SUSTAINABLE WELL-BEING AT WORK: A REVIEW AND REFORMULATION

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One of the main goals of work and organizational psychology is to promote the well-being and performance of employees. Nevertheless, the yoke of the current economic crisis tyrannizes this aim, mercilessly threatening the sustainability of the well-being and performance achieved in previous decades. The decrease in one of these factors may hamper the other, resulting in a vicious circle. In this context, one of the biggest challenges faced by organizational psychologists is to reverse this trend in a virtuous cycle, where promoting high levels of well-being creates a performance improvement and vice-versa, in a “sustainable well-being-productivity synergy sustainable productivity and well-being synergy”. However, previous efforts have shown inconclusive results. We argue that the neglectfulness and lack of rigorosity of the most contemporaneous conceptualizations of well-being and job performance, as common praxis, are part of the reason for these disappointing results. The aim of the present paper is to provide a review of the contributions and efforts to the new reformulation of the concept of well-being and productivity. It also aims to integrate the most contemporaneous concepts of well-being and job performance, revisiting the “happy productive-worker thesis”, and using as framework Fredrickson’s broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions, where the suitability and sustainability of the alternative models of “unhappy-productive worker” and “happy-unproductive worker” will be discussed.

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The deterioration of psychological well-being has important consequences in economic terms (Robertson & Cooper, 2010). Its cost has been estimated at 3.8 billion pounds per year in the UK (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2007), and over 300 million dollars for U.S. industry, due to the decrease in productivity, among other causes (Rosch, 2001). Even worse, the current economic crisis is causing indiscriminate cost-cutting, threatening the sustainability of the well-being and performance achieved in previous decades. Globally, interest is growing in evaluating and monitoring well-being (Diener & Seligman, 2004), also in regard to the well-being of workers (Robertson & Cooper, 2010). Indeed, one of the classic goals of organizational psychology is to promote more humane and productive organizations. The synergy between these elements is essential, because if only one of these factors is promoted it can create the embryo of a vicious circle. In the current crisis,
the main challenge for organizational psychologists is to reverse the trend to cut costs indiscriminately, because if the quality of working life deteriorates, it can trigger a vicious cycle that impairs productivity. The synergy between these two factors is what we call the “sustainable well-being-productivity synergy” (SWPS). However, previous studies have obtained inconclusive results in regard to this relationship, due to certain limitations. Firstly, its focus has been primarily limited to hedonic constructs of workplace well-being and positive affect. At present, there are many different eudemonic constructs of well-being that are of interest, such as purpose in life and personal growth. Secondly, due to a lack of attention to different types of job performance (Taris, Schreurs, Eikmans & van Riet, 2008), more heuristic frameworks of individual performance at work are being considered, that include not only task performance, but also contextual and creative performance. Thirdly, research is emerging that studies the “anomalous” combinations (low well-being and low job performance, low well-being and high job performance, and high well-being and low job performance).

Our approach points out that the results regarding the relationship between well-being and productivity of workers are inconclusive due to a limited conceptualization of the elements considered when studying the “happy and productive worker thesis.” In fact, different authors have raised the question whether, when testing this thesis, well-being and productivity at work are correctly operationalized (e.g., Quick & Quick, 2004). The objective of this study is to elaborate the concept of sustainable well-being-productivity synergy (SWPS), from a new comprehensive reformulation of the concepts of well-being and performance at work. To do this, we revisit the “happy and productive worker thesis” and relate it to the “broaden-and-build theory” of Fredrickson (2001). In the first part of the work, the main conceptualizations of well-being are reviewed. In the second part, these conceptualizations are used to ascertain how well-being at work has been studied. In the third part, we present a systematic review of job performance and the emerging importance of creativity and innovation. In the fourth part, the studies linking well-being and performance at work are reviewed, emphasizing the lack of conceptual agreement.

In addition, the lack of attention to alternative models such as the “happy and unproductive worker” and the “unhappy and productive worker” is discussed. Finally, some conclusions and implications for future studies are provided. This approach has theoretical relevance and practical implications. Rethinking the relationship between performance and well-being and their possible synergies is one of the most important challenges that can contribute to the improvement of productivity and a way out of the crisis and it is essential in promoting sustainable and competitive workplaces.

CONCEPT OF WELL-BEING

The conceptualization of well-being has basically emerged from two relevant philosophical traditions: hedonism and eudemonia.

Hedonic well-being

This is the predominant narrative of well-being, or at least it has been for the last two decades (Culbertson, Fullagar, & Milis, 2010). One of the most accepted ways to define this well-being is in terms of the achievement of pleasure and the avoidance of pain (Ryan & Deci, 2001). This poses several challenges. Normally it is inconceivable that painful things can be pleasurable (Rudebush, 1999). The most common formula for operationalizing hedonic well-being is based on affective and subjective well-being. Affective well-being refers to the frequent experience of positive affect and the rare experience of negative affect (Diener & Larsen, 1993). However, Warr (1990) conceives affective well-being as both, a broad construct that extends to life as a whole (context-free), and as a midrange construct referring to a specific segment of life (known as “domain-specific”). Improvements in measurement tools have highlighted the relevance of affective well-being in research. However, its importance is also explained by its relation to mental health. For example, Warr (2013) identifies five components of mental health: affective well-being, competence, aspiration, autonomy and integrated functioning, identifying affective well-being as a central component (De Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998).

Subjective well-being (SWB) refers to the cognitive and emotional evaluations that people make about their lives, in terms of general satisfaction, mood, completeness and satisfaction with specific domains, such as marriage and work (Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003). Subjective well-being consists of three major constructs: positive affect, absence of negative affect (affective well-being) and life satisfaction (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). In practical terms, subjective well-being refers to the “people’s evaluations of their lives” (Diener, 2000, p.34). Affect refers to experiences that are “primitive, universal and simple (irreducible on the mental plane)” (Russell, 2003, p. 148), “they occur throughout waking life as components of emotions, moods, values, attitudes, orientations, prejudices and ideologies, and are central to well-being in any setting” (Warr, 2013, p.4). Life satisfaction is understood as “the standards of the respondent to determine what is a good life” (Diener, 1984, p. 543). Its relevance is justified, for example, by the notion that well-being transcends and goes beyond economic prosperity and its indicators (Diener & Seligman, 2004), and the fact that people evaluate the conditions surrounding them differently according to their own personal background, values and expectations (Diener et al., 1999). However, Warr (2013) indicates that, etymologically, satisfaction means that something
is enough, but not exceptional. Authors such as Ryff (1989) have challenged the conceptualizations and operationalizations of hedonic well-being based on operational definitions of subjective well-being and have directed research on well-being towards the eudemonic approach.

**Eudemonic well-being**

Hahn, Frese, Binnewies and Schimth (2012), following Ryan et al. (2001), conceptualize eudemonic well-being as an individual’s full level of functioning. Waterman (2008) defines it as a person’s sense of fulfilling their potential. However, Ryff (1989) highlights the absence of a theory when the concept of happiness, resulting from an inappropriate translation of the term “eudemonia” and inadequate operationalizations of happiness (as subjective well-being), is used to define the structure of well-being. This lack of theory has led to the omission of important aspects such as positive functioning. Confronting these theoretical gaps and based on the philosophical assumptions of the concept of eudemonia, Ryff (1989) defines well-being as “an ideal in the sense of excellence, and perfection toward which one strives, and it gives meaning and direction to one’s life” (p. 1070). This opens a new window of research on well-being, based on the framework of positive functioning. This serves as a theoretical framework to generate a more parsimonious and innovative multidimensional model of well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995), which reformulates previous theoretical frameworks (e.g., Erikson, 1959; Wilson, 1967), to establish a new structure of well-being. Ryff’s model (1989) includes six elements in this positive functioning: (a) self-acceptance, (b) positive relations with others, (c) autonomy, (d) environmental mastery, (e) purpose in life, and (f) personal growth. Recently, Ryff (2013) has noted that purpose in life and personal growth are the most relevant, arguing that they are “the two most existential and humanistic scales[…], represent new scientific territory” (private communication from the author). For Ryff (1989), the six elements define theoretically and operationally what she calls “psychological well-being”, however, some authors differ from this idea. Daniels (2000), Robertson and Cooper, (2010), Ryan and Deci (2001) and Warr (2013) indicate that psychological well-being goes beyond the six (eudemonic) elements of positive functioning and they include aspects of hedonic well-being, such as affective or subjective well-being. Specifically Warr (2013) suggests that “an adequate conceptual definition of psychological well-being must extend to cover a wide range of elements” (p. 3). Wright, Cropanzano and Bonett (2007) mention that psychological well-being has typically been defined as “the overall effectiveness of an individual’s psychological functioning” (p. 95, in Wright, 2005). From this, two conclusions can be drawn. First, that psychological well-being can be considered a general concept in psychology. Second, many authors call for a principle of integration to conceive well-being in psychology in its eudemonic and hedonic aspects. But, how can we explain the connection between elements that are phenomenologically different?

**Hedonic and eudemonic well-being**

Some researchers have explored the relationship between hedonic and eudemonic well-being through factor analysis (e.g., Keyes, Shmotkin & Ryff, 2002; Linley, Maltby, Madera, Osborne & Hurling, 2009), obtaining a mean correlation around .70 and proposing a two-factor structure of well-being. However, other studies have questioned this structure (e.g., Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, & King, 2008), arguing the lack of empirical evidence and suggesting that the philosophical concept of eudemonia has not been properly defined, for example, as it conceives well-being based on the six elements of positive functioning by Ryff (1989). In response to these contradictions, Kashdan, Biswas-Diener and King (2008) propose that we refer to the specific constructs rather than reducing them to overly generic terms. For example, these authors recommend referring to autonomy rather than eudemonic well-being, and to life satisfaction rather than hedonic well-being.

Regardless of whether or not well-being has a two-factor structure, what both approaches have in common is the assumption that hedonic and eudemonic elements are part of the same overall structure of well-being, and are interrelated. In this line it is possible to consider the relationship between the affective and cognitive components of well-being. Some authors (e.g., Peterson, Park, & Seligman, 2005), influenced by new theoretical frameworks that attempt to explain the relationships between these constructs (e.g., “the broaden-and-build theory” of Fredrickson, 2001), have argued that the hedonic components, such as life satisfaction, predict the eudemonic-cognitive elements related to short and long term goal-setting (e.g., purpose in life).

The “broaden-and-build” theory of Fredrickson (2001), argues that all positive emotions, even if phenomenologically different, share the ability to broaden people’s attention, cognition and action, and also the ability to build physical, intellectual, social and psychological resources (e.g., psychological resilience). There is empirical evidence to support the effect of “broaden-and-build” of positive emotions (Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, & Larkin, 2001), suggesting that these emotions (such as love and gratitude) broaden cognitions, such as long-term plans and goals, and help people to cope in times of crisis, such as the terrorist attacks on the United States in 2001. Empirical evidence also indicates that the effect of “broaden-and-build” of positive emotions becomes a virtuous spiral which improves hedonic well-being (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). Therefore, the theory of “broaden-and-build” strengthens the principle of an
integration of well-being, linking the eudemonic and hedonic components. The positive emotions of hedonic well-being (e.g., optimism) seem to expand the repertoires of attention and action of eudemonic well-being (e.g., goal setting), forming a positive and iterative spiral between hedonic and eudemonic well-being.

Clearly, the study of well-being is moving towards being a multidimensional structure, integrating hedonic and eudemonic well-being; and psychological well-being is probably the most comprehensive term that integrates the two, the study of their intersections being an important topic on the current research agenda. In the next section, we analyze how well-being has been conceptualized in the organizational and work context, pointing out the deficiencies and limitations of research and also its challenges.

Well-being at work
Well-being at work also requires a rigorous conceptualization that considers the developments of research on general well-being. Most of the research on well-being at work has focused on the hedonic components. In addition, researchers have paid attention to different constructs such as job satisfaction or positive emotions, and it is difficult to find studies with broader conceptualizations. Studies on well-being at work show a lack of consensus on the definition of this construct. For example, Baptiste (2009) defines it in terms of material conditions and experiences at work, while Schulte and Vainio (2010) describe it in terms of flourishing. The last comprehensive review of hedonic and eudemonic approaches in the world of work was carried out by Danna and Griffin in 1999. Thus, we have reviewed the empirical studies published in the last five years that incorporate multiple conceptualizations of well-being at work. We conducted searches with the PsycINFO database using the key words “well-being” and “work” in the title, selecting 39 studies relevant to the organizational context. In many of them (13 studies), “employee well-being” or “well-being at work” were the most common ways of conceiving well-being (e.g., Sant’Anna, Paschoal, & Gosendo, 2012; Santos, Hayward, & Ramos, 2012). It appears that under this label, the authors feel comfortable and do not go into detail of the complexity of the constructs, for example, mentioning whether they are referring to affective aspects or eudemonic components. The second most common form of labeling well-being at work was “psychological well-being” (12 studies) (e.g., Burke, Kayunku, & Wolpin, 2012), in which only one conceptualized well-being at work, integrating constructs such as distress and Ryff’s six elements of positive functioning (Moen, Kelly, & Lam, 2013). We also analyzed how these constructs were measured and operationalized. Affective well-being, health and stress, respectively, were the most common ways to measure well-being at work (e.g., Burke & El-Kot, 2011; Niks, de Jonge, Gevers, & Houtman, 2013; Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Bobko, 2012). The results of this analysis show the relevance of the concept of psychological well-being in the research on well-being at work, but the use of this construct is more a reflection of a “tag” than a truly integrated consideration of the construct. Studies on hedonic well-being use operational definitions, referring to “specific domains” of job satisfaction such as job characteristics. Meanwhile, studies on eudemonic well-being use definitions that are more “context-free”. Many authors conceive psychological well-being as an integrating construct; however, there is discrepancy when it comes to identifying the key elements or indicators of this psychological well-being. For example, for Daniels (2000), affective well-being is the most important indicator, ahead of full functioning or life satisfaction. In this line, Wright, Cropaanzano and Bonett (2007) indicate that “psychological well-being is primarily an affective or emotional experience” (p. 95). Thus, psychological well-being does not consider the integration of its constituent elements; a traditional use of the hedonic aspects prevails in its study. In psychology in general, studies on well-being are progressing in the integration of constructs, combining pleasure and engagement (Diener & Seligman, 2004). In work psychology, some recent theoretical (Robertson et al., 2010) and empirical studies (Culbertson, Fullagar, & Mills, 2010; Hahn et al., 2012), are also moving in the direction of integrating the hedonic and eudemonic components.

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF JOB PERFORMANCE
One of the most studied constructs in relation to well-being at work, is job performance. The combined analysis of the two factors is particularly necessary since the deterioration of either of them may hinder the other, generating a vicious circle with medium-term negative consequences. Ford, Cerasoli, Higgins, and Deesare (2011), inspired by Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997), understand job performance as “a function of a person’s behaviour and the extent to which that behavior helps an organization to reach its goals” (p. 187). There is considerable debate about what constitutes work performance. Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Schaufeli, de Vet, and van der Beek (2011) conducted a systematic review based on 58 studies to provide a heuristic framework of individual work performance, integrating different approaches. The similarities observed in the different frameworks allowed the authors to distinguish three broad dimensions of performance: 1) task performance, intrinsically related to the activities included in the job description, (e.g. the ability to carry out specific tasks successfully); 2) contextual performance, related to behaviors that are not directly related to the activities included in the job description and which contribute indirectly to performance (e.g., creating a good climate), and 3) counterproductive work behaviors, including behaviors such as absenteeism, theft and substance abuse. The
Behavior of organizational citizenship is also mentioned (despite its overlap with the definitions of contextual performance) or helping others at work in the social and psychological context, promoting task performance (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Furthermore, Koopmans et al., (2011) point to adaptive behaviors as another dimension of job performance, defined as an individual's ability to adapt to changes in the systems and functions at work (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). Creativity (Oldham & Cummings, 1996) and innovation (Länsisalmi, Kivimäki, & Elovaara, 2004) are other important aspects of job performance. The difference between these last two, is whether the innovative ideas, products, or procedures, are successful when implemented individually (creative performance) or at the organizational level (organizational innovation).

**REVISITING THE “HAPPY AND PRODUCTIVE WORKER THESIS”**

As indicated by Hosie, Sevastos, and Cooper (2007), “few conundrums have captured and held the imagination of organizational researchers and practitioners as the happy-productive worker thesis” (p. 151). It is thought that happy people are more productive (Diener, 2000) and this is the main assumption of this thesis, considered the “Holy Grail” of management research (Wright, Cropanzano, & Bonett, 2007). It is assumed that, in equal conditions, “happy” workers should have better performance than “less happy” ones (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Wright et al., 2007.) This thesis has produced a series of studies (e.g., Baptiste, 2008; Schulte & Vainio, 2010; Taris et al., 2009), however, the results are ambiguous and inconclusive (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000; Wright et al., 2007). Four limitations of these studies should be noted that explain in part the ambiguity of the results found: 1) a focus on hedonic constructs of well-being, 2) little attention paid to the “other aspect” i.e., job performance, 3) bias, due to placing more attention on the results that confirm this thesis and paying little attention to “anomalous” ones, and 4) revisits of this thesis that do not consider its expansion to the eudemonic constructs of well-being. We shall now examine each of these points in some detail. First, a hedonic approach to well-being prevails, with a clear predominance of job satisfaction (Lies, Schwind, & Heller, 2007). Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) define job satisfaction as “an evaluative state that express contentment with and positive feelings about one’s job (p.343)”. Studies and meta-analytic data have found relationships that are spurious (Bowling, 2007), weak (Laffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985), and moderate but significant between performance and job satisfaction (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Some authors have questioned the appropriateness of setting aside the affective constructs (Brief & Robertson, 1989), proposing affective well-being as the most appropriate way to test this thesis (Wright et al., 2000). Thus, affective well-being has been studied as a state (Wright & Staw, 1999; Hosie, Sevastos, & Cooper, 2007) and as a trait (Hosie & Sevastos, 2009; Wright et al., 2002.) In both cases, the results have been mixed. Secondly, there has been little attention to the operationalization of performance, with very heterogamous measures such as the facilitation of work, the emphasis on goals, support and team building (Wright, Cropanzano, Denney, & Moline, 2002) the overall performance appraisal by the supervisor (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000), customer satisfaction, financial productivity, personnel costs and organizational efficiency (Tarsh & Schreurs, 2009). Several authors suggest defining job performance based on broader theoretical frameworks such as that proposed by Koopmans et al., (2011), with the aim of mitigating error sources, and in an attempt to find relationships between performance and satisfaction at work (Hosie & Sevastos, 2009). Thirdly, we find a bias towards exploring particularly the “bright” side of this thesis (happy and productive), disregarding the “dark” side (unhappy and unproductive, happy and unproductive or unhappy and productive) and its impact for organizations or individuals. For example, recently difficulty remembering information and poor task performance have been associated as negative consequences of being “happy” at work (Baron, Hmieleski, & Henry, 2012), and there have also been studies on the benefits of negative affect on creative performance (Bledow, Rising, & Fresé, 2013). Finally, valuable studies have revisited the thesis of the happy and productive worker, exploring the possibility of extending it conceptually in terms of affect (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001), or studying alternative relationships between satisfaction and performance at work, proposing affect as a moderating variable (Wright, Cropanzano, & Bonett, 2007), or extending the calibrations of the measures of affective well-being to evaluate it as a state and as a trait (Zelinski, Murphy, & Jenkins, 2008). However, this thesis has not been extended to consider key constructs corresponding to the other side of well-being, i.e., eudemonic constructs such as personal growth. The only exception is the work presented by Hosie and Sevastos (2010), although here again, the focus remains on affective well-being.

In order to overcome these limitations, in this paper we propose the concept of a “sustainable well-being-productivity synergy” as a crucial element to address, in a more inclusive and productive way, the study of the “happy and productive worker thesis”. This well-being has to contemplate hedonic and eudemonic constructs, along with a more elaborate and comprehensive conceptualization of job performance. It is also necessary to analyze both the “antagonistic” and the synergistic relationships of well-being and performance.
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<tr>
<td>Wright, Cropanzano &amp; Bonett, 2007</td>
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SUSTAINABLE WELL-BEING-PRODUCTIVITY SYNERGY (SWPS)

Based on the documentation analyzed in this work, we understand SWPS as the long-term promotion, and maintenance of the synergy of happy workers who display high levels of job performance, making organizations more competitive. Operationally, SWPS can be represented by job satisfaction, affective well-being, purpose in life and personal growth, together with high levels of contextual and creative task performance. Thus, the most distinctive feature of this concept is its sustainability (synergy), which can be viewed from two perspectives: as a continuing symbiosis between well-being and good economic performance. Thus, it is possible to identify four types in the interaction between well-being and performance at work: 1) unhappy and unproductive workers, 2) happy and unproductive workers, 3) unhappy and productive workers, and 4) happy and productive workers.

The four combinations of well-being and performance at work are represented graphically in Figure 1. The first quadrant (A) represents low levels of both variables, where we find possible examples of vicious circles, where a decrease in well-being can cause a decrease in performance. Quadrants B and C represent interactions of tension; high levels of one variable and low levels of the other one. The last quadrant (D) represents a balanced interaction, where both variables reach a high level, representing the existence of SWPS. This synergy represents a bridge between hedonic and eudemonic well-being, based on the theory of broaden-and-build (Fredrickson, 2001), and the “happy and productive worker thesis”, which establishes links between (hedonic and eudemonic) well-being and job performance.

CONCLUSIONS

In this review, we have proposed that the ambiguous results in reference to the happy and productive worker theory are due in part to the lack of rigor in defining well-being and job performance. As a potential contribution, we have provided a review and reformulation of the thesis, which has great potential for analyzing different interactions among the proposed variables. Now future research is required to test SWPS, systematically, contemplating different antecedents and results. To do this, it will be necessary to identify, for example, the operationalizations that are most suitable for each of the relevant variables and statistical analyses when analyzing the relationships between various dependent and independent variables. Previous studies, such as Hosie and Sevastos (2009), have used statistical techniques such as canonical correlation analysis to study these relationships. In our case, we must consider that the criterion variable is the interaction between the two constructs. In this regard, studies such as the one by Keyes, Shmotkin, and Ryff (2002), have used techniques such as discriminant analysis and multinomial logistic regressions to analyze the types of interaction among the variables proposed here and their possible antecedents.

We would like to conclude this paper by noting that, since the times of ancient Greece, philosophers such as Aristotle, Eurycles, and Aristippus have been concerned about the concept of “well-being.” Their interpretations continue influencing our work as researchers. However, it is necessary to review what it means to have a virtuous life (Aristotle’s criterion for well-being) today, and how this concept may vary depending on the culture of a society. In this respect there are a growing number of scientific publications that analyze cultural constructs such as individualism or collectivism, and other aspects of well-being (Knoop & Fave, 2013). Constructs of well-being, such as personal growth, may be strongly influenced by our economic and political models. This is indicated by Nafstad, Blakar, Batchway, Bruer, Filukova, and Rand-Hendriksen (2013), who analyze the ideal of self-fulfillment and the importance of personal motivations and desires over collective ones. On the other hand, constructs of well-being such as those proposed by Ryff (1989) have shown to be predictors of health (Ryff, Singer, & Love, 2004), and therein lies its importance.

REFERENCES


Ryff, C., & Keyes, C. (1995). The structure of psychological well-


