

Work-Related Drivers of Wellbeing

Positive work:

A Multidimensional Overview and Analysis of Work-Related Drivers of Wellbeing

Tim Lomas

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Abstract

Scholars are beginning to appreciate the work-related ‘drivers’ of wellbeing, i.e., the ways work may promote or hinder employees’ wellbeing. This paper brings a multidimensional perspective to bear on this topic by providing: (a) a multidimensional overview of these drivers; and (b) a multidimensional analysis of how they actually ‘drive’ wellbeing. The paper is in two parts. Part 1 briefly summarises the drivers, highlighting key theories and interventions. Part 2 then brings a multidimensional analysis to bear on the drivers, doing so by focusing on one driver in particular (‘managing emotions’) as a case study. This driver is analysed through the prism of a multidimensional model of the person, the ‘Layered Integrated Framework Example’ model. It is hoped that, in future, similar analyses can consequently be undertaken for the other drivers. The paper thus offers a generative research agenda for exploring how to enable people to flourish at work.

Keywords: engagement, flourishing, wellbeing, positive organisational scholarship, positive organisational behaviour.

Introduction

Recent decades have seen an increasing focus on employee wellbeing, as reflected in the emergence of two new work-related academic paradigms, positive organizational behaviour

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(Luthans, 2002) and positive organizational scholarship (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). Although these two overlap considerably, Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) suggest the former is more ‘organization-driven’ (enhancing employee performance to benefit the organisation), whereas the latter is more ‘employee-driven’ (enhancing organisational performance for the benefit of employees). However, it is recognised that these perspectives are not necessarily oppositional, but can be synergistic, since organisations that value employee wellbeing as a substantive good may be more likely to thrive themselves (Zwetsloot & Pot, 2004). As such, there is considerable overlap between the two paradigms; recognising this, we might refer to both together under the broader label of ‘positive work.’

As a contribution to this notion of positive work, this paper focuses on the work-related ‘drivers’ of wellbeing, i.e., work-related factors that promote or hinder employee wellbeing. The paper has two main aims: (a) to provide a brief multidimensional *overview* of these drivers; (b) to offer an illustrative multidimensional *analysis* of the drivers. The paper is thus in two main parts. Part 1 is the multidimensional overview, reflecting the current state of the literature. This lays the groundwork for part 2, which shows what a multidimensional analysis of these drivers might look like – doing so by focusing on one driver in particular as a case study (‘managing emotions’) – thus outlining a future research agenda to further our understanding of the drivers.

In this process, the paper will strive to articulate a multidimensional appreciation of what work-related wellbeing actually looks like. In the literature, key constructs that pertain to work-related wellbeing include job satisfaction (Weiss, 2002) and engagement (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). This paper does lean on these two concepts in its understanding of work-related wellbeing: an employee who is engaged and satisfied with their work could be deemed to be experiencing work-related wellbeing. However, the paper also seeks to go beyond these more ‘psychological’ aspects of wellbeing, to incorporate other dimensions of

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the person. The key notion in the sentences above, and in this paper as a whole, is that of multidimensionality. Contemporary scholarship is beginning to increasingly appreciate the multidimensional nature of wellbeing. This is not a new idea of course: it is evident in the WHO's (1948) inclusive definition of health as 'a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, and not merely the absence of disease and infirmity.' The three dimensions of health identified by the WHO – mental/psychological, physical and social – can likewise be construed as dimensions of wellbeing; for instance, Pollard and Davidson (2001, p.19) define wellbeing as 'a state of successful performance across the life course integrating physical, cognitive and social-emotional function.' This definition could easily be used as an expansive definition of work-related wellbeing, for instance by inserting the phrase 'in work-related contexts' in the place of 'across the life course.'

However, multidimensionality can be taken still further, providing even greater detail in our understanding of the person and their wellbeing. To this end, this paper explores wellbeing at work through the prism of a new multidimensional framework known as the LIFE (Layered Integrated Framework Example) model (Lomas, Hefferon, & Ivztan, 2014). In contrast to most other multidimensional models – such as the WHO's – the LIFE model identifies *four* main ontological domains of the person. As per the WHO, the model acknowledges the distinction between subjective 'mind' and objective 'body/brain' ('mental' and 'physical' in their terminology). However, the LIFE model also separates the collective 'social' dimension into subjective (or 'intersubjective') and objective (or 'interobjective'). We might refer to the former as 'culture,' encompassing shared language, meanings, and worldviews. Conversely, the latter could be labelled 'society,' and refers to the material and structural scaffolding of these networks (e.g., the physical environment, or non-physical systems such as economic activity).

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It is worth noting that these dimensions overlap with those of Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli's (2001) influential Job Demands-Resources (J D-R) model, in which work wellbeing is conceptualised as a function of the trade-off between demands and resources. In this, resources are defined as 'physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that may do one of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development' (p.501). This definition arguably covers the same four dimensions of the LIFE model, namely 'physical [i.e., the body], psychological [i.e., the mind], social [i.e., culture] or organisational [i.e., society] aspects of the job.' However, the LIFE model provides further nuance to our multidimensional understanding of the person, and of their wellbeing, by stratifying the four dimensions into five layers/levels, as depicted in figure 1 below.

[insert figure 1 about here]

With its stratified layers, the LIFE model permits a more detailed multidimensional analysis than is offered by the J D-R model (though this is not a critique of the latter; the LIFE model could simply be regarded as a complexification of this already successful model). In the LIFE model, the mind is differentiated into embodied sensations, emotions, cognitions, conscious awareness, and 'awareness+' (advanced states of consciousness). The body is deconstructed into biochemistry, neurons, neural networks, the nervous system, and the body as a whole. Finally, culture and society are both stratified using Bronfenbrenner's (1977) ecological systems theory, plus an additional outer layer reflecting the global biosphere, as follows: microsystems, mesosystems, exosystems, macrosystems, and ecosystems. Collectively, the model offers a meta-theoretical 'map' of the person, and of their wellbeing. Each of the levels within each dimension encompasses the various 'aspects' of wellbeing, from the subjective

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(e.g., positive affect) to the objective (e.g., neurotransmitter levels) to the intersubjective (e.g. interpersonal trust) to the interobjective (e.g., network ties). This model can then be used to understand how work impacts upon wellbeing. Indeed, in part 2 of this paper, this model is presented as the basis for a future research agenda into the work-related drivers of wellbeing, exploring how these drivers impact upon the various dimensions and levels of the model, thereby ‘driving’ wellbeing. First though, we need to identify what the drivers are. As such, part 1 of the paper provides a brief overview of these drivers, drawing on current literature.

A Multidimensional Overview of the Drivers of Wellbeing

In order to identify the potential drivers of wellbeing, I consulted five taxonomies that are prominent in the literature. Firstly, the American Psychological Association’s (APA) (1999) Psychologically Healthy Workplace Program, which rates good practice according to five categories: health and safety; work-life balance; employee involvement; employee development; and employee recognition. Secondly, Levering’s (1988) influential Great Place to Work initiative, which assesses workplaces on: camaraderie; respect; credibility; fairness; and pride. Thirdly, Rego and Cunha’s (2008) criteria for ‘authentizotic’ organisations: camaraderie; trust in/of the leader; open communication; opportunities for personal development; fairness; and work-life balance. Fourth, Crabb’s (2011) analysis of the drivers of engagement, featuring three ‘individual’ drivers (focusing strengths; managing emotions; and aligning purpose) and four ‘organizational’ drivers (transparent leadership; employee ‘voice’; organisational integrity; and reward and recognition). And finally, Sauter, Murphy, and Hurrell’s (1990) six categories of resources/stressors: workload and work pace; role stressors; career concerns; scheduling; interpersonal relationships; and job content and control. I sought to: (a) identify commonalities among these criteria; and (b) align these with the dimensions of the LIFE model. It seemed reasonable to group the components of these taxonomies into 11 distinct drivers, 4 pertaining to the psychological dimension, 3 to the

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physical dimension, and 4 to the collective dimension (the social and cultural dimensions amalgamated together). These 11 drivers are briefly elucidated in the three sections below.

Psychological Drivers of Wellbeing

Four main psychological drivers were identified across the taxonomies above: focusing strengths; managing emotions; aligning purpose; and personal and professional development. Focusing strengths, identified by Crabb (2011), draws on the concept of ‘character strengths,’ pioneered by Peterson and Seligman (2004). In a work context, the basic premise is that work engagement is enhanced to the extent that people are able to deploy and cultivate their ‘signature’ strengths (i.e., those they excel at). Managing emotions, also identified by Crabb, encompasses concepts such as emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), emotion regulation (Gross, 1999), and self-regulation (Baumeister & Vohs, 2003), as well as more specific qualities like resilience (Reivich, Seligman, & McBride, 2011). The key point here is that work-related wellbeing to the extent that employees are able to skilfully regulate their emotions (Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, & Hansenne, 2009). Thirdly, aligning purpose, again in Crabb’s taxonomy, refers to the importance of work being appraised as personally meaningful, such that it ‘aligns’ with one’s own values/priorities. Finally, a fourth driver, personal and professional development, is introduced here as an amalgamation of the APA’s (1999) notion of employee development, Rego and Cunha’s (2008) criteria of opportunities for personal development, and Sauter et al. ‘s (1990) category of career concerns. These four drivers are outlined in table 1 below, together with key theories associated with that driver, and a range of indicative interventions designed to promote that driver in work settings. The theories used to illustrate this driver (and indeed the other drivers) were selected on the basis of prominence, being those that appeared to feature heavily in the literature consulted. The interventions were selected on the basis of being either prominent or otherwise particularly

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interesting or representative of the given driver, thus providing a sense of the possibilities in that area.

[insert table 1 about here]

Physical Drivers of Wellbeing

Three main physical drivers were identified across the taxonomies: health and safety; workload and scheduling; and job content and control. Health and safety, taken from the APA (1999), is not only physically important – annually there are an estimated 2 million work-related deaths worldwide (WHO, 2008) – but emotionally too, being a major risk factor for burnout (Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011). The second main driver is labelled ‘workload and scheduling,’ an overarching category relating to the physical demands of work. This encompasses work-life balance (identified by the APA, and Rego and Cunha, 2008), together with Sauter et al.’s (1990) two categories of workload and work pace and scheduling. Concepts like work-life balance are not simply physical issues of course, but complex psychosocial ones; nevertheless, arguably work-life balance is fundamentally about the physical demands of work – i.e., how many hours it consumes – and so has been included here as a physical driver. Other scholars might prefer to categorise it as a socio-cultural driver, which would also be a reasonable way of arranging this overarching taxonomy. Finally, the third driver is job content and control, also identified by Sauter et al. Again, some might regard this more as a psychosocial driver (e.g., as it involves factors like subjective perception of control). However, it is included here as a physical driver as it essentially covers what employees are required to *do* with their body/brain, i.e., the physical and neurophysiological demands of labour. These three drivers are outlined in table 2 below, again with key theories associated with that driver, and indicative strategies designed to promote that driver in occupational settings.

[insert table 2 about here]

Socio-Cultural Drivers of Wellbeing

Finally, we come to the collective dimensions of the LIFE model: culture and society. These two dimensions are grouped together here, since the same drivers tend to be operative across both domains, manifesting with both an intersubjective ‘cultural’ aspect and an interobjective ‘societal’ aspect. For instance, recognition and reward has both intersubjective features (e.g., respect from colleagues and leaders) and interobjective features (e.g., monetary recompense). Four socio-cultural drivers were identified: relationships; leadership; values; and reward and recognition. Together these create the ‘psychological climate’ of an organisation (Parker et al., 2003). The first driver, relationships, encompasses two of Levering’s (1988) criteria (camaraderie and respect), two of Rego and Cunha’s (2008) (camaraderie and open communication), and Sauter et al.’s (1990) category of interpersonal relationships. The second driver is leadership, which includes Crabb’s (2011) ‘organizational’ driver of transparent leadership, Rego and Cunha’s criteria of trust in/of the leader, and the APA’s (1999) notion of employee involvement. The third driver is values, derived from Crabb’s taxonomy; however, while Crabb labelled this as ‘organisational integrity,’ it was felt here that values was a more overarching label, reflecting Peterson and Park (2006, p.1152) notion of ‘organisational-level virtues.’ Finally, reward and recognition was identified as an organisational level driver by Crabb; here it is used to also encompass Crabb’s idea of employee voice, the APA’s notion of employee recognition, Levering’s criteria of fairness and pride, and Rego and Cunha’s category of fairness. These four drivers are outlined in table 3 below, again with key theories associated with that driver, and indicative strategies designed to promote that driver in occupational settings.

[insert table 3 about here]

A Multidimensional Analysis – Managing Emotions as a Case Study

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Having provided a brief overview of the work-related drivers of wellbeing, in this second part, I would like to illustrate what a multidimensional *analysis* of these drivers might look like. This illustration could then serve as the basis of a future research agenda into the drivers. In turn, such research could help inform the promotion of wellbeing in occupational contexts, which is increasingly recognised as an important policy goal (Daniels, Karanika-Murray, Mellor, & van Veldhoven, 2012), as considered further below. Specifically, the stratified layers of the LIFE model can be used to investigate the drivers in some depth (in a more fine-grained way than is permitted by non-stratified multidimensional frameworks such as Demerouti et al.'s (2001) J D-R model). The essential premise of this research agenda is that each of the drivers, while being primarily situated in one of the dimensions of the LIFE model, will also *impact* upon, and be impacted by, *all* the dimensions and levels of the model. That is, it is envisaged that every driver would manifest at all these dimensions and levels, each of which accounts for an aspect of the way the driver affects wellbeing.

Take for example the driver 'managing emotions.' While evidently 'about' emotions, it does not only *concern* emotions. It will have manifestations at multiple levels of the mind, with embodied, affective, cognitive, conscious, and even spiritual components. Moreover, as per the 'neural correlates of consciousness' paradigm (Fell, 2004), this driver will also supervene upon multiple levels of the body/brain, i.e., it depends upon complex physiological substrates, from biochemical processes to the nervous system as a whole. Furthermore, it will affect, and be affected by, socio-cultural processes at all levels of scale, from microsystems to macrosystems. An analysis along these lines will enable us to explore exactly *how* these drivers affect wellbeing, asking questions like: (a) what are the causal mechanisms by which they enhance wellbeing; (b) what conditions enhance or impede their effectiveness; (c) how can workplaces, and applied interventions, best be designed to promote these drivers; and (d) are such initiatives/interventions cost-effective?

This second part then illustrates how this kind of analysis might work. It is beyond the scope of this paper to do this for all the drivers. Instead, I will just use one of the drivers – managing emotions (ME) – as a case study to show what such analyses might reveal. Future work could then undertake similar analyses for all the other drivers. Before setting out, it is worth mentioning that particular attention will be paid here to research and interventions pertaining to mindfulness. Mindfulness is a label given to both a meditative practice designed to train attention and awareness, and to the state that such practice is intended to inculcate, defined as ‘the awareness that arises through paying attention on purpose, in the present moment, and nonjudgementally to the unfolding of experience moment by moment’ (Kabat-Zinn, 2003, p.145). Mindful awareness is not only strongly linked to the development of emotional management capacities, but is seen as a fundamental component *of* these capacities (Chambers, Gullone, & Allen, 2009). However, the more specific reason for the focus on mindfulness here is that it is one of the most extensively tested interventions of its type, featuring analyses across numerous levels of the LIFE model. As such, it is a forerunner for the type of detailed multidimensional analysis that might in future be applied to other interventions (across all drivers). So, with that in mind, we’ll proceed through the dimensions and levels of the LIFE model, exploring the way ME has been analysed in an occupational context thus far, and making recommendations for future research. As per part 1, we shall look in turn at the psychological, physical, and socio-cultural dimensions.

The Psychological Dimension

In the LIFE model, the psychological dimension is stratified into five layers: embodiment, emotion, cognition, consciousness, and awareness⁺. These are listed in table 4 below, which includes examples of existing work pertaining to each level, together with suggestions for future research. The levels shall be considered in turn.

[insert table 4 about here]

Embodiment

We begin with embodiment, the ‘subjectivity of the lived body’ (Turner, 2001, p.253). As with all the levels here, we shall be exploring what relevance this has to ME, the wellbeing driver we are focusing on here. In particular, we are interested in why and how ME ‘drives’ wellbeing, and whether this is partly related to processes at this specific level. And, it does appear that one of the ways ME enhances wellbeing is through its impact upon embodiment processes, such as body awareness: for instance, research suggests that emotional awareness techniques like mindfulness can enhance body awareness (Silverstein, Brown, Roth, & Britton, 2011), and that such awareness in turn is associated with subjective wellbeing (Brani, Hefferon, Lomas, Ivtzan, & Painter, 2014). Beyond any generalised benefits body awareness may have for wellbeing, it also has specific relevance to the workplace: e.g., embodied awareness training is a component of self-management programmes that can help adults with chronic pain return to work sooner and function more adaptively in the workplace (Shaw et al., 2012). Beyond the benefits to such adults themselves, given the economic burden of chronic pain – a systematic review by Patel et al. (2012) found it diminished workplace productivity by up to 51% – interventions to redress chronic pain can therefore be cost-effective (Loisel et al., 2002). (As discussed further below, a key task in relation to employee wellbeing is convincing organisations that the implementation of wellbeing interventions is worth it to *them*.) On a more general point, one can see how ME intersects with the other drivers of wellbeing, such as health and safety. Such considerations will be a common thread here, as part of the value of the LIFE model lies in showing how the drivers themselves impact upon each other.

Emotions

The relevance of this level to ME barely needs spelling out, as this driver is essentially *of* this level. Nevertheless, it is still worth highlighting the importance of employees be able to

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manage their emotions. Resilience, for example, is an important buffer of work-related stress, reducing the risk of burnout (Jackson, Firtko, & Edenborough, 2007). Moreover, we are seeing the emergence of interventions and initiatives to help inculcate resilience among employees. Reivich et al.'s (2011) 'Master Resilience Training' (MRT) programme has been widely implemented in the U.S. military – as part of its more general 'Ready and Resilient' initiative – with promising results, e.g., as a protective factor against mental health issues (Elbogen et al., 2014). With the increasing prevalence of such programmes – and an emergent consensus around their usefulness (Robertson, Cooper, Sarkar, & Curran, 2015) – research is beginning to focus on cost-effectiveness, as led by organisations like the Work Foundation (2015). Similarly, there are increasingly calls from bodies, such as the CIPD (2011b), for organisations to promote resiliency among their workforce. This latter point highlights an important consideration about the way different levels of the LIFE model intersect: policy-driven organisational provision of initiatives like resilience training reflects the impact of socio-cultural processes (at a micro-, meso-, exo- and macrosystem level), as discussed further in the third section below. This point likewise highlights the way the drivers themselves intersect, since the instantiation of such interventions depends on socio-cultural drivers such as values (i.e., an organisation-level concern with the welfare of its employees) and leadership (i.e., leaders who are committed to upholding these values).

Cognition

Cognition encompasses cognitive processes (e.g., memory) and discursive 'cognitions' (e.g., thoughts). This level is closely intertwined with ME: indeed, emotions and cognitions exert a bi-directional influence over each other. On one hand, discursive patterns influence emotions. For example, Reivich et al.'s (2011) MRT is based in part on Beck, Rush, Shaw, and Emery's (1979) cognitive theory of mental disorder, particularly on the 'ABC' model of explanatory styles, in which the potential for an adverse Activating event to have negative emotional

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Consequences is a function of a person's **B**eliefs about that event. Thus emotional management can involve people 'working with' their cognitions. Similarly, discursive feedback (e.g., of job performance) in occupational settings can assist employees in their 'emotional labour,' which in turn affects wellbeing (Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002). From the other direction, ME can impact upon cognitions. Job satisfaction – a construct which incorporates cognitive components, such as beliefs about work, and evaluative judgements (Weiss, 2002) – can be enhanced through emotional management skills, such as the ability to amplify pleasant emotions (Côté & Morgan, 2002). There is also work on the association between emotion management and cognitive processes like memory: illustrating a 'limited resource' model of executive control, Schmeichel (2007) found that the effortful regulation of emotion adversely affected other cognitive processes. Such research reminds us that the drivers of wellbeing may not be uniformly positive in their effects. Analyses of such complexities is of course an important part of any future research agenda.

Consciousness

In the LIFE model, consciousness essentially refers to conscious awareness, a key component of ME. In Salovey and Mayer's (1990) hierarchical EI model, emotional awareness is the foundational level (followed by generation, understanding, and management). It is likewise integral to Gross's (1999) concept of emotion regulation (Barrett, Gross, Christensen, & Benvenuto, 2001). Given the importance of awareness, and also the recognition that it can be *trained*, there is increasing attention on initiatives to foster awareness in the workplace. Much of this has focused on mindfulness, arguably the exemplar intervention in this respect. A meta-analysis of mindfulness-based interventions (MBIs) in the workplace found it to be effective at reducing employee distress (Virgili, 2015). Similarly, Good et al. (2015) found MBIs to be positively associated with the other drivers of wellbeing, like good working relationships, as well as overall job performance. Such is the burgeoning recognition of the

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value of mindfulness that its use is being increasingly advocated at a policy level, not only by individual companies (i.e., at a microsystem level), but by broader exosystem organisations like the NHS (2015), and even at a macro-systemic governmental level. With the latter, a landmark report entitled ‘Mindful Nation’ was recently published by the Mindfulness All-Party Parliamentary Group (2015). It made policy recommendations in four key areas (health, education, criminal justice, and work). Regarding work, its recommendations were: (a) the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills work with employers to promote the use of mindfulness; (b) the What Works Centre for Wellbeing to commission, as a priority, high quality research into mindfulness in the workplace; (c) government departments to encourage the use of MBIs in the public sector; and (d) the National Institute of Health Research to invite bids on mindfulness as an occupational health intervention. This kind of policy-level advocacy will be discussed further below.

Awareness+

Finally, awareness+ is a catch-all term encompassing the nebulous idea of ‘higher’ states of mind (i.e., that are ‘qualitatively different’ from normal waking consciousness). These range from states of absorption, to more esoteric psychospiritual experiences, like non-dual awareness (in which the standard subject-object dichotomy is transcended). In terms of ME, one might perhaps regard these states of mind as the ‘strongest’ product of advanced emotion regulation skills; e.g., non-dual awareness is generally regarded as a product of years of intensive meditation practice (Josipovic, 2010). Awareness+ also includes emotionally charged spiritual experiences which can be the result of emotionally-focused practices such as prayer. There has been relatively little enquiry into these kinds of elevated experiences in occupational settings. One exception is Csikszentmihalyi’s (1990) relatively mild concept of flow, a state of being ‘in the zone’ that arises when a person’s attention is captivated by a challenging task, which has been linked to work engagement (Reid, 2011). Another emergent

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line of enquiry is the role of spiritual practices (e.g., prayer) in the helping professions, like nursing (Koenig, 2013), which some professionals find to be a helpful coping resource (Grant, 2004). It will be interesting to see further research into these more elevated states.

The Physical Dimension

The physical dimension is stratified into five emergent layers: biochemistry, neurons, neural networks, nervous system, and the body as a whole. These are listed in table 5 below, which includes examples of existing work pertaining to each level, together with suggestions for future research. The levels shall be introduced in turn (with neurons and neural networks considered together).

[insert table 5 about here]

Biochemistry

In the LIFE model, the foundational level is biochemistry, a catch-all term for all subcellular physiological processes. This would include, for instance, biomarkers of wellbeing, from cortisol to serotonin. Analyses of such biomarkers can provide useful information regarding the physiological causal mechanisms through which the drivers of wellbeing exert a positive impact. (We must be careful with the word ‘causal’ though. In charting the relationship between mental states (e.g., subjective wellbeing) and brain states (e.g., serotonin), the dominant paradigm in this area – the ‘neural correlates of consciousness’ approach (Fell, 2004) – cautions against assigning directional causality. That is, it may be a category error to assert that brain states *cause* mental states; it is possibly more accurate to say that a mental state of stress is caused by a psychosocial stressor, and that neurophysiological brain states are the *mechanism* through which such change is effected and manifested.) In the work arena, biochemical analyses include research into the impact of work factors on biomarkers like cortisol. For instance, Schulz, Kirschbaum, Prüßner, and Hellhammer (1998) found elevated post-awakening cortisol in participants who were chronically stressed due to overwork (thus

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showing the impact of the physical driver of workload and scheduling). We are starting to work focusing specifically on ME: examining elite athletes, Laborde et al. (2014) found that trait EI predicted cortisol levels. Similarly, from an applied perspective, there are emergent studies exploring the biochemical impact of interventions like mindfulness: Malarkey et al. (2013) developed a ‘low dose’ MBI for use in occupational settings, which appeared to lower cortisol levels in a clinically significant way (although the researchers urge further work to clarify this effect).

Neurons and neural networks

In the LIFE model, neurons and neural networks constitute separate conceptual levels, being at different levels of scale; however, since most mental operations arise from the dynamic interaction of neural populations across different brain areas, it makes sense to consider them together here. The field of ‘affective neuroscience’ (Davidson, 2003) is beginning to make strides in understanding the neurophysiological substrates of emotion, including the ‘neural correlates of wellbeing’ (Urry et al., 2004). This is exemplified by the use of technologies like functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) to connect the activation of particular brain regions to mental processes that are relevant in wellbeing. For instance, the type of executive cognitive control that is associated with emotional management has been linked to activation of the prefrontal cortex and anterior cingulate cortex (Newberg & Iversen, 2003). Such research is beginning to be conducted in occupational settings, including in relation to ME. In an RCT of an MBI delivered to employees, Davidson et al. (2003) found a significant pre-post increase in relative left-sided hemispheric activation – a pattern associated with wellbeing – in the experimental group (while the intervention also appeared to positively affect immune function). More recently, Haase et al. (2015) explored the impact of mindfulness training on neural processing in elite athletes, linking this to outcomes such as

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increased activation of the anterior cingulate cortex (a brain region implicated in executive attention). Such research is in its infancy, and is an exciting area for future studies to explore.

Nervous system

Moving up to the more encompassing level of the nervous system, investigation of outcomes associated with this has long been a feature of occupational research. Indeed, over 100 years ago, Hayhurst (1915) explored the impact of occupational strain on outcomes like cardiac functioning. Today there are a wealth of studies analysing nervous system outcomes, particularly in relation to the physical drivers of wellbeing, such as the association between job control and blood pressure (McCarthy, Perry, & Greiner, 2014), or between shift-work exposure (an aspect of workload and scheduling) and heart-rate variability (a biomarker of physical and mental health) (Bernardes Souza et al., 2014). There is an emergent literature on the impact of ME on such outcomes, indicating that action at this level is one of the ways that ME ‘drives’ wellbeing. For instance, Appleton et al. (2014) found that emotion regulation strategies were differentially associated with cardiovascular disease risk – reappraisal strategies had a 5.9% lower risk, and suppression a 10% higher risk – suggesting that effective emotion regulation may promote cardiovascular health. These kinds of analyses are beginning to be conducted in work settings. An RCT by McCraty et al. (2003) found that a work-based stress management programme – featuring emotional restructuring/refocusing techniques – lowered systolic blood pressure in a hypertensive experimental group, a reduction which also correlated with reduced stress symptoms.

The body

The final level here is the body ‘as a whole,’ encompassing all aspects of physical function (that aren’t specifically accounted for by the preceding layers). This would include research on work-related health generally. The literature is replete with analyses of the impact of occupational factors on health, like the effect of health and safety factors on issues like

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musculoskeletal functioning (Daltroy et al., 1997) and morbidity and mortality (WHO, 2008). Of particular relevance here, from the perspective of our case study, are indications that ME can positively affect physical health. Analysing Belgian adults, Mikolajczak (2014) reports that EI was a significant predictor of numerous health indicators (from smoking to healthcare use), over and above more conventional health predictors like social support. We are consequently beginning to see research on the health impact of ME undertaken in work-related settings. For instance, examining hospital managers in Greece, Gourzoulidis et al. (2014) found that EI was associated with health-related quality of life. Explanations for the positive impact of ME on health range from the notion that EI enables people to deal with work-related stress more efficiently (as Karimi, Cheng, Bartram, Leggat, and Sarkeshik (2015) found with Australian nurses), to the idea that EI means people are less likely to take health risks (as Lana et al. (2015) found with Spanish nursing students). It is thus increasingly recognised at a policy level that emotion management interventions can play an important role in public health, including in the workplace (Hahn & Truman, 2015).

The Socio-Cultural Dimensions

Finally, we turn to the socio-cultural dimensions of the LIFE model. These are both stratified into five emergent layers: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and ecosystem. These are listed in table 6 below, which includes examples of existing work pertaining to each level, together with suggestions for future research. The levels will be considered in turn.

[insert table 6 about here]

Microsystem

The notion of the microsystem is taken from Bronfenbrenner (1977), as are the mesosystem, exosystem and macrosystem. Essentially, the microsystem is the immediate social context of the person, which in occupational terms would be their workplace and/or the organisation

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they work for. In terms of ME, this has a bidirectional relationship with the microsystem; we can thus explore the impact of ME on the microsystem, and vice versa. With the former, there is a growing literature on the positive impact of ME on the intersubjective culture of the microsystem; essentially, this work suggests that the development of emotional management capacities has a positive impact on workplace relationships (one of the socio-cultural drivers of wellbeing). For instance, an RCT of a meditation-based intervention to cultivate ‘loving-kindness’ improved relationships among colleagues (Fredrickson et al., 2008). Conversely, we can also consider the impact of the microsystem on ME. Here we find that the socio-cultural drivers of wellbeing – particularly values and leadership – are important factors in the extent to which employees are empowered to manage their emotions. For instance, as helpful as emotional management interventions are, these are unlikely to be instantiated in the first place unless employee wellbeing is valued by the organisation and its leaders. It is for this reason that policy-makers recognise the importance of convincing leaders of the merits of such initiatives – as recognised in the recent Mindful Nation (2015) report – so that these can be implemented systemically at a microsystem level. (In turn, advocates of practices like mindfulness appreciate the importance of first convincing the *policy-makers*, so that they are motivated to exert their macrosystemic influence on business in the first place.)

Mesosystem

The mesosystem refers to the interaction between microsystems. In a work context, this could be construed in various ways. In an organisation, the relationship between different teams or departments is a mesosystemic phenomenon, as is the interaction between the organisation itself and other organisations. The relationship between a person’s work and home life – captured in the notion of ‘work-life balance,’ part of the ‘workload and scheduling’ driver – is also a mesosystemic process. In terms of ME, as with the microsystem, we can firstly consider its impact on these mesosystemic processes. There are indications that EI skills can

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mitigate mesosystemic conflict, such as work-life issues (Lenaghan et al., 2007), and facilitate mesosystemic bonding, such as between different teams/departments within an organisation (Ajay & Akhilesh, 2007). Conversely, from a top-down direction, mesosystemic processes impact on ME. Mesosystemic conflicts, such as work-life issues, are a source of stress, adversely affecting people's ability to manage their emotions (Hobson, Delunas, & Kesic, 2001). For this reason, Hobson et al. argue for corporate initiatives to help deal with work-life conflict. Indeed, the importance of such initiatives has been recognised at a macrosystemic level by the UK government, which launched a consultation on flexible working rights in 2011, concluding that it generally enhanced outcomes such as productivity and retention (Smeaton, Ray, & Knight, 2014). In terms of persuading organisations to invest in such projects, this is helped by case studies of corporations like IBM, which have shown that flexible working arrangements (e.g., telecommuting) have saved them millions of dollars, due to factors such as enhanced retention (the CIPD (2011a) estimate the average turnover cost per employee is £8,200) to reduced energy costs (Caldow, 2009).

Exosystem

The exosystem refers to the wider 'social structures' that 'impinge upon or encompass' the microsystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p.515). In an occupational context, we might regard this as the broader organisation that encompasses any microsystemic workplace. In terms of ME, the dynamics are somewhat different to that of the microsystem and mesosystem: the exosystem is more structural and diffuse; it is therefore harder for employees' emotional management skills to impact *directly* upon the system. We can of course still analyse the impact of emotion management at an exosystem level. For instance, as noted above, the Mindful Nation (2015) report recommended that public bodies such as the NHS implement mindfulness training for their employees, and also advocated the implementation of large scale research trials. It would be conceivable and indeed desirable to combine these two

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recommendations. The NHS could enact an extensive yet selective implementation of MBIs among its workforce, such that only certain regions or trusts implemented it at first, with the remainder serving as ‘wait-list’ controls. It would then be possible to examine the impact of mindfulness training on a panoply of outcomes, from occupational health to job performance. Such initiatives would also highlight the impact of exosystemic processes *on* ME, since the very implementation of mindfulness training would be being driven at an exosystem level. Indeed, these types of exosystemic wellbeing initiatives are increasingly common; for instance, following the publication of the ‘Healthy Staff’ policy paper by the Department of Health (2011), the NHS has been working towards engendering better staff wellbeing, including through mindfulness (e.g., Lancashire Care NHS Foundation Trust, 2015).

Macrosystem

The macrosystem refers to overarching processes – ‘economic, social, educational, legal, and political systems’ (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p.515) – that influence the three preceding levels. Indeed, as has been intimated throughout, this level exerts a powerful top-down effect on the drivers of wellbeing generally, and ME in particular. For instance, as seen above with the exosystem, efforts by bodies like the NHS to implement systemic wellbeing programmes for staff have been partly driven by policy initiative such as the Department of Health’s (2011) ‘Healthy Staff’ policy paper. Indeed, this policy paper reflects a wider UK concern at a political level with a wellbeing-driven policy agenda. This is reflected in various initiatives, such as the creation of a National Wellbeing Index, involving data on subjective wellbeing gathered by the ONS (2011) as part of its Integrated Household Survey, with the stated intention that this index would help guide governmental decisions (Bache & Reardon, 2013). Since then, a raft of other macrosystemic initiatives have likewise emerged to help deliver evidence-driven policy pertaining to wellbeing. For instance, as part of the UK government’s ‘What Works’ network, Public Health England helped to establish a ‘What Works Centre for

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Wellbeing' in 2014 – cited above in relation to the Mindful Nation report – with a remit to commission research into the impact of interventions and services upon wellbeing. This includes a 'Work, Learning and Wellbeing' programme aimed at workers, adult learners and job seekers. This kind of initiative can help drive forward the type of research outlined above, exploring the ways ME impacts on wellbeing (and indeed analysing the impact of all the drivers). Moreover, given the need for policy to be evidence-driven, such initiatives do not only serve an important analytic role, but are themselves a key force behind the *provision* of wellbeing interventions. This reinforces the point that the drivers are influenced by processes occurring at all levels of the LIFE model.

Ecosystem

To finish, it is worth briefly touching upon the ecosystem, i.e., the global biosphere that encompasses even macrosystemic processes. This level is included in the LIFE model because not only do environmental factors (e.g., pollution levels) influence wellbeing, but in an existential sense, human wellbeing is *ultimately* dependent upon planetary wellbeing (Smith, Case, Smith, Harwell, & Summers, 2013). While it might appear that this level has little relevance to ME in a work context, there are relevant considerations and analyses. For instance, in terms of the impact of humans on the environment, one of the biggest factors is the behaviour of corporations (e.g., polluting behaviours by industrial manufacturers). One might conceivably explore the impact of emotion management training on environmental awareness and pro-environmental behaviour; indeed, practices like mindfulness have been associated with just these types of outcomes (Jacob et al., 2009). As humanity begins to come to terms with the challenges posed by climate change, these types of considerations will be increasingly important.

Summary

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This paper has sought to bring a multidimensional perspective to bear on the work-related drivers of wellbeing. It had two main aims: (a) to provide a multidimensional overview of the drivers; (b) and to illustrate how we could analyse these drivers in a multidimensional way. The first part of the paper provided the overview. After consulting prominent taxonomies, 11 drivers were identified, which were aggregated into three broad categories: psychological drivers (deploying strengths, managing emotions, aligning purpose, and personal and professional development), physical drivers (health and safety, work load and scheduling, and job content and control), and socio-cultural drivers (relationships, leadership, values, and reward and recognition). Part 2 then sought to show what a multidimensional analysis of these drivers might look like. It did this by focusing on one particular driver – managing emotions – as a case study. It analysed this through the prism of the LIFE model, which identifies four dimensions to the person, with each dimension stratified into five layers. Thus managing emotions was examined in terms of how it impacts upon, and is impacted by, the psychological dimension (comprising embodiment, emotions, cognitions, consciousness, and awareness+), the physical dimension (comprising biochemistry, neurons, neural networks, the nervous system, and the body as a whole), and the socio-cultural dimensions (aggregated together, comprising micro-, meso-, exo-, macro-, and ecosystems). Consequently, the paper offers a generative future research agenda – in which this type of analysis might be applied to all the other drivers – thereby allowing us to further understand the work-related drivers of wellbeing, and helping people to flourish at work.

Summary

This paper is novel in that it not only identifies the ‘drivers’ of wellbeing at work, but presents an innovative multidimensional meta-theoretical framework for understanding how these drivers might actually ‘drive’ wellbeing. Its policy implications include facilitating an

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overarching multidimensional strategy for promoting wellbeing in the workplace, leading to policy recommendations at multiple levels of scale, from micro to macro.

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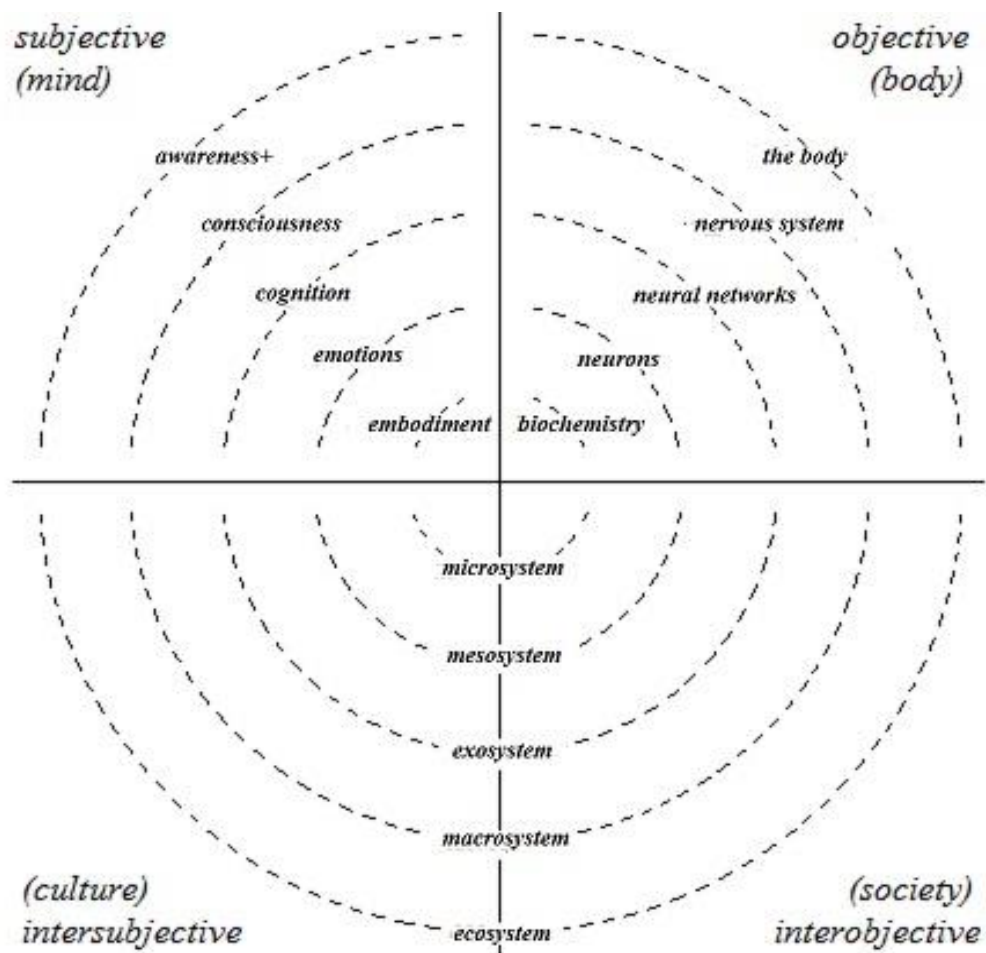


Figure 1: The Layered Integrated Framework Example (LIFE) model

Work-Related Drivers of Wellbeing

Table 1: Psychological drivers of wellbeing – indicative theories and interventions

Driver	Theories/models	Interventions/initiatives
Strengths	<p>Values-In-Action (Peterson & Seligman, 2004).</p> <p>Realise2 (Linley, Woolston, & Biswas-Diener, 2009).</p> <p>Strengths-Finder (Rath, 2007).</p>	<p>Working for wellness program (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2013).</p> <p>Strengths-based coaching (Coetzer, Redmond, & Bastian, 2014).</p> <p>Signature-strengths intervention programme (Forest et al., 2012).</p> <p>Role-shaping, complimentary partnering, and strengths-based teamwork (Linley et al., 2009).</p>
Managing emotions	<p>Emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).</p> <p>Emotion regulation (Gross, 1999).</p> <p>Self-regulation (Baumeister & Vohs, 2003).</p> <p>Resilience (Reivich et al., 2011).</p> <p>PsyCap (Luthans et al., 2007).</p> <p>Mindfulness (Kabat-Zinn, 2003).</p>	<p>Emotional Intelligence training (Nelis et al., 2009).</p> <p>PsyCap training (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, & Peterson, 2010).</p> <p>Master Resilience Training (Reivich et al., 2011).</p> <p>Mindfulness-based interventions (Kabat-Zinn, 2003).</p>
Aligning purpose	<p>Meaning in work (Steger, Dik, & Duffy, 2012).</p> <p>Work-related values (Persson, Erlandsson, Eklund, & Iwarsson, 2001).</p> <p>Work orientations (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1996).</p> <p>Work identities (Dutton, Roberts, & Bednar, 2010).</p>	<p>Career counselling (Dik, Duffy, & Eldridge, 2009).</p> <p>Job crafting (Wrzesniewski, 2003).</p> <p>Meaning-centred interventions (Fillion et al., 2009).</p> <p>Career education interventions (Bryan J. Dik, Steger, Gibson, & Peisner, 2011).</p>
Personal and professional development	<p>Career development (Super, 1990).</p> <p>Ego development (Cook-Greuter, 2000).</p> <p>Cognitive development (Rogoff, 1990).</p> <p>Moral development (Kohlberg, 1981).</p> <p>Psychological wellbeing (Ryff, 1989).</p>	<p>Work-based self-determination intervention (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989).</p> <p>Continuous improvement programmes (Schroeder & Robinson, 2002).</p> <p>Vocational interventions (Giordano, 1995).</p> <p>Skills training, e.g., writing (Kellogg, 2008).</p>

Table 2: Physical drivers of wellbeing – indicative theories and interventions

Driver	Theories/models	Interventions/initiatives
Health and safety	Work safety (Hayes, Perander, Smecko, & Trask, 1998). Musculoskeletal disorders (Kennedy et al., 2010). Air quality (Satish et al., 2012). Thermal comfort (Ormandy & Ezratty, 2012). Noise levels (Basner et al., 2014).	Educational training (Daltroy et al., 1997). Exercise/stretching programmes (da Costa & Vieira, 2008). Ergonomic design (Brewer et al., 2006). Safety-based supervisory monitoring (Zohar & Luria, 2003). Safety Management by Walking Around (Luria & Morag, 2012).
Workload and scheduling	Occupational fatigue (Winwood, Winefield, Dawson, & Lushington, 2005). Shift rotation (Tucker, Macdonald, Folkard, & Smith, 1998). Recovery strategies, e.g., psychological detachment from work (Moreno-Jiménez et al., 2009).	Regulation, e.g., European Working Time Directive (Health & Safety Executive, 1998). Flexible scheduling initiatives (Kandolin & Huida, 1996). Open-rota systems (Pryce, Albertsen, & Nielsen, 2006). Work-life balance interventions (Rupashree & Shivganesh, 2010).
Job content and control	Quality of work (van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Physical labour (Williams & Sambrook, 2011). Varied versus repetitive content (Sauter et al., 1990) Self-regulation at work (Pomaki & Maes, 2002). Self-efficacy (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).	Work-reorganisation interventions (Bond, Flaxman, & Bunce, 2008). Control-enhancing stress-reduction intervention (Logan & Ganster, 2005). Job control burnout prevention (Hätinen, Kinnunen, Pekkonen, & Kalimo, 2007). Task-restructuring interventions (Bambra, Egan, Thomas, Petticrew, & Whitehead, 2007).

Table 3: Socio-cultural drivers of wellbeing – indicative theories and interventions

Driver	Theories/models	Interventions/initiatives
Relationships	<p>Social capital (Bourdieu, 1986).</p> <p>Perceived social support (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988).</p> <p>Social network analysis (Cross, Borgatti, & Parker, 2002).</p>	<p>Communication training programmes (Kruijver, Kerkstra, Francke, Bensing, & van de Wiel, 2000).</p> <p>Civility interventions (Leiter, Laschinger, Day, & Oore, 2011).</p> <p>Loving-Kindness Meditation (Fredrickson, Cohn, Coffey, Pek, & Finkel, 2008).</p> <p>Mediation (Ridley-Duff & Bennett, 2011).</p>
Leadership	<p>Charismatic leadership (House, 1977).</p> <p>Transformational leadership (Bass, 1991).</p> <p>Spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003).</p> <p>Distributed leadership (Gronn, 2000).</p> <p>Leader-member social exchange (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles, & Walker, 2007)</p>	<p>Executive coaching (Thach, 2002).</p> <p>Management by Walking Around (Rubin & Stone, 2010).</p> <p>Supervisory quality interventions (Wagner et al., 2015).</p> <p>Managerial leadership development programmes (Collins, 2002).</p>
Values	<p>Spiral dynamics (Beck & Cowan, 1996).</p> <p>Authentizotic organisations (Kets de Vries, 2001).</p> <p>Corporate social responsibility (Garriga & Melé, 2013).</p>	<p>Appreciative Inquiry (Cooperrider & Srivastva, 1987).</p> <p>Spiral dynamics interventions (Robinson & Harvey, 2008).</p> <p>Corporate ethics training programmes (Delaney & Sockell, 1992).</p>
Reward and recognition	<p>Procedural fairness (De Cremer, van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, Mullenders, & Stinglhamber, 2005).</p> <p>Organisation-based self-esteem (Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, & Alarcon, 2010).</p>	<p>Employee financial participation (Morris, Bakan, & Wood, 2006).</p> <p>Collective performance rewards (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002).</p> <p>Non-financial recognition schemes (Silverman, 2004)</p>

Table 4: Examples of current and future psychological research (pertaining to managing emotions)

Level	Existing research	Future research
Embodiment	<p>Association between emotional and interoceptive awareness (Herbert, Herbert, & Pollatos, 2011).</p> <p>Impact of body awareness on subjective wellbeing (Mehling et al., 2009).</p> <p>Psychomotor physiotherapy (Dragesund & Råheim, 2008).</p>	<p>Cost-benefit analyses of the impact of body-awareness training on injury, health, and absenteeism.</p> <p>Relationship between EI, workplace physicality (e.g., sitting posture), and work-place injury.</p>
Emotion	<p>Emotional intelligence training (Nelis et al., 2009).</p> <p>PsyCap training (Luthans et al., 2010).</p> <p>Master Resilience Training (Reivich et al., 2011).</p> <p>Analysis of impact of mindfulness on EI (Lomas, Edginton, Cartwright, & Ridge, 2014).</p>	<p>RCTs comparing emotion-based interventions (e.g., MRT vs. PsyCap).</p> <p>Cost-effectiveness analyses of emotion-based interventions (e.g., MRT).</p> <p>Impact of socio-cultural drivers (e.g., leadership support) upon the effectiveness of MBIs.</p>
Cognition	<p>Analysis of the cognitive components of job satisfaction (Weiss, 2002).</p> <p>Adverse impact of emotion regulation on other cognitive processes (Schmeichel, 2007)</p> <p>The role of discursive cognitions in emotional capacities like resilience (Reivich et al., 2011).</p>	<p>Impact of EI training on discursive cognitions.</p> <p>Role of narrative restructuring (e.g., recalling positive events) in emotion regulation.</p>
Consciousness	<p>Impact of mindfulness on employee distress (Virgili, 2015).</p> <p>Impact of mindfulness on work relationships and performance (Good et al., 2015).</p> <p>Mindful awareness as ‘meta-skill’ that affects multiple aspects of wellbeing (Brown, Ryan, & Creswell, 2007)</p>	<p>Large-scale RCTs of MBIs in the workplace, featuring outcomes such as wellbeing, health, and job performance.</p> <p>Analysis of the efficacy of ‘second generation’ MBIs (which explicitly draw on Buddhist theory and practice) against that of ‘first generation’ MBIs (which are secular).</p>
Awareness+	<p>Impact of flow on work engagement (Reid, 2011).</p> <p>Factors that facilitate flow states (Fullagar & Kelloway, 2009).</p> <p>The importance of spirituality in helping professions, e.g., nursing (Grant, 2004).</p>	<p>Factors that engender spirituality in the workplace, and its impact (e.g., in term of work being meaningful).</p> <p>Working conditions that enable people to experience a flow state, and the impact such states has on wellbeing.</p>

Table 5: Examples of current and future physiological research (pertaining to managing emotions)

Level	Existing research	Future research
Biochemistry	<p>Cortisol levels associated with trait EI (Laborde, Lautenbach, Allen, Herbert, & Achtzehn, 2014).</p> <p>Impact of mindfulness training on cortisol (Malarkey, Jarjoura, & Klatt, 2013).</p> <p>Impact of mindfulness on immune system functioning (Davidson et al., 2003).</p>	<p>Relationship between length of mindfulness training and cortisol.</p> <p>Impact of EI training on neurotransmitter levels (e.g., serotonin).</p> <p>Genetically-influenced susceptibility to psychological interventions.</p>
Neurons & neural networks	<p>The role of the prefrontal cortex and anterior cingulate cortex in executive attention (Newberg & Iversen, 2003).</p> <p>Impact of mindfulness of left-sided hemispheric activation (Davidson et al., 2003).</p> <p>Impact of mindfulness on neural processing (Haase et al., 2015).</p>	<p>Impact of EI training on prefrontal cortex and anterior cingulate cortex.</p> <p>Role of mirror neurons in empathy (and the training of empathic responses).</p> <p>Impact of emotion-based interventions on relative left-sided hemispheric activation.</p>
Nervous system	<p>Impact of stress-reduction programmes on blood pressure (McCraty, Atkinson, & Tomasino, 2003).</p> <p>Impact of emotion-regulation strategies on cardiovascular risk (Appleton, Loucks, Buka, & Kubzansky, 2014).</p>	<p>Impact of EI training on biomarkers (e.g., heart-rate variability), including in response to specific work stressors.</p> <p>Viability of biofeedback programmes in the workplace, and analysis of their impact on biomarkers.</p>
Body	<p>EI lessens health-risk behaviours (Lana, Baizán, Faya-Ornia, & López, 2015).</p> <p>EI associated with health-related quality of life (Gourzoulidis et al., 2014).</p>	<p>Impact of mindfulness and EI on health-related work behaviours (e.g., adaptive use of the body, or avoidance of risk).</p> <p>Association between mindfulness and take-up of work-based health initiatives (e.g., exercise programmes).</p>

Table 6: Examples of current and future socio-cultural research (pertaining to managing emotions)

Level	Existing research	Future research
Microsystem	Loving-kindness meditation enhances workplace relationships (Fredrickson et al., 2008). ‘Hopeful’ leaders engender emotional resilience (Norman, Luthans, & Luthans, 2005).	The impact of MBI and EI interventions on communication patterns among co-workers. The impact of resilience interventions on team performance. The association between social capital and employee resilience.
Mesosystem	EI skills mitigate work-life conflict (Lenaghan, Buda, & Eisner, 2007). EI skills enhance bonding between teams (Ajay & Akhilesh, 2007).	The impact of MBIs on work-life conflict. The impact of EI training on inter-department co-operation.
Exosystem	Social network analysis of the quality of network ties (Cross et al., 2002). Organisation-wide implementation of MBIs (e.g., Lancashire Care NHS Foundation Trust, 2015).	Organisation-level (e.g., entire NHS) RCTs of the impact of MBIs on health, wellbeing, and performance-related outcomes. Impact of systemic processes (e.g., mechanisms for inter-departmental interaction) on employee resilience and PsyCap.
Macrosystem	National data on subjective wellbeing (ONS, 2011). Wellbeing-driven policy initiatives (Bache & Reardon, 2013).	Assessment of the impact of national guidelines on the use of ME training (e.g., MBI) in workplaces. Surveys of the current state of emotion-based training offered by employers nationwide.
Ecosystem	The impact of mindfulness on ecological awareness (Jacob, Jovic, & Brinkerhoff, 2009). The wellbeing value of connection to nature (Gesler, 1992).	The impact of EI on pro-environmental behaviour among employees and by the organisation as a whole. The impact of ‘mindfulness of nature’ interventions on environmental attitudes and behaviour.