CHAPTER FOURTEEN

ORGANIZATIONAL WELLNESS

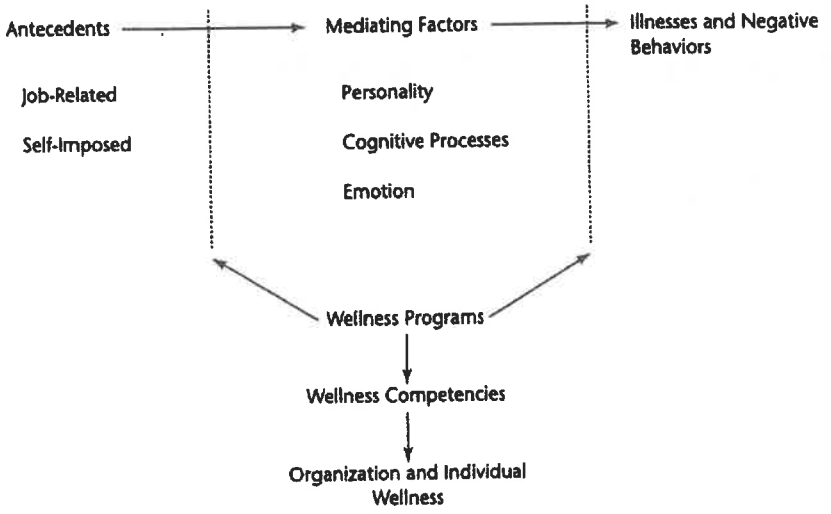
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The workplace is under construction. Globalization, emerging technologies, newfound competition, customer demands, and legal and regulatory changes affect what companies do and how they do it. Strategically, the organization is moving toward an *organic* if not *digital* operational structure, relying on infrastructure and technologies to execute business. All of this happens (or not) because of people.

Organizations react to the endless, complex, global demands facing them. They prosper or decay. Are there human elements to business that accelerate business growth? What occurs *within* people when business demands and human capability do not align? Is health and well-being a by-product of work? The American Stress Institute estimates that $300 billion per year is lost on stress and stress-related illnesses. Are business health and human health on the same continuum? Can an organization foster individual and business wellness for mutual benefit?

Typically, the term *wellness*, when used in a business setting, calls to mind diet and exercise programs. Indeed, such initiatives are worthwhile. This chapter, however, does not limit its use of *wellness* to the typical definition. Instead, we define *wellness* in organizational settings as *the strategic integration of business, interpersonal, and individual needs to optimize overall human and organizational well-being* (see Figure 14.1).

FIGURE 14.1. PROPOSED MODEL OF FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL WELLNESS.



Understanding Wellness in the Business Environment

The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) defines the *healthy organization* as "one whose culture, climate and practices create an environment that promotes employee health and safety as well as organizational effectiveness" (see, for example, NIOSH, 2000). A wellness-focused organization contributes to its employees' physical, mental, spiritual, and social well-being. Such a system provides employees with tools to solve group conflicts maturely, a culture that prevents the release of harmful psychosocial elements, and a set of management practices that in general nurtures quality and management excellence in alignment with overall business strategy and customer demand.

A workplace promoting wellness brings job satisfaction, lower absenteeism and turnover, improved job performance, lower accident rates, and reduced health care and workers' compensation costs. The most important characteristics of a healthy organization are an organizational climate in which employees feel valued and are able to resolve group conflicts, management practices that reward workers for quality work, a sense of equity and support, and a learning-oriented and market-savvy

leadership. Reduced demands for medical services, reduced absenteeism, reduced on-the-job injuries, reduced workers' compensation costs, and reduced disability-management costs are key metrics for health care cost reductions (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services [USDHHS], 2004).

If employers want to set new levels of excellence in the workplace, they need to strive for a holistic approach inclusive of wellness. This can be achieved by embedding healthy workplace goals into management practices. Not only will this nurture healthy relationships with contractors, suppliers, temporary workers, and customers but it will also contribute to building a healthy organizational community and will integrate business execution with employee well-being. It is also key that the workforce members attain *healthy competencies* that contribute to their own, their peers', and the organization's well-being. We propose a focus on *wellness competencies* as part of a leader's or manager's development plan. A wellness competency model brings benefits to the workplace as it places the burden of health development squarely on the individual and requires a supportive organizational context. Exhibit 14.1 defines seven competencies proposed to foster individual, interpersonal, and organizational wellness. These competencies are self-control, optimism, ability to form affiliations, ability to be nurturing, agreeableness, openness to new experiences, and ability to be self-directed. Individuals who have these characteristics, especially leaders, are likely to foster work environments that support wellness.

The Changing Workforce

The Families and Work Institute surveys a representative sample of the U.S. workforce every five years. Sponsored by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, IBM, Johnson & Johnson, and Motorola, the study includes an average 3,500 wage and salaried employees and self-employed workers. Findings from this national study, reported in 2002, illustrate the changing U.S. workforce (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002; see also Bond, Galinsky, & Hill, 2004):

- Dual earner couples increased from 66 percent in 1977 to 78 percent in the year 2002.
- Combined work hours for dual earner couples climbed by 10 hours a week (from 81 hours in 1977 to 91 hours in 2002).
- Fathers reduced time for themselves from 2.1 hours (twenty-five years ago) to 1.3 hours on workdays.
- Mothers reported even less time for themselves: 0.9 hours today versus 1.6 hours in 1977.
- Employees with families reported that work interferes with family life (45 percent today versus 34 percent twenty-five years ago).

EXHIBIT 14.1. WELLNESS COMPETENCIES DEFINED.

1. *Self-control.* The individual consciously monitors personal levels of stress or anxiety so that conscious decisions and actions can be taken to reduce anxiety levels and enhance work performance. She or he exhibits self-control under adversity or strain enabled by intrapsychic or environmental events.
2. *Positivism or optimism.* The individual interprets failures or the confrontation of obstacles in a manner that leads to rejuvenated effort and hope rather than stagnation, inaction, or depression. She identifies opportunities when in crisis and exhibits clarity and realism about the evaluation or meaning of events, without adding incorrect, unrealistic, or inappropriate elements to an event's meaning.
3. *Ability to form affiliations.* The individual has the desire to socialize, assist, or otherwise "be part of" a social unit, team, or organization where goals or objectives are shared and contributions of independent people bring added value to whole.
4. *Ability to be altruistic or nurturing.* The individual has the desire to help or to give for the sake of giving. He has a willingness to make a personal sacrifice for the good of someone else and is able to feel gratification from providing or doing for someone else without receiving any form of acknowledgment.
5. *Agreeableness.* The individual is able to negotiate or accommodate for the sake of progress. She is able to get along with others despite not seeing eye to eye. She is conversational, open, and easy to speak with, regardless of the subject matter or the potential to disagree.
6. *Openness to new experiences.* The individual is driven by curiosity and a willingness to experiment. He asks "why" and "why not" more often than wanting to follow rules. He is appreciative of new solutions, innovations, and possibilities.
7. *Ability to be self-directed.* The individual takes action to assess, plan, and act to make self-improvements or accomplish goals. She is goal-oriented and diligent. She takes deliberate action steps that lead to desired goals. She exhibits intrinsically motivated behavior.

Today the workforce is multicultural. The U.S. workforce is ethnically diverse, with 21 percent of workers being people of color versus 12 percent in 1977. There are almost equal numbers of men and women. The median age of all employees in 1988 was 35.9 rising to 38.7 in 1998 and projected to 40.5 as we approach 2008 (Fullerton, 1999). In 1995, the minority share of the workforce was 24 percent. Minority share of the workforce is projected to reach 32 percent by the year 2020. Hispanics are by far the fastest growing segment of the American workforce growing from 9 percent in 1995 to a projected 14 percent in the year 2020 (Judy & D'Amico, 1997).

Fullerton (1999) informs us that the U.S. population will look older in the years to come. The median age of workers was 35.9 in 1988, rising to 38.7 in

1998, and rising (it is expected) to 40.5 by the year 2008. Bond et al. (2002) states the fact that today only one in three fathers is the sole wage earner. Twenty-five years ago slightly more than one-half of all fathers were the sole wage earners in the family.

Expectations of job longevity have evaporated. Employees expect to be required to relocate and there are increased concerns for job insecurity. Bond et al. (2002) report that merely 36 percent of salaried workers feel secure in their jobs (meaning that they reported it was unlikely that they would lose their jobs within two years). Twenty-five years ago 45 percent of workers felt secure.

Working hours have expanded. Today men work 48.2 hours per week on average, and women 41.4 hours (including part-time employees). Twenty-five percent of workers report working one weekend day per week.

Technology has reinvented communications and personal, interpersonal, and organizational capabilities. Bond et al. (2002) inform us that almost half of all salaried workers are "connected" to work or are contacted on work matters outside the office or during "off" work hours regularly or occasionally.

Sadly, 67 percent of employed parents report a "time famine" (Bond et al., 2002, p. 2), referring to not having the time desired to spend with their children. In 1992, half of salaried workers reported not having enough time to spend with their spouses but today the number has escalated to 63 percent. Finally, 55 percent say they do not have enough time for themselves.

Organizations—and the health care professionals who work both in and with these organizations—need to face these challenges in order to design a workplace that is wellness oriented and effective.

Illnesses and Negative Behaviors at Work

Business requirements too often fail to consider human requirements. A focus on business execution and profitability to the neglect of psychosocial workplace elements is a poor business plan. The following section discusses ramifications (expected and not) of poor management practices on workers.

Behavioral Dysfunctions

Behavioral dysfunction in the workplace may take the form of aggression, hostility, sabotage, theft, violence (assault, stalking, battery, mobbing), and the withholding of output or knowledge (what could be called passive-aggressive behaviors). Passive aggressive-behaviors such as sabotage or theft may have an additional goal of *retaliating* against the employer for real or imagined injustices (Masterson, 2001).

Other dysfunctional behaviors in the workplace are underachievement, temporary production impediments, procrastination, fear of success, fear of failure, work addiction, and hostility or extreme or excessive behaviors. Behavioral dysfunction affects work, resulting in poor job performance and occupational stress and strain.

These aggressive acts are important because they point to employee *perception* as a legitimate territory for reducing health care costs. Further, these nonproductive situations are triggered, exacerbated, or mitigated by the relationship between the individual and the organization.

Behavior at Home Does Not Stay at Home

Abusive behavior that occurs at home may be carried into the workplace. Abusive behavior at home is often *domestic violence,* defined as any assault, battery, sexual assault, sexual battery, or stalking or any criminal offense resulting in physical injury to or the death of one family or household member by another who resides in the same single dwelling unit. Domestic violence can also include aggravated stalking, kidnapping, or false imprisonment. Almost 700,000 incidents of violence between partners were documented in the United States, and thousands more go unreported (The White House, 2002).

Domestic violence often becomes workplace violence in the form of assault, threat, harassment, bullying, emotional abuse, intimidation, battery, and other forms of conduct that create anxiety, fear, and a climate of distrust in the workplace. Assault, aggravated assault, battery, and aggravated battery include such acts as hitting, slapping, choking, burning, or threatening to do harm. Sexual assault and sexual battery include forcing unwanted sexual acts or intercourse and incest. The U.S. Department of Justice estimates that an average of 1.7 million violent victimizations were committed against persons aged twelve older while they were at work or on duty, according to the National Crime Victimization Survey (Duhart, 2001, p. 1).

Violence may be directed at employees by customers, clients, patients, students, inmates, or any others for whom an organization provides services. A present or former employee may foment violence against coworkers, supervisors, or managers. Criminals who are not employees may commit robbery or another crime. Violence may also be committed in the workplace by someone such as an abusive spouse or domestic partner who doesn't work there but who has a personal relationship with an employee (Di Martino & Musri, 2001). Zink and Sill (2004), examining a sample of thirty-two working mothers, found evidence demonstrating that intimate partner violence affects physical and mental health. In addition, intimate partner violence is related to poor job performance, increasing the likelihood of job loss.

Occupational Stress and Job Strain

Job stress can be defined as the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker. According to the American Institute of Stress nearly half of all U.S. workers suffer from symptoms of burnout, a disabling reaction to stress on the job (*Stress*, 2001). Imagined threats affect individuals just as negatively as genuine threats do. Threats can be acute (that is, sudden—such as job loss or fearing job loss) or chronic (loneliness, isolation, relationship problems, financial worries, or incongruent person-work demands).

A number of organizational conditions may lead to occupational stress (NIOSH, 1999), including the design of tasks, heavy workloads, infrequent rest breaks, long work hours, and hectic and routine tasks that have little inherent meaning and provide little sense of control. A lack of participation by workers in decision making, poor communication in the organization, and a lack of family-friendly policies may increase organizational stress. Poor social environments and lack of support or help from coworkers and supervisors, as well as conflicting or uncertain job expectations, too much responsibility, and too many "hats to wear," may increase employees' feelings of stress.

Many employees experience career concerns owing to job insecurity and lack of opportunity for growth, advancement, or promotion. Often they experience rapid changes for which they are unprepared. These increase their feelings of stress. Environmental conditions, including unpleasant or dangerous physical conditions such as crowding, noise, air pollution, or ergonomic problems, can increase feelings of stress.

In general, stress is negatively related to psychological well-being (Schurman & Israel, 1995; Sauter, Murphy, & Hurrell, 1990) and positively related to psychosomatic symptoms and myriad other behavioral and psychological disorders affecting individuals and the organizations that employ them (Bocchino, Hartman, & Foley, 2003; Kenny & Cooper, 2003; Ivancevich, Matteson, Freedman, & Phillips, 1990). Mental disorders associated with occupational stress include anxiety, depression, and other mood disorders, maladaptive behavioral and lifestyle patterns, chemical dependencies, alcohol abuse, and sleep disorders (Israel, Baker, Goldenhar, & Heaney, 1996).

Differences between people, such as personality and copying style differences, are important predictors of stress; that is, what is stressful for one person may not be stressful for another (Benson, 1975; Williams & Williams, 1993). In both Europe and the United States coronary heart disease (CHD) has been linked to job strain when high job demands lead to small rewards or employees have little control over their work (Schat & Kelloway, 2000; Schnall & Landsbergis, 1994;

Theorell & Karasek, 1996). Among the other physical illnesses associated with occupational stress is immune system suppression (Haan, 1988, 1989; Marsland, Cohen, Rabin, & Manuck, 2001; Sauter et al., 1990).

Management practices or styles can reduce stress levels and their correlates by establishing support and by managing in humane ways that are considerate of self-esteem, social status, or the experience of shame (Gruenwald, Kemeny, Aziz, & Fahey, 2004) The only reason organizational stressors are not managed is simply that the concept of management wellness has not (yet) been introduced to the boardroom as a measure of health care cost management or a means of achieving employee health and well-being (Bond et al., 2002).

Antecedents of Workplace Illnesses and Negative Behavior

Factors that influence workplace illnesses and negative behaviors may be job related or self-imposed. Although these factors can be causes of negative reactions, they can also be adjusted or redesigned to be factors that contribute to wellness.

Job-Related Factors

Job-related factors reflect the work itself, organizational or supervisory practices, management control, culture and leadership, and the general human resource strategy.

Work Itself. Work and health are intimately connected, yet the complex association between the multiple features of employment arrangements and workers' health is not well understood. Given the dramatic labor supply and demand changes over the past decade, better identification of the employment characteristics that underlie the health of workers is of profound practical importance. The changing nature of jobs (for example, the shift from manufacturing to services), along with the aging and growing diversity of the workforce, makes workers' health requirements today different from what they were a generation ago. Therefore, in order to protect the health of workers and the health of the corporation, an examination of today's jobs and workers' health is an essential organizational requirement.

Research in occupational psychology has shown that psychological features (for example, decision latitude, demands) and psychosocial features (for example, relationships with coworkers, workplace culture) of workers' jobs promote or undermine health and well-being (see, for example, Israel et al., 1996). Psychosocial environmental stressors (for example, major life events, daily problems, chronic

strains such as work overload, and deadlines) may be modified by variables that are social (for example, social support, control, socioeconomic status), psychological (for example, personality, coping strategies), biophysical (for example, age, sex, health status), behavioral (for example, relaxation skills, exercise, nutrition), or genetic (for example, family history of illnesses). Responses to workplace stress may be short term (for example, psychological reactions, behavioral reactions, physiological reactions) or longer term (for example, depression, coronary heart disease).

The workplace may alter workers' perceptions of their environment (for example, one might interpret solvable problems as catastrophes) and may yield enduring negative health outcomes (for example, poor cardiovascular disease, anxiety disorders, or alcoholism) (Israel et al., 1996; Israel, Schurman, & House, 1989). As one example, it is estimated that the cost of employees' suffering from depression is approximately $17 billion lost workdays per year (U.S. Preventive Services Task Force, 2002). Diamante and Primavera (2005) applied this research to practice by designing a feedback and coaching method that incorporates physiological, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral elements to effect changes in employees' perception of work and life events in order to improve employee self-control and positive health outcomes. These organizational change interventions involved an integration of business and human requirements (Diamante & Hyland, 2004).

Organizational and Supervisory Practices. Negative organizational and supervisory practices can adversely affect employees' wellness. Such actions include discrimination, harassment, and unfair treatment, to name a few. Positive practices can have the opposite effect, supporting and increasing wellness. Formal programs may encourage such practices. These programs can address diversity, networking and mentoring, stress management, employee assistance, and other performance enhancement issues, including continuous learning at all organizational levels. To support these programs, it is important that organizations begin to differentiate themselves not only in terms of their product offerings, separating what they offer to consumers from what competitors produce, but also in terms of their attention, care, and management of employees. Methods that supervisors can employ to increase employee wellness include providing job autonomy, creating learning opportunities, recognizing employees' successes, involving employees in decision making, and allowing flexibility in work hours.

Management Control. Today's dynamic world is witnessing an evolution to *organic* forms of organizations. These organic forms are self-organizing and rely on self-managed teams and intricately networked technological and social systems to be more responsive and adaptable to customer or client and employee demands

than more rigid organizations are. In fact, these organic forms are so responsive and adaptable that many people react strongly against the term *management control* in this context because they think it sounds dominating, coercive, and heavy-handed; traditional control is thought to slow the speed of the networked and *learning* organization (Senge, 1994). Fast, cheap, and efficient are genuine descriptions of business execution, and managers who cannot get work done this way will not prosper. This organizational environment establishes new requirements for how employees think, work, and feel on the job.

Certainly, organizations, particularly businesses, are not going to stop the digital clock. Speed, functionality, and the call for "personalization" for customers and "tailoring" to clients are setting extreme demands on organizational capabilities. Today customers and clients want what they want, when they want it, and delivered on whatever device they prefer (or delivered in whatever manner they prefer). This sets new requirements on organizations and places new demands on the people who work in them.

Typical practices or tasks of a supervisor include carrying out basic management skills (decision making, problem solving, planning, delegating, and meeting management), organizing his or her department and teams, noticing the need for and designing new job roles in the group, hiring new employees, training new employees, conducting employee performance management (setting goals, observing, and giving feedback; addressing performance issues; firing employees; and so forth), and conforming to personnel policies and other internal and external regulations. These are challenging times for managers, who must deliver services and execute their functions in an increasingly complex, rapidly changing, and often-threatening global business environment. Managers are faced with shifting political, social, and economic conditions, as well as rapid technological developments and growing volumes of information.

Managers know that they need to address these changes head-on, adopting creative approaches and acquiring new skills. All levels of management are responsible for regularly communicating and interpreting business strategies and their implications for employees. In addition, managers must demonstrate support for continuous learning, respect individual needs and differences, and provide timely and supportive feedback.

Culture and Leadership. An organizational culture is the result of the values, beliefs, underlying assumptions, attitudes, and behaviors shared by the employees. Cultures arise from the employees' languages, symbols, stories, legends, and daily work practices (Schein, 2004). Leadership is determination, courage, confidence, and the ability to view a situation and respond to it. A globally competitive organization

requires teamwork, collaboration, speed, learning environments, and the creation of an organizational culture that encourages expansiveness. Leadership today means continuous learning and growth of the organization and its capability.

The expansiveness of today's organizations requires new leadership behaviors. These behaviors should be directed at both pressing the organization to conquer markets in new ways while simultaneously working inside the organization to address the needs, values, and interpersonal relationships necessary for the organization to prosper (Diamante & London, 2002).

Autonomy and Job Design. Job design is the process by which managers plan and specify job tasks and the work arrangement through which these tasks are accomplished. Job design also involves the design of individual tasks in ways that make them more "fitting" to the company and to the employees, affecting employees' motivation and satisfaction in the workplace.

Among the various job design approaches are (1) job simplification; (2) job enlargement, which includes combining tasks to give a worker more of the same type of duties to perform; (3) job rotation, which involves moving workers through several jobs to increase experience and variety; and (4) job enrichment, which includes altering jobs by giving workers more autonomy and control over their own activities. These several techniques try to minimize the adverse consequences of task specialization, which include feelings of alienation, dissatisfaction, and lack of job involvement.

The best job design technique is the one that meets organizational requirements for high performance, offers a good fit with individual skills and needs, and provides opportunities for job satisfaction and employees' autonomy over their decision-making processes. For purposes of job satisfaction and wellness, the job enrichment technique is likely the most effective. Along with organizational support, proper design brings enormous motivational and performance benefits to individuals and work teams (Hackman, 2003). Autonomy and control are perceived as health enhancing.

Self-Imposed Factors

The fit between personal values and organizational mission, the ability to express oneself at work, and self-management will affect an individual's wellness. Making sense out of one's work environment is a complicated matter implicating perception, personality, thinking styles, and learning experiences.

Personal Values–Organizational Mission Fit. Mission is the purpose, value, or belief that is most meaningful to the company. It is also thought of as the purpose

or reason for the organization's existence. Personal values are made up of the beliefs, missions, or philosophies that are meaningful to a person. Every individual has a number of personal values. The best way to create wellness is to have a match between key employees' personal values and the organization's mission or value. A mismatch will generate dysfunctional behaviors in the workplace, poor job performance, job dissatisfaction, stress, and other factors adverse to wellness.

Congruency between personal values and organizational mission will serve the best interests of shareholders, customers or clients, and employees. The organization's product offering or service reflects the values, practices, and culture of the company. There are many companies and they have varying missions (products or services), but in each of them congruency between the mission and management is key to organizational wellness (Bocchino et al., 2003). The organizational challenge, it appears, is to develop a goal commitment process that leads to high levels of acceptance (congruity) or an internalization of goals. The alignment of the product or service offering, customer or client expectations, management practices, and overall culture is the secret sauce for sustaining a competitive advantage.

Expressing the Self at Work. Every leader, manager, and supervisor has to learn the importance of communication and have a willingness to listen to what employees have to say. A culture that allows employees to "be themselves" is an enabling environment that reduces stress and strain. Organizational cultures that strategically enhance the opportunities to improve the fit between the employees and the organization benefit in terms of increased employee morale, lower strain, and potentially, increased overall effectiveness. Person-organization congruence can be improved through strategic planning, healthy dialogue, and conflict management (Bocchino et al., 2003). Self-expression, or emotional expression, is correlated with positive health effects (Sheese, Brown, & Graziano, 2003).

A workplace environment that honors diversity (particularly for populations such as newcomers who are at risk for slipping into the margins), seeks divergent ideas, allows room for respectful disagreement, and fosters continuous improvement nurtures human development and encourages altruism, autonomy, and thoughtful reflection. These elements breed healthy work cultures (Srivastva, Cooperrider, & Associates, 1990; Ivancevich & Lidwell, 2004).

Employee Physical Health. Science is discovering powerful connections between people's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Benson, 1975, 1984) in the placebo effect (expectations), personal beliefs, perceptions, sense of personal control, thinking styles, and proclivities toward being optimistic or pessimistic in attributing causes for failures or other events (Benson, 1984; Mailoo & Williams, 2004). When employees experience misalignment between their biopsychosocial and spiritual makeup and the

external demands of the workplace and when this lack of fit leads to physical, mental, and behavioral problems, the costs to a business can be severe. Human organizations must wake up to the challenge of integrating the demands of business and people.

Programs or approaches to improve fit can include involving employees in community work, arranging sabbaticals in the workplace (where the manager spends time and effort with charitable organizations or university research on behalf of the employer), and personalizing the workplace to make everyone working there feel at home.

Mediating Factors

Job-related and self-imposed factors may affect the employees' and the organization's wellness. Mediators of the relationship between these antecedents and wellness include personality, cognitive, and emotional factors.

Personality Factors and Types

Personality variables such as having a tolerance for ambiguity, resilience, and hardiness, as well as whether a person is a type A or type B personality, will affect how a person reacts to difficult job situations.

Tolerance for Ambiguity. Tolerance for ambiguity is the ability to tolerate uncertainty. Intolerance for ambiguity has been associated with a number of anxiety-related problems, including worry, obsessions and compulsions, and panic sensations (Budner, 1962; Furnham & Ribchester, 1995; Kahn & Byosier, 1992). Organizational change demands the capacity to tolerate ambiguity. Many if not most businesses are experiencing the need to adapt their structures, their operations, and even their products and sevices to remain competitive. This affects what people do, and the ways they function are placed in a state of flux. Management "controls" this process, and so managing ambiguity becomes a new imperative for business managers.

Resilience. Collard, Epperheimer, and Saign (1996) inform us that the ability to adapt to changing circumstances, even when the circumstances are discouraging or disruptive, is the core of resilience. Resilience is a person's level of buoyancy, or how easily a person adapts; it is the ability to bounce back even after a "lifequake." It is the quality that enables a person to thrive during times of challenge,

to recover quickly, and creatively turn adversity into advantage. Resilience calls for self-awareness about what one is facing and what one can do about it. A resilient individual is self-sufficient, determined, and harbors a sense that one's destiny is in one's own hands.

The characteristics of those who are career resilient—team-oriented, effective communicators, adaptable to change, holding positive and flexible attitudes, engaging in continuous learning, self-confident, willing to take risks, and committed to personal excellence—are also identified with employability. These characteristics are considered core competencies for jobs in highly networked, ever-changing business organizations (London, 1998a).

Hardiness. Hardiness connotes an ability to influence the situation; it is being committed to or fully engaged in one's activities and having a positive view of change (Rush, Schjoel, & Barnard, 1995). Hardy people are also resilient. Hardiness has also been associated with being open to new experiences, perseverance, innovation, and feelings of well-being (Kobasa, Maddi, Pucetti, & Zola, 1986; Maddi, 1998, 2002; Maddi & Hightower, 1999). Empirical research supports the importance of hardiness as a personality construct. For instance, recent research on military peacekeepers working in Bosnia used a structural equation modeling technique to demonstrate that hardiness improves capability to perform. Hardiness is advantageous to organizations and workers facing severe competition and constantly undergoing change.

Type A and Type B Personalities. The type A and type B labels describe two distinct personality types and behavioral patterns (Friedman & Rosenman, 1974). The characteristics of a type A personality include impatience, hostility, aggressiveness, irritability, impulsiveness, striving for achievement, and time urgency. The type B personality lacks these type A personality characteristics or shows lower levels of competitiveness and aggressiveness and is more easygoing. The type B individual is more relaxed, less competitive, and more patient than the type A individual.

Type A behavioral patterns have been linked to cardiovascular problems in some studies (Friedman & DiMatteo, 1989; Friedman & Rosenman, 1974). Recent evidence suggests that it is the *harboring of hostility,* a core component of the type A pattern, and *not* the type A behavioral pattern per se that leads to cardiovascular disease. Compared with low-hostility individuals, high-hostility individuals are less healthy, experience more anxiety and more interpersonal strain, and gain less social support (Williams & Williams, 1993; Dembroski, MacDougall, Costa, & Grandits, 1999; Hecker, Chesney, Black, & Frautschi, 1988; Smith, Pope, Rhodewalt, & Poulton, 1989; Smith, Haynes, Lazarus, & Pope, 1993).

Cognitive Processes

The cognitive processes that mediate job-related and self-imposed antecedents to wellness include perception of control, past learning, causal attribution, and learned helplessness and its converse, learned optimism.

Perception of Control. Perception refers to our interpretation of what we take in through our senses. The way we perceive our environment is what makes us different from other animals and different from each other. Viewing ourselves as autonomous or as having control over our work or life situation is a *prophylactic* against stress and subsequent physical disorders. Perceived control relates to somatic health, emotional well-being, and possibly the prevention of violence in the workplace (Schat & Kelloway, 2000). The belief that one has mastery over a situation or influence (real or imagined) is linked to more positive emotional states and somatic health (Schat & Kelloway, 2000). Even the *illusion* of benefit in a setting may be associated with the maintenance of psychological well-being (Taylor & Brown, 1988; Thompson, Sobolew-Shubin, Galbraith, Schwankovsky, & Cruzen, 1993).

This research suggests that it is advantageous to afford workers the perception of control—simply put, this might mean enabling workers to adjust their schedules, use technology to get things done, perform tasks on the basis of what works for them, make travel plans that take into account their overall lives. This can bring a sense of autonomy and a perception that one is controlling one's own work life.

Past Learning and Attribution. Past learning and attribution is concerned with how individuals interpret events that affect their current thinking and behavior. Attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why they do what they do, that is, they attribute causes to behavior (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1974, 1986). Attributions are classified along three causal dimensions: locus of control, stability, and controllability (Weiner, 1974). The locus of control dimension has two poles: the locus may be internal or external. The stability dimension captures whether causes change over time or not. Controllability contrasts causes one can control, one's skill or efficacy, for example, with causes one cannot control, such as aptitude, mood, others' actions, and luck. What we learn, how we interpret or create our interpretation of our experiences, affects how we (or whether we) approach new challenges, contributes to our feeling awful or wonderful, and perhaps even plays a role in our physical and psychological well-being.

Continuous learning is a business requirement today. It is critical not only that workers learn but that they learn the right things. Past experiences can lead to learning but this does not ensure that the knowledge acquired is useful or beneficial to the person.

Learned Helplessness Versus Learned Optimism. Learned helplessness exists when individuals believe that their own behavior has no influence on consequent events (Seligman, 1991; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The essential component of learned helplessness is exposure to conditions where response and outcome are independent. The opposite state of mind is self-efficacy, which occurs when people believe they control what happens to them. This is referred to as learned optimism (Seligman, 1991). Seligman (1991) suggests that learned helplessness produces three deficits: (1) an undermining of one's motivation to respond, (2) a retardation of one's ability to learn that responding works, and (3) an emotional disturbance, usually depression or anxiety.

When employees interpret work events (change) as inevitably leading to bad things, they will not continue to try. Management can help employees (and other managers) learn to interpret causes and the meaning of events in healthy, optimistic, resilient ways. Doing this may reduce unnecessary stress and anxiety in the organization and avoid productivity paralysis whenever a new executive or management team emerges (Seligman & Schulman, 1986).

Emotional Factors

Emotion is a powerful component of our being. It compels behavior as a response to external events and in itself *is* a response. Emotion is the connectivity between the world as we know it (or interpret it) and the world that we experience. To the extent that individuals can enhance well-being through self-awareness, emotion plays a key role. Business professionals can incorporate emotional characteristics into their strategies for attracting, selecting, retaining, and motivating human capital.

Hostility and Resentment. Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout (2001) found that disrespect, condescension, and degradation (that is, incivility) were common among 1,180 surveyed public sector employees. Asked about incidences of such behaviors over the past five years, 71 percent reported an incident. By report, 33 percent of the uncivil acts were instigated by leadership (a high-power person). Both men and women were transgressed against although women were more often the target of an uncivil act. Uncivil acts were associated with greater psychological stress for both genders.

Insulting behavior can also be directed toward an individual by virtue of the individual's membership in a group that is subjected to stereotyping and rejection. Corporate efforts to promote inclusion through diversity programs are good examples of attempts to reduce these interpersonal sources of hostility. Diamante, Reid, and Giglio (1995) provide corporate training guidelines for the building of programs that identify deeply rooted, difference-based conflicts in the workplace.

Hostility brings social consequences by thwarting relationships that might serve to support, assist, or otherwise be useful to individuals as they cope with, solve, or resolve problems of work and life. Hostile individuals are not pleasant to be around, and a growing body of evidence suggests that negative emotions and behaviors may themselves be unhealthy (Belkic, Landsbergis, Schnall, & Baker, 2004; Dembroski, MacDougall, Williams, Haney, & Blumenthal, 1985). The linkage between hostility (typically understood as a personality trait) and coronary heart disease is receiving focused attention. Niaura et al. (2002) studied 774 older, unmedicated men free of cardiovascular disease as part of a collaborative research effort at Brown Medical School, Boston University School of Public Health, The Miriam Hospital, Brigham and Women's Hospital, and Harvard Medical School, among others. Tracking these patients for a three-year period the researchers were able to demonstrate the crucial, incremental risk hostility brings over and above the traditional risk factors, such as blood lipid profiles. Niaura et al. (2002) reviewed the literature and inform us that ". . . hostility is an independent psychosocial risk factor for coronary heart disease, hypertension and premature mortality" (p. 588). Although the research is clearly connecting hostility to medical problems, the intensity or "dosage" of the hostility remains ill-defined. It is likely that hostility-prone individuals exacerbate the intensity of the negative emotion—by making the emotion active more often, experiencing the emotion intensely, and failing to counteract its psychophysiologically mediated negative impact on health and well-being. Distinguishing the risks of *hostility* as a personality trait from *harboring* or *experiencing* the emotion for various amounts of time or under various levels of intensity awaits further investigation. Certainly, hostility as a trait is not advantageous to the individual or the business that employs the individual, and experiencing negative emotional states brings negative effects. Emotional support, through social relationships, may buffer any hypothesized effects of anger and hostility on stress (Hawkley, Burleson, Berntson, & Cacioppo, 2003) or coronary heart disease (Uchino, 2004).

The most common sources of resentment among workers in the workplace are inequitable benefit plans, failure to receive rewards to which they feel entitled, and heavy workloads without perceived resources or capabilities. The effort-reward imbalance, when workers perceive high demand and little control, leads to stress and anxiety (Tsutsumi & Kawakami, 2004).

Being resentful (having negative feelings but not expressing them) or harboring hostility (feeling hostile without expressing it) reflects underlying anger. Regardless of cause, anger is the underlying current (Williams & Williams, 1993; Smith et al., 1993). Employees who adopt a negative attitude or engage in hostile actions when they perceive the employment situation to be unfair lose support and make themselves unnecessarily vulnerable to continued performance declines

and most certainly to less social support at work (Lepine & VanDyne, 2001; Pearson, Anderson, & Porath, 2000).

Anger. Anger is the internal emotion expressed by aggressive external behavior, which may be either verbal or physical. This emotion is caused by frustration, hostility, and disturbing actions such as insults, injuries, or threats not coming from a feared source (Williams & Williams, 1993; see also Job Stress Network, 2004). Cynicism, as a behavioral or verbal display of anger, has been found to undermine the positive effects of interpersonal support to reduce or mitigate the effects of anger on coronary heart disease (Lepore, 1995).

Effects of anger include increased blood pressure, muscle tension, scowling, teeth grinding, glaring, clenched fists, chills and shuddering, twitching, choking, flushing or paling, and numbness. Anger, anxiety, and other negative emotional states are accompanied by physiological and behavioral correlates that are counterproductive for performance, teamwork, and overall job involvement (Tavris, 1989; Williams & Williams, 1993). Destructive criticism from a manager can trigger anger and become an organization's recipe for interpersonal (as well as personal) disaster (Baron, 1998).

Workplace Interventions

A number of corporate programs and approaches support wellness and try to alleviate the negative effects of poor job conditions or difficulties that arise from employees themselves (their values, self-expression at work, and physical condition as well as their personality, cognitive processes, and emotions). These corporate efforts include employee assistance programs; diet and exercise programs; networking and mentoring programs; diversity programs; stress management, coaching, and feedback programs; and the use of a *wellness scorecard.* To implement some of these wellness approaches, management may partner with health care professionals who work within the organization or as consultants to it. In addition, these health care professionals may implement Occupational Safety & Health Administration (OSHA) standards for employee safety in the workplace, addressing ergonomics and enforcing accident and injury prevention and reduction interventions. (Readers interested in these topics should see the OSHA Web site [www.osha.gov].)

Employee Assistance Programs

An employee assistance program (EAP) is an *early intervention* strategy involving individual counseling for both work and personal problems (USDHHS, 2004).

Individual counseling assists not only employees but also their families with any personal or work-related difficulties they experience. EAPs were originally established in the late 1970s to deal with alcoholism but today provide an array of private and confidential services, in addition to substance abuse counseling, to deal with finances, stress, spousal relocation assistance, and legal needs and to offer marital and other counseling interventions and referrals (for more information see International Employees Assistance Professionals Association, 2005).

Employee assistance programs are designed to improve the physical and psychological health of a workforce. Financial savings and increased productivity are often claimed among the rewards, but there is little research on this topic in field settings and case studies flood the literature (Klarreich, DiGiuseppe, & DiMattia, 1987). Reviews of EAP research speak to how the stigma associated with such programs reduces their utilization (French, Dunlap, Roman, & Steel, 1997). Where individuals are referred by supervisors, rather than by themselves, the EAP becomes essentially a tool for management control.

Organizations provide EAP programs to reduce the human and financial costs derived from employee absenteeism and lateness for work, poor performance, high turnover, interpersonal frictions, and accidents in the workplace.

EAPs provide

- An independent, confidential, professional general counseling service that is accessible to all employees and their immediate families.
- Awareness briefings, training programs, and other services tailored to meet the needs of the client organization.
- Evaluation, in cooperation with the client organization, of the services provided in order to ensure high-quality services and to obtain data for reports to the client organization.

Employees can access the services of an EAP in three ways:

- Confidential self-referral. Employees call the EAP provider's telephone number confidentially.
- Recommended referral. A supervisor or other manager notices that a subordinate seems to be having problems and encourages the employee to seek assistance through the EAP.
- Mandatory referral. A supervisor or manager identifies work-related behavior that needs to be addressed and requires EAP counseling, to assist in the correction process.

Diet and Exercise Programs

More than thirty-four million Americans are overweight, and despite the population's increasing preoccupation with weight loss, the prevalence of overweight has increased 25 to 33 percent over the past ten years (Smith & McGhan, 1996). Furthermore, obesity leads to heart disease, this nation's number one killer, and to a total disease cost exceeding $39 billion, including $11 billion for diabetes, $22 billion for cardiovascular disease, $2.4 billion for gall bladder disease, and $1.9 billion for breast and colon cancer. These health effects are some of the reasons why organizations should vigorously promote diet and exercise programs.

Organizations implement diet programs by providing cafeterias that offer low-fat choices and that post nutritional information about food selections and by stocking snack machines with fruit and reduced-fat snacks. Companies establish fitness programs for employees by providing in-house gyms and other facilities and exercise equipment and by encouraging physical sports activities. A survey of Fortune 500 companies (with nearly 50 percent of companies responding) indicates that 66 percent have or soon plan to have fitness programs (Hollander & Lengermann, 1988). The most common corporate approach is to offer some form of on-site exercise facilities (rooms set aside for exercise bikes and treadmills) or stretching programs (which commonly take place just prior to the beginning of the workday or during breaks). Unfortunately, due to lack of standardization across programs and little measurement of program outcomes, it has been difficult to systematically capture the number of companies pursuing formal diet and exercise offerings or to estimate their level of success.

Networking and Mentoring Programs

Networking and mentoring are natural ways to deploy support in an organizational setting. Networks designed to increase social support in the workplace may involve employees, supervisors, and customers; participants may communicate through e-mails or one-to-one electronic correspondence, telephone conversations, archival journals and newsletters, professional meetings, paper mail, voice mail, chatting in the hallway, lectures and colloquia, job interviews, visits to other research sites, face-to-face meetings, conferences, seminars, and social events.

Organizations, colleges, and universities may provide mentors who counsel employees to help them grow personally and professionally. Mentoring programs may be one-on-one (one mentor working with one mentee), group based (one mentee working with two or more mentors), or team based (one mentor working with two or more mentees). Although employees have various potential sources

of support in the workplace, including peers, coworkers, and subordinates, the level of trust, openness, and sincerity between mentor and mentee may optimize the prophylactic aspect of this particular supportive relationship. Mentoring programs can also be used to break down cultural barriers, foster diversity-friendly corporate environments, enhance employee commitment, promote teamwork, develop leadership qualities, and cultivate proactivity and creativity (Johnson, 2002). The efficacy of mentoring as a mechanism to promote wellness requires focused attention by researchers and practitioners.

Diversity Programs

Minorities, immigrants, and women constitute more than 50 percent of today's workforce. The United States is more ethnically diverse today than it was thirty years ago (Families and Work Institute, 2002).

Even in a relatively homogeneous society, not everyone is precisely the same. Employees will differ from each other in educational level, age, parental status, nationality, or physical attributes. Organizations look at diversity from both internal and external perspectives. It is particularly advantageous to view diversity from the customer's perspective, identifying and understanding the strategic competitive advantage that may be gained (Diamante et al., 1995). Developing diversity initiatives can therefore not only benefit human relations in the company but also create an advantage in market penetration.

Tactics on how to address diversity in a business context through effective training are available (Aronson, 2002; Diamante et al., 1995). Inclusion is core to diversity programs, coupled with business tactics that address competitive sales, marketing, or operations. Diversity has evolved into a new weapon in the war for the customer.

That said, there is little empirical evidence supporting the efficacy of diversity training. Applied research in this area is challenging due to variances in program characteristics and the elusiveness of outcome measures. Evaluation also requires that organizations allow an outsider to view a social and organizational issue that is volatile and sometimes potentially litigious. The National Study of the Changing Workforce (Families and Work Institute, 2002) conducts research every five years to get the pulse of workforce dynamics. It has found, for example, that men are more accepting of women in the workplace today than at any other time in the past. In 2002, 40 percent of men believed a woman's place is in the home. The job of family work, especially when dual-career couples are studied, falls on women.

The best diversity programs are developed through a partnership of internal employees (a diversity steering committee) and an external subject matter expert

(a diversity consultant and trainer). The better programs have a senior-level advocate or champion in the organization president or CEO and are supported by sound research or experts in the field. In addition, weaving in psychological, social, and information-processing capabilities to evaluate the impact of managing diversity wisely on business outcomes is a distinct advantage to companies with these programs (Diamante et al., 1995).

Stress Management, Coaching, and Feedback Programs

Stress management programs teach workers about the nature and sources of stress, the effects of stress on health, and personal skills to reduce stress. Stress management training may rapidly reduce stress symptoms such as anxiety and sleep disturbances; they also have the advantage of being relatively inexpensive and easy to implement (Ivancevich et al., 1990).

Programs that integrate personal stress management strategies into cultural change initiatives, communications, action planning, and problem solving are likely to be most effective in the long term. Programs such as this are not easily found (or designed) but at times are used to assist with health and wellness and accelerate cultural shifts to support business objectives. Diamante and Hyland (2004), for example, offer one business case where a well-integrated "resilience" seminar was used both to convey the meaning of a shift in business strategy and to support executives in making the shift. The impact of existing stress on executives was measured using Osipow's Occupational Stress Index. The lead author of this chapter, as a consultant, conducted the nationwide series of seminars to senior management and measured the strain from job design or culture characteristics, the presence of psychological and physical ailments, and also the extent to which individuals practiced "healthful" strategies in terms of diet, exercise, cognitive control, and social support. Although not causal, the data from this study indicated that culture change hits management hard and that individual variation reflects differing levels of expertise in self-management under challenging conditions.

Spirituality and Positive Psychology in the Workplace

Spirituality is about meaningfulness in oneself and one's life works, about finding purpose in being. It is a basic feeling of "being connected" to oneself, others, and the entire universe (Mitroff & Denton, 1999; Moyers, 1993). In the workplace, spirituality is enhanced through bereavement programs, the distribution of wellness information, employee assistance programs, work and family balance policies and programs, and authentic corporate communications about business operations, missions, competitive threats, and the future of the company. A goal

of enhancing spirituality also connects the company and its employees to socially responsible initiatives. For instance, companies may give employees paid time off to work on community projects or even to take sabbaticals.

Spirituality in the workplace may foster personal stability, a balance between work and personal life, higher performance expectations, clarification of work's meaning, workforce reduction, less interpersonal conflict, and connections between employees' personal values and those of the organization. When employees embrace or view their work as an expression of themselves and their values, it can unleash previously unrealized potential.

Helping behaviors (work and nonwork related) may confer benefits on both the individual (who may experience more positive affective states) and the organization (which may obtain increased commitment and organizational citizenship) (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Jex, Adams, Bachrach, & Sorenson, 2003). There is some evidence for these observations in the emerging field of *positive psychology*, which investigates the linkages between positive human thoughts, actions, beliefs, and personality and enduring health outcomes (Vaillant, 2000; see Chapter Two). The field of psychoneuroimmunology also connects the less tangible human elements of thoughts, actions, beliefs, and personality to immediate and long-term physical outcomes (Kiecolt-Glaser, McGuire, Robles, & Glaser, 2002). For example, influenza and cold viruses may flourish when the immune system is compromised, affecting business through absenteeism, lateness, and possibly decreased performance on the job.

The benefits of meditation, repetition, relaxation, and reflection are linked to positive emotional states, feelings of euphoria, and possibly immune system health and overall wellness (Benson, 1975, 1984; Maier & Laudenslager, 1985). These elements can be folded into seminars, expanding possibilities for the organization's operations and the people that make them happen. Clearly, programs bringing spirituality, a sense of personal and organizational meaningfulness that transcends mere job expectations, to the workplace are ripe for research.

Mediation and Litigation Consulting

It has been said that conflict is not negative. It is simply a natural part of living. Conflict exists between organizations, between organizations and employees, between employees, and between organizations or employees and customers. Mediation, along with arbitration, the shadow trial, the settlement conference, a private judge or ruling, and the mock jury trial, are forms of alternative dispute resolution (ADR) mechanisms to resolve conflicts that avoid costly litigation. Mediation is a voluntary, confidential, nonnegotiation process in which a neutral third

party, chosen by both sides, helps both to reach a mutually satisfactory agreement. Unlike litigation, mediation is not adversarial. A mediator will try to find common grounds on which an agreement can be based. Therefore the process tends to reduce antagonism between the parties and allows them to resume their former relationships (Clarkson, Miller, Jentz, & Cross, 2003).

ADRs exist to save time and money, to protect the parties' image and morale, to avoid litigation expenses and time-consuming trials (the process of pretrial conferences, pretrial motions, motions, rulings on motions, discovery, a ruling, and sometimes appeals, can take years). ADRs allow the parties to discuss their stories in a less confrontational atmosphere than that of the courtroom.

In the courtroom, specifically, the foregoing research on human dynamics in organizations finds direct application in the professional service of litigation consulting. Wise counsel capitalizes on research in human capital assessment, interpersonal dynamics, and organizational culture in order to enable the jury to reach a desired decision.

Wellness Leadership and Support for Continuous Learning and Personal Growth

Overall, healthy organizations implement wellness programs by adopting comprehensive health approaches along with solid management practices (Ivancevich & Lidwell, 2004). Health promotion in organizations is an integrated, multidisciplinary challenge. In addition to sponsorship from senior management, it requires offering incentives and recognition for healthy behaviors, actively involving employees and middle management in decisions and change management, increasing individuals' sense of control, and building autonomy into jobs to bring competitive advantage to business operations (Srivastva et al., 1990).

Healthy organizations support continuous learners, individuals who recognize their own values and priorities and how they want to live and work. Continuous learners have personal vision and take an active role in the world and work; they continue to reflect on their experiences in the world (including work); seek ongoing feedback about the world (including work) and their activities in it; remain as open as possible to the feedback; and make ongoing adjustments, based on ongoing feedback, to the way they live their lives and conduct their work, in order to more closely meet their priorities and values (London, 1992, 1998a). Continuous learning is becoming increasingly critical for digitized organizations, that is, organizations run in a technology-drenched context employing technology-focused professionals (London & Diamante, 2002).

Continuous learning is achieved when managers support a climate where feedback is freely exchanged, employees have a clear and shared vision of the organizational goals and values, and employees are sent to seminars or training programs—most of the time with paid travel and expenses. There is genuine commitment to growth. A greater commitment to training may be reflected in the organization's adoption of 360-degree-feedback programs, leadership development activities, assessment centers, internal "universities," and other programs targeting self-awareness, interpersonal acumen, or related competencies that improve productivity by improving the person (London, 1992, 1998b).

The Wellness Scorecard

Continuous improvement at the individual and organization level enables a lifelong approach to business, management, and operations. Realizing that change is constant, there is no better way to ensure progress than to build a culture around human development and well-being. A sample wellness scorecard is presented in Exhibit 14.2 as guidance for building metrics useful for the implementation of and evaluation of wellness initiatives. Of course, there is nothing more important to an organization's bottom line than human capital, so the scorecard makes the issue of human health and well-being "digestable" to senior management.

The scorecard is easy to customize and can be used on departmental or organizational levels. Components of the organizational wellness scorecard can be linked to performance management or evaluation standards and objectives. Using the tactics on the scorecard collectively builds infrastructure that sustains a culture—and may drive the culture.

Summary

There are three basic steps to becoming a healthy organization:

1. *Examine the risk factors.* Organizational strategy must address both job and workplace factors. Job factors are the physical working conditions, the ergonomic aspects of a job, the temporal aspects of the workday and tasks, the actual work content, job autonomy, coworker relations, the quality of supervision, and the financial or economic aspects. Workplace factors are work climate and culture, communications, group dynamics that affect decisions, management practices, leadership, labor management relations, existing workplace health promotion, and occupational health and safety activities. Organizational health scans, we predict, will become commonplace as health care cost reduction becomes

EXHIBIT 14.2. SAMPLE ORGANIZATIONAL WELLNESS SCORECARD.

Rate each of the following elements in terms of the extent to which you see evidence that the company truly values them. Respond to each element with *Yes* or *No*.

Management Practices

1. Management instills a sense of inspiration.
2. Managers are focused on expanding themselves in entrepreneurial, creative ways to sustain competitive business advantage, while also journeying on an *internally expansive* path uncovering self and interpersonal insights.
3. Employees are provided multiple pathways to address professional and personal needs.
4. Management controls focus on business outcomes (rather than compliance behaviors).
5. Internal competition is avoided so that the focus can be on beating the competition, mastery learning, or the creation of mutually beneficial objectives.

Work Itself

1. Jobs promote a sense of meaningfulness.
2. Performance evaluation reflects genuine, valuable business outcomes.
3. Roles and responsibilities are clear.
4. Redundant or repetitive tasks are softened by the use of shifts, cognitive or physical breaks, and other ways of countering the ill effects of repetition.
5. Employee assessments reflect appreciation for the competencies needed by the business in relation to individuals' need to "express themselves" (knowledge, skills, abilities, personal characteristics, and interests).

Environment and Safety

1. Occupational health and safety standards are adhered to, trained against, and monitored.
2. Menu-driven benefit plans are implemented.
3. Employee assistance programs are integrated into the employee's day.
4. Employees are rewarded for identifying problems.
5. Active evaluations are conducted to improve the physical workplace.

Culture

1. The workforce participates in goal setting and gets a response from leadership.
2. Organizational deeds exemplify altruism.
3. The organization is designed to optimize user or consumer experiences at all points of the trade cycle.
4. Structure, rules, and policy are understood to be impermanent mechanisms, open to change or transformation when market demands dictate.
5. Conflict is managed to drive creativity and experimentation and to fuel curiosity aimed toward mutual, valuable business goals.

EXHIBIT 14.2. SAMPLE ORGANIZATIONAL WELLNESS SCORECARD, Cont'd.

Workforce Development

1. Stress management programs exist or are available.
2. Management workshops link personal and professional well-being.
3. Career paths, mentoring, supportive networks, customized educational programs, self-management workshops, and other *connective mechanisms* guard against isolation and loneliness and offer nurturance, social support, and other psychosocial elements that affect behavior.
4. Newcomer orientation establishes and aligns business goal expectations and cultural openness and adaptation.
5. Self-learning is separated from formal performance evaluation so that personnel decisions can reflect human potential and not merely performance in a given job.

Communication

1. The state of the business is communicated enterprise-wide, strategically.
2. Shifts in business strategy are accompanied by *town hall* meetings or localized communication.
3. Progress is measured and communicated within relevant teams and across teams that work together indirectly.
4. Bottom-up feedback mechanisms enable leaders to remain in the know.
5. The workforce feels free to express contrary viewpoints.

Leadership

1. Leadership monitors "bottom-line" (nonactuarial) indices of organizational performance—(a) voluntary turnover, (b) medical costs associated with stress-related disorders, and (c) costs of mismanaged conflict (litigation, stalled projects, slow implementation, failure to enhance product functionality, incongruent user or consumer experiences, lack of innovation)—gauging the human "cost" of profitability.
2. Executives lead by displaying balanced or holistic lifestyles, demonstrating the need to attend to human and social needs.
3. There are linkages between executives and *greater goods* in terms of their community involvement or roles in other, larger-than-oneself efforts.
4. The social construction of the organization optimizes technology that meets human and organizational needs.
5. The annual report speaks to intangible assets, to educating stakeholders, and to meeting investor expectations for wise growth through balanced management that mitigates risk to people and profit.

Scoring

This organizational wellness scorecard consists of a total of thirty-five (35) items, divided into seven (7) categories. The scorecard can be used to identify problem areas; compare perceptions of managers, departments, or levels; and accelerate the efficacy of strategic planning sessions. A *yes* scores 1 point, and a *no* scores 0 points:

EXHIBIT 14.2. SAMPLE ORGANIZATIONAL WELLNESS SCORECARD, Cont'd.

Score	Interpretation
25–35	Healthy Workplace This workplace shows support for human and financial concerns. Wisely, the culture strengthens itself by valuing not only what the business does but how it does it. There is an understanding that enables *integration* between human and business requirements when establishing goals, methods, and results. The quality of management is top tier, and there is a constant focus on growth—for people and services or profit.
14–24	Diminished Health Workplace An organizational environment that is torn in its desire to integrate organizational and human requirements. At times there is hope that integration of human and organizational needs is on the horizon, yet at other times this seems impossible. Strain, conflict, insecurity, and stress are unnecessarily pressing upon organizational execution—slowing things down, complicating operations, and placing strategy at risk. Policies and programs appear supportive of human concerns, but these initiatives are viewed as window treatments. Management talks a good game but likely does not walk the walk. Long-term organizational growth is at risk.
1–13	Unhealthy Workplace An environment that is overly focused on generating organizational outcomes and is myopic about how such outcomes materialize. Human capital is viewed as a fungible asset. There is little or no thought given to optimizing human performance—other than establishing, expecting, and measuring organizational results. This is a short-term game—growth, if it occurs, is not sustainable.

essential. Practical checklists, organizational surveys, or other metrics with a list of "healthy ingredients" can be easily assembled, and managers can be held accountable for identifying deficiencies and acting on them. Indeed, this tactic of measurement, analysis, feedback, and action planning is routine in organization development practice. Over time, individual organizations can track their progress, compare departments, and indeed, embark on research of their own to identify the ingredients that appear most beneficial to morale and productivity. Perhaps in time, organizations can share their findings, creating a "Health Fortune" database useful to business executives, health practitioners, policy makers, and researchers committed to continuously improving the workplace.

2. *Zero in on desired outcomes.* Such outcomes can include improved individual health, return on investments, reduced litigation, reduced absenteeism, higher job work performance, and greater satisfaction among customers. Start with customer or client impact; keep everything aligned with customer or client expectations.

3. *Unleash health tactics.* Finally, identify the actions required to address underlying factors that threaten the achievement of desired outcomes. These actions are the aforementioned wellness programs, such as employee assistance programs; stress management programs; mentoring, conflict resolution, and diversity programs; diet and exercise programs; and customized programs to tackle special issues such as anger, hostility, and other emotions. Teach self-management so that personal accountability for individual wellness is high and incorporate spirituality (in terms of altruism, giving, community work, teaching and training, social responsibility, or faith-based, optional meditative opportunities) to compensate for leadership shortcomings. Encourage career development and continuous learning and build work and life balance plans that are customer-centric and valued by a culture equally driven to ensure that both people and profit grow. (Exhibit 14.3 on page 493 displays helpful resources supplemental to the references.)

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