity (Carmeli & Dutton, 2012). At an organizational level, the experience of high quality connections lead to greater employee engagement and work commitment (LaBianca, Umphress, & Kaufmann, 2000) and relational coordination (i.e., shared knowledge, shared goals, mutual respect; Gittell, 2003)). Relational coordination leads to increased organizational efficiency and higher quality performance, which ultimately increases organizational effectiveness (Gittell, 2003). For a summary of these benefits of HCQs and some additional benefits, please see Figure 10.
Appendix D: Appreciative Inquiry

AI shifts the narrative from looking at an organization as a “problem to be solved” towards looking at an organization as a “solution to be embraced” (Cooperrider et al., 2008, p. 5). Figure 11, taken directly from Cooperrider and Whitney (2005), contrasts a conventional organizational change approach with that of AI. While conventional strategies for improvement in organizations focus on identifying, brainstorming ways to address, and solutioning problems, AI shifts the perspective towards focusing on strengths and values of organizations to inspire positive change (Cooperrider, 2017). See Figure 11 for a comparison of a conventional problem-solving approach to organizational change and AI.

Table 2 identifies a few important strengths-based principles of AI and describes how these principles affect actions taken by practitioners. These are important to keep in mind when using the AI approach to organizational change.

**Table 2.** Strengths-Based AI Principles and Implications for Positive OD Practitioners.

Reprinted from Stavros et al. (2015, p. 124).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strengths-based Principle</strong></th>
<th><strong>Implications for Positive OD Practitioners</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. We live in worlds our inquiries create.</td>
<td>Be aware of the questions being asked within organizations as well as the ones you pose. The ROI on change initiatives is dependent upon what we inquire into: deficiencies or the best in life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. We excel only by amplifying strengths, never by simply fixing weaknesses.</td>
<td>Pay attention to the initial framing of your work and beware of the negativity bias inherent in our traditional OD approaches because excellence is not the opposite of failure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Small shifts make seismic differences; strengths-based change obeys a tipping point.</td>
<td>Instead of focusing 80 percent on what's not working and 20 percent on strengths, it is important to put this 80/20 rule in reverse to harness the transformative power of the “positivity ratio.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Strengths do more than perform, they transform.</td>
<td>It is important to help organizations and the individuals within them to uncover the best within themselves and imagine “what is next” in order for them to create upward spirals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. We live in a universe of strengths; what we appreciate (see as having value) appreciates (increases in value).</td>
<td>Focus your attention and the attention of the organization on what they want to become more of, not less of. There are unlimited strengths in any organizational system to be found and amplified if we seek them out, including success, vitality, and flourishing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix E: Characteristics of Positive Energizers

### Table 3. Qualities of Positive Energizers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energizers</th>
<th>De-energizers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They help other people flourish</td>
<td>They mostly see roadblocks and obstacles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are trustworthy and have integrity</td>
<td>They create problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are dependable</td>
<td>They do not allow others to be valued.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They use abundance language.</td>
<td>They are inflexible in their thinking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are heedful and fully engaged.</td>
<td>They do not show concern for others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are genuine and authentic.</td>
<td>They often do not follow through.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They see opportunities.</td>
<td>They are self-aggrandizing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They solve problems.</td>
<td>They are mostly somber and solemn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They smile.</td>
<td>They are superficial and inauthentic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They express gratitude and humility.</td>
<td>They are frequently critical.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Reprinted from Cameron (2013, p. 57).*
Appendix F: How to Identify Positive Energizers

The option below is summarized from *Practicing Positive Leadership* by Kim Cameron and is provided here for explanatory purposes. For more information about this option and for additional ways to identify positive energizers in an organization, see *Practicing Positive Leadership*.

Option #1: Use Analytical Software

1. Use the UCINET software (www.analytictech.com).

2. Can perform the exercise by department or for an entire organization (depending on the organization’s size).

3. Administer a list of department-wide or organization-wide names and ask the question “When I interact with _____, what happens to my energy?” (Response options are 1-7, from “I am very de-energized” to “I am very positively energized”).

4. Input data into statistical software and analyze results.
Appendix G: PsyCap

Elements of PsyCap. Table 4 offers a description of each PsyCap element. Each element fits the rigorous inclusion criteria (Youssef & Luthans, 2012). These four elements have been subjects of scientific study, particularly within the field of positive psychology (Snyder & Lopez, 2002), are measurable, developmental (i.e., can be improved), and have been demonstrated to improve desirable performance and work-related outcomes (Youssef & Luthans, 2012).
### Table 4. PsyCap Elements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PsyCap Element</th>
<th>Brief Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Hope           | • Theoretical origin: Snyder (2000).  
• Definition in PsyCap: “A positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful 1) agency (goal-directed energy) and 2) pathways (planning to meet goals)” (Snyder, Irving, Anderson, 1991, p. 287). Said another way, hope theory consists of three main components: goals; pathways as strategies to work towards those goals; and, agency as the desire to continue to implement the strategies. |
| Efficacy       | • Theoretical origin: Bandura (1997).  
• Definition in PsyCap: “One’s belief about his or her ability to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and sources of action necessary to execute a specific action within a given context” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998b, p. 66). |
| Resilience     | • Theoretical origin: (Masten, 2001; Masten & Reed, 2002).  
• Definition in PsyCap: “the developable capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, and failure, or even positive events, progress, and increased responsibility” (Luthans, 2002a, p. 702). |
| Optimism       | • Theoretical origin: (Carver & Scheier, 2002) and (Seligman, 1998).  
• Definition in PsyCap:  
  ❯ Optimistic Explanatory Style (Seligman, 1998): Those with pessimistic explanatory styles describe the negative situations that happen to them as personal (it was my fault), permanent (it will always be this way), and pervasive (I’m like this in multiple domains in my life). Those with optimistic explanatory styles describe the negative situations that happen to them as non-personal (there were likely other factors at play), temporary (I can do better next time), and specific (this situation is isolated from other domains in my life).  
  ❯ Generalized positive expectancy - Hopeful Optimism (Carver & Scheier, 2002): Goal motivation and commitment stems from how valuable people perceive the goal to be. The people who stay committed to their goals despite adversity perceive good outcomes to come from these goals. Those who doubt their goals will likely give up their efforts and eventual seize the pursuit of their goals. |

*Note: Descriptions are adapted from (Youssef & Luthans, 2012).*
Benefits of PsyCap. Below is a non-exhaustive list that highlights some of the research that supports PsyCap effectiveness as a workplace intervention:

- PsyCap is positively related to employee performance and satisfaction (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007) and extra-role organizational citizenship behaviors (Avey, Luthans, Youssef, 2010; as cited in Youssef & Luthans, 2012).


- PsyCap has also been shown to be beneficial beyond the individual as a bridge between supportive organizational climate and employee performance (Luthans, Norman, et al., 2008) and between authentic leadership and group performance and citizenship behavior (Norman, Avey, Nimnicht, & Graber Pigeon, 2010; as cited in Youssef & Luthans, 2012).
Appendix H: Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

Table 5: Survey of Perceived Organizational Support.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The organization strongly considers my goals and values.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The organization would understand a long absence due to my illness.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The organization disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The organization really cares about my well-being.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The organization would fail to understand my absence due to a personal problem. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. If the organization found a more efficient way to get my job done they would replace me. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. The organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. It would take only a small decrease in my performance for the organization to want to replace me. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The organization feels there is little to be gained by employing me for the rest of my career. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The organization provides me little opportunity to move up the ranks. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The organization would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. If I were laid off, the organization would prefer to hire someone new rather than take me back. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. If I decided to quit, the organization would try to persuade me to stay.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. The organization cares about my opinions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. The organization feels that hiring me was a definite mistake. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. The organization cares more about making a profit than about me. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. The organization would understand if I were unable to finish a task on time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. If the organization earned a greater profit, it would consider increasing my salary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. The organization feels that anyone could perform my job as well as I do. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. The organization is unconcerned about paying me what I deserve. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. The organization wishes to give me the best possible job for which I am qualified.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. If my job were eliminated, the organization would prefer to lay me off rather than transfer me to a new job. (R)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. My supervisors are proud that I am a part of this organization.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (R) indicates the item is reverse scored.
* These items were retained for the short version of the survey.

Note: Reprinted from Eisenberger et al. (1986, p. 502).
Appendix I: Positive-Activity Model

Figure 12 is the Positive-Activity Model, which is a depiction of the person-activity fit process and the different elements that affect how well a positive intervention will be able to improve a person’s well-being.

Appendix J: Positive Interventions

Elements of positive psychology interventions. It is useful to breakdown the elements of positive interventions to customize interventions for individual or organizational needs. Pawelski (2009) presents his model of positive psychology intervention elements: activity, active ingredient, target system, target change, and desired outcome. The desired outcome is the purpose of the intervention (e.g. an increase positive emotions). The target change is the domain in which the desired outcome happens (e.g. a shift in focus toward good things). The target system is what system the target change will occur in (e.g. attention). The active ingredient causes the target change in the target system (e.g. questions). The activity is the recommended action to deliver the active ingredient (e.g. write down three good things and why they happened). The order of events is as follows: the activity delivers the active ingredient catalyzes the target change in the target system and leads to the desired outcome.

If someone is analyzing a positive psychology intervention to better understand the mechanisms that drive it and to potentially modify it for other uses, the analyst would begin with the activity and proceed through the elements in that direction to dissect the intervention. When synthesizing a new intervention, the process begins with the desired outcome and the synthesizer moves through the steps until he generates an activity that eventually leads to the desired outcome.

With this theory, one can reach into the closet of positive intervention elements, pull pieces from various interventions and combine them create or recommend personalized “outfits”. This ability to “mix and match” the elements of positive interventions may make them more effective, as they can be tailored with a particular person’s or organization’s context and
preferences in mind. The creation of such a model is extremely useful, as it can help create more interventions, help in the analysis and expansion of existing interventions, and allow for experimentation in combining the different elements of various interventions (Pawelski, 2009).

**Positive psychology intervention example and sample analysis.** To demonstrate an example of how to analyze a positive psychology intervention and modify it for organizational contexts, I will dissect a positive intervention known as the “positivity portfolio.” The objective of the positivity portfolio is to cultivate positive emotions to elicit a broaden and build response by consolidating items, photos, videos, and music into either electronic or physical “portfolios” (Fredrickson, 2009). Each portfolio is created to increase a specific positive emotion (e.g. joy, gratitude, awe), and participants should spend a full week cultivating each emotion (Fredrickson, 2009). If the participant would like to continue the intervention, he or she can create another positivity portfolio for a different emotion and begin the same process. Cultivating a different emotion every week adds variety to the positive psychology intervention and could help to prolong its benefits, thereby resisting hedonic adaptation (i.e., growing accustomed to the positive effects of something overtime; Bao & Lyubomirsky, 2014).

We reviewed the elements of positive psychology interventions above: activity, active ingredient, target system, target change, and desired outcome. Since we are analyzing an existing intervention – as opposed to synthesizing a brand new one – we will review the elements in this order.

The activity is to consolidate items (e.g. photographs) and audio (e.g. music) into either a physical or electronic portfolio. This portfolio is meant to target one positive emotion specifically. Once the portfolio is created, a person should savor its contents for fifteen minutes
every day for one week. The active ingredient in this positive psychology interventions is savoring. Savoring positive emotions and events can prolong their benefits (Fredrickson, 2009). Fortunately, savoring is an ability that people can develop. By savoring more often, people can experience more positivity in life in general (Fredrickson, 2009).

The target system in this scenario is affect, the target change is increased positive emotions, and the desired outcome is greater life flourishing. This outcome is in line with the broaden and build theory of positive emotions discussed above.

This intervention is a green cape intervention—that is, it is positive in method—because the cultivation of positive emotions is considered positive. Positive emotions are preferred to their absence, and more positive emotions are preferred to less positive emotions. Furthermore, this positive psychology interventions could be useful for people who are flourishing (i.e., positive in point of application) and people who are languishing (i.e., not positive in point of application; Fredrickson, 2009). Since an intervention needs to be positive in point of application, positive in method, or both, this intervention satisfies the positive psychology intervention requirements.

Modifying existing positive psychology intervention for the workplace. Table 6 demonstrates a comparison of the existing, individual positive psychology intervention and the adapted intervention for workplace contexts.
Table 6. Analysis of Positivity Portfolio and Adaptation for Workplace Context

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Psychology Intervention Element</th>
<th>Positivity Portfolio</th>
<th>Workplace Positivity Portfolio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Consolidate items (e.g. photographs) and audio (e.g. music) into either a physical or electronic portfolio.</td>
<td>Consolidate items (e.g. photographs) and audio (e.g. music) into either a physical or electronic portfolio (personal use) that elicit a work-related positive emotion OR create a visible physical or electronic display of items and/or audio with coworkers that elicit a certain positive emotion. Both activities should be done in the context of the workplace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Ingredient</td>
<td>One positive emotion (e.g. gratitude).</td>
<td>One positive emotion (e.g. gratitude).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target System</td>
<td>Affect.</td>
<td>Affect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Change</td>
<td>Increased Positive Emotions.</td>
<td>Increased Positive Emotions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Outcome</td>
<td>Acquisition of new resources for greater life flourishing.</td>
<td>Acquisition of new resources for more productive work, better work relationships, better culture, and greater life flourishing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ability to dissect how these positive psychology interventions work is a valuable tool to adapt these interventions for the workplace. It also ensures that the interventions remain
supported by research, which is key to establish legitimacy to these interventions. Strategies like this one can and should be considered in the creation of a workplace well-being program. If there are empirically supported interventions within the field of positive psychology, then workplaces looking to enhance the well-being of their employees can learn some valuable lessons from the science of well-being.

Here is a non-exhaustive list of a few resources with positive psychology interventions:


Appendix K: Positive Emotions

Positive emotion is just one element of Seligman’s (2011) five-element theory of well-being. In other words, *feeling good* is important in the pursuit of the good life, but is not sufficient to flourish. This idea of *feeling good* is captured in the concept of hedonia, or the pursuit of pleasure and the minimization of pain (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Contrastingly, a eudaimonic approach to well-being requires discipline and commitment unnecessary in the pursuit of hedonia but is more likely to lead to a deeply meaningful and fulfilling life (Ryan & Deci, 2001). While positive emotions can lead to a pleasurable life, some of the other elements of PERMA can allow for a more engaging and meaningful life. The four other elements of Seligman’s (2011) theory – engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment – supplement *feeling good* and better enable people to thrive. See Table 7 for a list of ten positive emotions.
Table 1.1 Ten representative positive emotions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotion label</th>
<th>Appraisal theme</th>
<th>Thought-action tendency</th>
<th>Resources accrued</th>
<th>Core trio in mDES Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joy</td>
<td>Safe, familiar unexpectedly good</td>
<td>Play, get involved</td>
<td>Skills gained via experiential learning</td>
<td>Joyful, glad, or happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gratitude</td>
<td>Receive a gift or benefit</td>
<td>Creative urge to be prosocial</td>
<td>Skills for showing care, loyalty, social bonds</td>
<td>Grateful, appreciative, or thankful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serenity (a.k.a., contentment)</td>
<td>Safe, familiar, low effort</td>
<td>Savor and integrate</td>
<td>New priorities, new views of self</td>
<td>Serene, content, or peaceful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Safe, novel</td>
<td>Explore, learn</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Interested, alert, or curious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hope</td>
<td>Fearing the worst, yearning for better</td>
<td>Plan for a better future</td>
<td>Resilience, optimism</td>
<td>Hopeful, optimistic, or encouraged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pride</td>
<td>Socially valued achievement</td>
<td>Dream big</td>
<td>Achievement motivation</td>
<td>Proud, confident, or self-assured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amusement</td>
<td>Nonserious social incongruity</td>
<td>Share joyfulness, laugh</td>
<td>Social bonds</td>
<td>Amused, fun-loving, or silly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiration</td>
<td>Witness human excellence</td>
<td>Strive toward own higher ground</td>
<td>Motivation for personal growth</td>
<td>Inspired, uplifted, or elevated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awe</td>
<td>Encounter beauty or goodness on a grand scale</td>
<td>Absorb and accommodate</td>
<td>New worldviews</td>
<td>Awe, wonder, amazement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love</td>
<td>Any/all of the above in an interpersonal connection</td>
<td>Any/all of the above, with mutual care</td>
<td>Any/all of the above, especially social bonds</td>
<td>Love, closeness, or trust</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Reprinted from Fredrickson (2013, p. 5).*
References


