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**Factors contributing for organizational happiness: content, exploratory and confirmatory
factorial analysis**

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Abstract

This study aims to identify the factors promoting organizational happiness. In recent years, research on organizational happiness has been increasing however the factors contributing to organizational happiness are still underexplored. Complementary qualitative-quantitative methods were conducted to obtain item cross-validation. The first method consisted of personal interviews, categorized through content analysis, aiming to identify those items and factors contributing to organizational happiness (n=969). The second method aimed to validate the identified items and factors and to propose an organizational happiness measure. A survey was applied to a second sample (n=1.954) of Portuguese and Spanish active professionals. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. Five first-order factors were identified: (F1) Workplace Relationships; (F2) Acknowledgment & Respect; (F3) Continuous Learning and Personal Development; (F4) Sustainability & Job/Family Balance; (F5) Leadership. These five factors are explained by a second-order factor considered to be Organizational Happiness. As such, a new comprehensive and integrated Organizational Happiness framework is presented, showing how lower-level components can be used to influence higher level professionals perceptions.

Keywords: Organizational happiness; Organizational well-being; Construct validity.

INTRODUCTION

The studies related to happiness and well-being have gained importance since the World Health Organization defined health as “a state of complete physical, psychological and social well-being”. These two terms, happiness and well-being, have been used interchangeably or linked to other concepts and theories (Blanch, Sahagún & Cervantes, 2010; Warr, 2013) as the subjective well-being (Diener, 2000; Strack, Argile & Schwarz, 1991) or psychological well-being (Bryce & Haworth, 2003; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Warr, 1987, 1990). As most of the happiness definitions, subjective well-being can be understood as the positive feelings, associated with positive subjective assessments, which individuals make of their life (Diener, Sandvik & Pavot, 1991). However, the undergoing discussion related with the essence of happiness and well-being indicates two different approaches: hedonic and eudemonistic (Baptista et al., 2016; Waterman, 2013).

The hedonic approach defines well-being as the constant look for happiness or pleasure (Ryan & Deci, 2001), being the positive affect a central component of happiness (Kahneman, Diener, & Schwarz, 1999). The positive affect reflects the pleasant engagement with the ambiance, as be enthusiastic, alert, active (Watson, Clark & Carey, 1988), and several authors have work on it to operationalize happiness (Nix, Ryan, Manly & Deci, 1999; Ryff, Singer & Love, 2004; Steptoe, Wardle & Marmot, 2005).

Ryan and Deci (2001) define the eudemonic approach of well-being as “living a complete human life looking for the realization of valued human potentials”, a concept much focused on one’s life and in the processes of living it well.

Peiró, Ayala, Tordera, Lorente and Rodríguez (2014) consider that both, hedonic and eudemonic elements, are part of the well-being structure, and are, naturally, related. Also, most of the instruments used to measure the subjective well-being consider, only, one component (affective or cognitive), not allowing to test psychometric properties. In these instruments, respondents are asked to rate their levels of positive and negative affect over a period, or, to judge their overall life quality. However, a measure the overall “subjective happiness” is still lacking. A consensual instrument, allowing to measure if one is happy or unhappy. Diener (1994) considers that such an instrument would reflect a broader vision of one’s well-being. Also, Diener et al. (2017), Ford et al. (2015), Howell et al. (2016), Jena and Pradhan (2017), Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller and Hulin (2017), Mohanty (2014), Weidman, Steckler and Tracy (2017) consider that would be much relevant to identify the factors that professionals feel need to be happy in an organization, in accordance with the actual Positive Psychology literature related with the well-being at work. This research aims to

solve this research gap by identifying the factors promoting organizational happiness. Furthermore, it aims to propose a measure of organizational happiness.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The scientific interest in positive organizations is very close to the evolution of research on happiness, as the work strongly contributes to the quality of life (Bakker, Rodriguez-Muñoz & Derks, 2012; Moccia, 2016; Xanthopoulou, Bakker & Ilies, 2012). Fisher (2010) and Warr (2007) consider that work has a contribution to one's well-being or happiness and that unemployment causes a significant reduction in the well-being (Clark, Diener, Georgellis & Lucas, 2008).

The number of studies using positive constructs in organizations is increasing with a relevant impact on management (Rodríguez-Muñoz & Sanz-Vergel, 2013). Among others, main constructs used are the work engagement (Bakker & Leiter, 2010), job satisfaction (Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton, 2001; Luna-Arocas & Morley, 2015), workflow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), positive emotions at work (Vacharkulksemsuk & Fredrickson, 2013) and work enjoyment (Bakker, 2008). Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) refer that these constructs have in common positive intellectual evaluations (judgments and attitudes) and positive affective experiences (feelings, moods, emotions). Andrews and Withey (1976), Blanch et al. (2010) and Diener (2000) consider that happiness, subjective well-being or psychological well-being, consists of valuation judgments, satisfactory, pleasant and positive emotional reactions. If, in his widest sense, 'happiness' is an umbrella term for all that is good, 'happiness at work' would be a multidimensional concept, including transient moods and emotions, relatively stable attitudes, highly stable individual dispositions, all, at the individual level (Fisher, 2010). This concept of happiness at work still needs to be evaluated, since there is no consensus on the literature.

Blanch et al. (2010) refers that for the assessment of welfare at work were mainly used instruments focused on health and disease variables as psychopathology, among others, the General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg & Williams, 1996) and the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock & Erbaugh, 1961). In a reverse direction were applied instruments focused on productivity, as work engagement that has achieved high relevance in the occupational health psychology (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). This concept considers three dimensions, force, dedication and absorption, included in the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli, Martínez, Marqués-Pinto, Salanova & Bakker, 2002).

With the positive psychology evolution, welfare work has started to be evaluated by instruments not directly related with the work as, among others, the "Satisfaction with Life Scale" (Diener, 1994;

Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985), the “Oxford Happiness Questionnaire” (Hills & Argyle, 2002), the “Quality of Life Enjoyment and Life Satisfaction Questionnaire” (Endicott, Nee, Harrison & Blumenthal, 1993), the Psychological Well-being Scales (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Van Dierendonck, 2004), the World Health Organization Quality of Life Assessment Instrument, WHOQOL-100 (De Vries & Van Heck, 1997) or the Happy Planet Index (HPI) from the New Economics Foundation.

Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) consider that happiness at work occur when the employee is satisfied with his/her job and experience frequent positive emotions (such as joy or happiness) and no frequent negative emotions (such as sadness or anger). Although the simplicity of this definition, it is also vague. Do not discriminate low-level emotions (usually of short duration) from more elaborate and permanent affections, situational moments from the holistic work experience focuses on subjective experiences ignoring those context factors based on the interpersonal experience.

Recent studies are being developed aiming to decompose the labor welfare dimensions. Several researchers have used Ryff’s Psychological Well-Being framework (Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) to operationalize the self-realization assessment, a major component of labor welfare (Keyes, Shmotkin & Ryff, 2002). Ryff (1989), in his Psychological Well-Being Scale, identifies six self-realization psychological dimensions: self-acceptance (identify and accept individual strengths and weaknesses), purpose in life (have personal objectives and a meaning for life), personal growth (maximize and realize personal talents), positive relations with others (intimacy, true and significant relations), environmental mastery (manage the day life) and autonomy (personal convictions even against the conventional).

The research on emotional well-being at work starts to have more visibility with the works of Warr (1987, 1990) and Van Katwyk, Spector, Fox, and Kelloway (2000). These studies correlate work emotions with the dimensions of pleasantness and arousal, and, both consider specific scales. Warr (1990) proposed to measure the job-related affective well-being with four interrelated factors, anxiety, comfort, depression, and enthusiasm. Van Laar, Edwards, and Easton (2007) developed an instrument to evaluate the well-being psychological components at work, the Work-Related Quality of Life scale. This instrument considers six factors, employment, and career satisfaction, working conditions, general well-being, balance work/family, stress at job and job control.

The happiness concept is being framed in the broader context of relations between “Myself and the Others”, providing more evidence on how culture may have an influence on the emotions and attitudes (Uchida, Norasakkunkit & Kitayama, 2004). De Leersnyder, Mesquwita, Kim, Eom and Choi (2014) have developed a study across different cultural contexts (United States, Belgium, and

South Korea) with results showing that individuals' emotional fit is different among regions and related with the level of relational well-being. Reasons for happiness at work may also be depending on the national culture. There is not much evidence on this, but, Hofstede's (1991) research on national culture is an excellent point of reference. This may justify the need to develop new research, replicating existing instruments or proposing new ones, with the aim to identify organizational happiness factors in different regions and cultures (Uchida & Oishi, 2016). Rego and Cunha (2009) emphasize that employee happiness may have different origins in different cultures and the individualism/collectivism orientations may not operate, the same way, in different cultural and organizational contexts. So, it is relevant to develop new research aiming to identify how to promote the happiest and more productive professionals. As referred by Lyubomirsky, King and Diener (2005) there is a strong relationship between subjective well-being and work performance.

METHODS

This research aims to identify the factors contributing to organizational happiness. As such, qualitative and quantitative methodologies were applied. First, the qualitative study aimed to identify the reasons why professionals feel happy in an organization. After, the quantitative study aimed to identify the first and second-order factors that originate organizational happiness.

Study 1. Qualitative.

Participants

This first study, developed during 2018, consisting of 969 individual interviews. Respondents are active professionals from Portugal and Spain. To adjust as possible the sample, 25% from Portugal and 75% from Spain, 30% of directors, 50% of each gender.

Design and procedure

An open question was made: What do you need to be happy in your organization?

To analyze the answers, a content analysis was conducted as suggested by Berelson (1952). The process was: (1) data collection; (2) data storage; (3) coding; (4) indexing system refinement; (5) code relationship; and (6) identify categories. To improve the analysis, Atlas Ti V6.0 software was used. This software combines friendly use with a major ability to encoding and draws conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) the process was: (1) citations evaluation, (2) highlight the words of each response, (3) encoding, (4) code interpretation and (5) category codification. For the encoding process, a list with the initially based code (Miles & Huberman, 1994) was elaborated to be used in the interactive process of analysis. The code facilitates the identification of occurrence patterns, bias control, and alternative or opposite directions and consistency level. After identifying the codes, the next step consisted of evaluating the relation, frequency of occurrence and the number of relations with other codes. This allowed establishing the importance and strength of each code.

Results

In total 1710 references were categorized. After analyzing each and all mention, 38 components where identified: (1) I have a very good work ambiance (2) My colleagues are engaged with the organization (3) There is a good teamwork spirit (4) There is humor (5) The communication is easy (6) I have the tools that I need to develop my work (7) I consider my colleagues as friends (8) I am

recognized for my merit (9) I am respected as an individual due to the work developed (10) The organization shows confidence in my work (11) The organization is fair and honest (12) The organization allows me to develop as an individual and professional (13) The organization allows a continuous learning (14) The organization allows having new challenges (15) I have autonomy and responsibility (16) I may contribute for the organization strategy (17) The organization allows me to be entrepreneur (18) I have time to share opinions allowing me to have better decisions (19) The organization allows job rotation (20) My salary is good and fair (21) The organization allows me to do what I like to do (professionally) (22) I feel that the organization needs me (23) The organization has work and new projects (24) The organization has well-established processes (25) The organization allows me to have a stable job (26) The organization is innovative and promotes innovation (27) All employees know and share the organization vision (28) Top management communicates clearly the organization objectives (29) Leaders promote employees wellbeing (30) I am involved with organization values (31) Top management leadership is true and inspiring (32) I have all the support from management (33) I look for excellency in my performance (34) I work to achieve my objectives so that organization my achieve global ones (35) The organization have clear objectives (36) I have a good balance between professional end personal life (37) The organization allows to fulfill my mission has individual (38) The organization cares about social responsibility.

With these 38 components, a first questionnaire was developed. As proposed by McMillan and Schumacher (1989), Green and Lewis (1986), Thorndike and Hagen (1977), Cronbach (1971), Kerlinger (1978), Nunally (1978), Campbell and Fiske (1959), Rust and Cooil (1994) the questionnaire validity was verified through three complementary methods: (1) the questionnaire was designed considering a qualitative research with content analysis (2) the questionnaire was sent to three experts (Professor, CEO, HR Expert) and (3) a previous test with ten respondents was applied.

Study 2. Quantitative

Participants

The questionnaire developed in Study 1 was sent to active professionals in Portugal and Spain, by using APG database (Portugal) and Sevilla University database (Spain), during February / April 2019. At the end 1954 validate answers were received. Respondents are approximately 25% Portuguese / 75% Spanish, 48% male / 52% female, 30% directors. This sample structure is adequate for the active professional reality in Portugal and Spain. Following Green, Tonidandel and Cortina's (2016) recommendation, this sample was randomly split into two sub-samples of 953 and 1001 professionals, respectively, to conduct exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis.

Statistical analysis

The main statistical tools applied in this research were the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using the software R (Rcode team, 2014) and the packages lavaan, psy, psych, sem, e1071. The input in EFA was the raw data and parameter estimation was done with the help of the package psych. In CFA, the input was the covariance matrix and the package used was lavaan.

The components used were the 38 previously identified in the content analysis developed in study 1. The skewness and kurtosis measures were calculated with the e1071 package.

In EFA all the items were allowed to have loadings in the factors considered by the model. In the CFA, loadings were only allowed between the factors and the components depending on these factors. In EFA and the first-order CFA, all factors were allowed to be correlated. In the second-order CFA model, factors only depend on the second-order factor.

For the goodness-of-fit, and since there is not a single index indicating, without any doubt, the model quality, several fit indices were used. The assessment began by the χ^2 value (Bollen, 1989), although the size of the sample was adequate to the tendency of producing significant results. Was also used the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), with the limit of 0.06 or lower, as indicative of a good/adequate fit (Steiger, 1990; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003); the comparative fit index (CFI), higher than 0.95 as referred by Bentler (1990) and Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003); a lower value than 0.08 in the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) as adequate fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and AIC - Akaike Information Criteria (Akaike, 1987). After the initial CFA assessment, and by analyzing the modification indices, the error variance of some components in each factor was allowed to vary.

RESULTS

Means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the responses in each item (table 1) were calculated. The interpretation indicates that, in general, values have not a high absolute value. Next, the internal consistency of the entire questionnaire was assessed, by using Cronbach's α , which resulted in a very good value of 0.9855 95% CI [0.9846, 0.9864] (confidence interval was calculated by bootstrap). By observing the Pearson's correlation coefficient matrix (figure 1) and the corresponding histogram (figure 2), it is possible to observe the existence of a large degree of correlation between the 38 components. The minimal correlation between components was 0.39.

Table 1 – Means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of the responses to the items in the questionnaire

Item	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Shapiro-Wilk Test		
					W	df	P
1	3.854	1.052	-0.786	0.052	0,867	2373	0,000
2	3.667	1.000	-0.537	-0.154	0,883	2373	0,000
3	3.518	1.131	-0.458	-0.516	0,902	2373	0,000
4	3.782	1.060	-0.683	-0.104	0,882	2373	0,000
5	3.447	1.172	-0.364	-0.740	0,911	2373	0,000
6	3.732	1.052	-0.696	-0.049	0,886	2373	0,000
7	3.298	1.127	-0.279	-0.636	0,912	2373	0,000
8	3.535	1.182	-0.528	-0.560	0,903	2373	0,000
9	3.780	1.071	-0.790	0.115	0,875	2373	0,000
10	3.846	1.024	-0.805	0.218	0,869	2373	0,000
11	3.442	1.216	-0.442	-0.718	0,908	2373	0,000
12	3.602	1.183	-0.576	-0.558	0,898	2373	0,000
13	3.697	1.162	-0.700	-0.291	0,893	2373	0,000
14	3.611	1.193	-0.564	-0.591	0,898	2373	0,000
15	4.047	1.000	-1.011	0.567	0,846	2373	0,000
16	3.435	1.245	-0.421	-0.833	0,903	2373	0,000
17	3.742	1.170	-0.722	-0.350	0,889	2373	0,000
18	3.385	1.164	-0.397	-0.650	0,913	2373	0,000

Item	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Shapiro-Wilk Test		
					W	df	P
19	2.977	1.256	-0.047	-1.008	0,912	2373	0,000
20	3.101	1.240	-0.162	-0.943	0,909	2373	0,000
21	3.634	1.151	-0.600	-0.436	0,897	2373	0,000
22	3.550	1.174	-0.493	-0.639	0,901	2373	0,000
23	3.772	1.065	-0.677	-0.156	0,878	2373	0,000
24	3.412	1.155	-0.378	-0.639	0,914	2373	0,000
25	3.364	1.188	-0.404	-0.628	0,906	2373	0,000
26	3.522	1.193	-0.459	-0.705	0,905	2373	0,000
27	3.213	1.219	-0.192	-0.902	0,917	2373	0,000
28	3.518	1.283	-0.565	-0.746	0,895	2373	0,000
29	3.442	1.230	-0.456	-0.739	0,907	2373	0,000
30	3.602	1.196	-0.568	-0.578	0,898	2373	0,000
31	3.366	1.363	-0.399	-1.056	0,897	2373	0,000
32	3.509	1.249	-0.517	-0.735	0,899	2373	0,000
33	4.161	0.868	-1.077	1.233	0,815	2373	0,000
34	4.196	0.863	-1.132	1.425	0,801	2373	0,000
35	3.598	1.190	-0.563	-0.555	0,891	2373	0,000
36	3.524	1.118	-0.513	-0.408	0,900	2373	0,000
37	3.591	1.112	-0.520	-0.448	0,902	2373	0,000

Item	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Shapiro-Wilk Test		
					W	df	P
38	3.550	1.204	-0.558	-0.588	0,898	2373	0,000

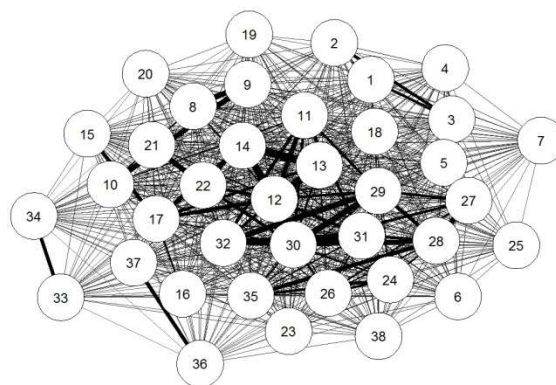


Figure 1 – Correlation plot (or correlation network) between the 38 components. Minimal value is 0.39. Wider edges indicate stronger correlations.

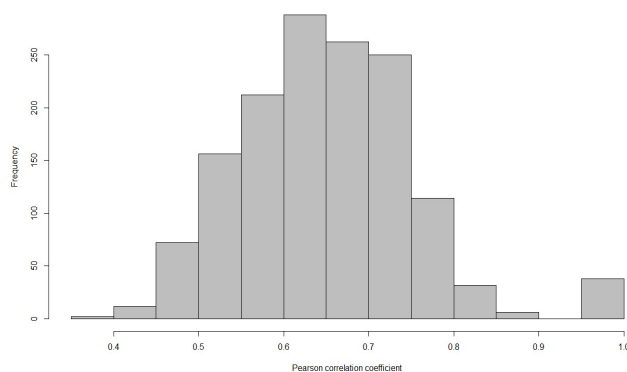


Figure 2 – Histogram of the Pearson's correlation coefficient.

Exploratory factor analysis

In the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) the eigenvalues of the correlation matrix were analyzed, by applying a screen plot and a parallel analysis, with oblimin rotation and principal components extraction. The number of factors suggested by Kaiser's criteria on the eigenvalues was 3, decreasing

sharply, after the first component. The parallel analysis indicates the possible existence of 8 factors (figure 1, in appendix), although there is not a large decrease after five factors. Consequently, the EFA assessment with eight factors was assessed (figure 3).

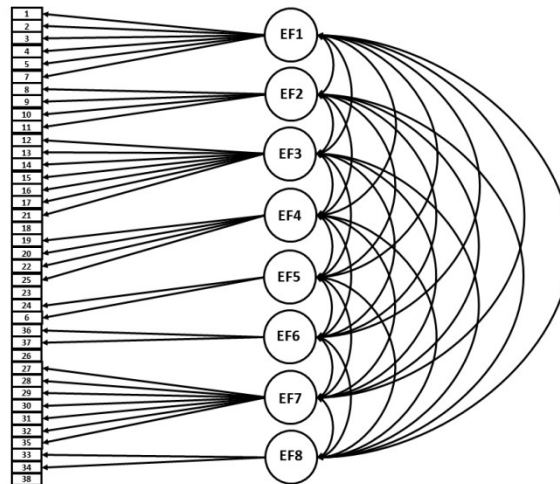


Figure 3 – Results of the exploratory factor analysis

After analyzing the EFA results, the paths with low loadings were eliminated (cutoff 0.3) and collapsed the factors with a low theoretical explanation or a low number of components (only 2 items). The components with no connecting factor were rearranged in the remaining factors, as more plausible. With this, a hypothetical model was identified, so to be tested with the confirmatory factor analysis.

Confirmatory factor analysis

The fit of a first-order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model was tested using the maximum likelihood estimation, resulting from the former EFA analysis (sample=1001), with some modification, by the conceptual analysis (figure 4).

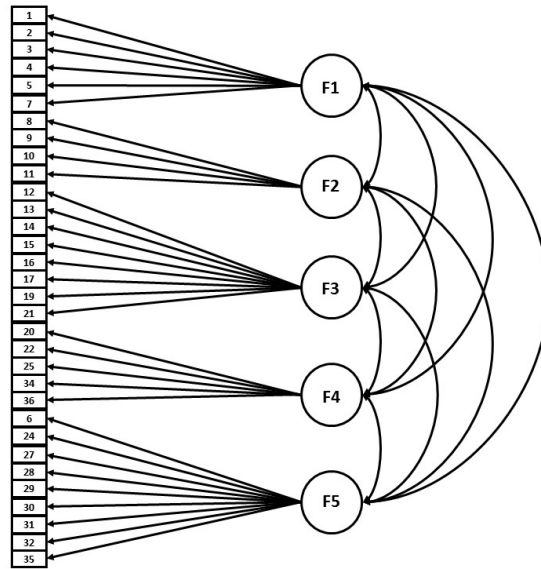


Figure 4 – Schematics of the first order factor model

This model has 87 free parameters, 32 variances, 23 covariances and 32 paths. The model fit is: χ^2 (441, N = 1001) = 3,693.888 ($p < 0.001$); root-mean-square error of approximation RMSEA = 0.061, 95%CI[0.060,0.063]; Standardized Root Mean Square Residual SRMR=0.028; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.954; Akaike information criterion (AIC) = 128,005.841.

After assessing these statistics and measuring the correlation coefficients between factors (table 2), a second-order CFA was tested, in which the five factors, connected with the components indicators, are explained by a single second-order factor (figure 5 and table 1 and 2 in appendix). This model has 88 free parameters, 38 variance, 13 covariance, and 37 paths.

Table 2 – Correlation coefficients between factors in the first order factor model of figure 4

	F2	F3	F4	F5
F1	0.881	0.848	0.867	0.873
F2		0.953	0.948	0.935
F3			0.958	0.95
F4				0.943

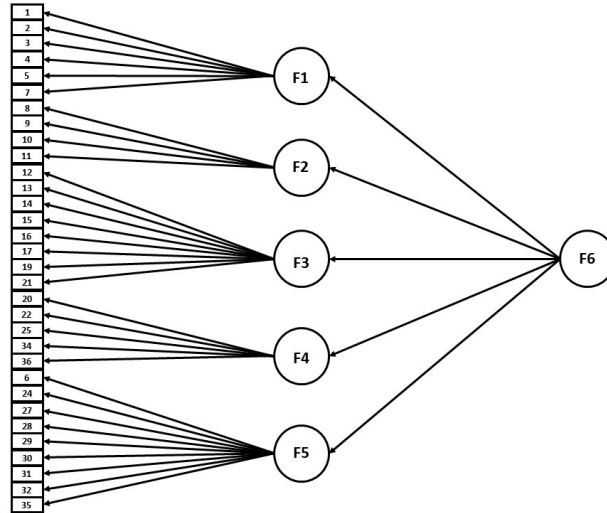


Figure 5 – Schematics of the second order factor model

The two models were very similar in the fit; the second-order model did not have a pronounced worse fit than the first. The model fit of the second is $\chi^2(446, N=1001) = 3,761.896$, $p < 0.001$; root-mean-square error of approximation RMSEA = 0.062, 95% CI [0.060, 0.064]; Standardized Root Mean Square Residual SRMR = 0.029; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.953; Akaike information criterion (AIC) = 128,063.848.

The scores of the sample

From the analysis, all loadings were significant ($p < 0.001$). Also, the internal validity of each factor, by Cronbach's α , was 0.9315, 0.9316, 0.9520, 0.8586 and 0.9644, for factors one to five.

Using the fitted second-order factor model parameters, the sample scores in each factor were calculated (figure 6). In order to characterize the organizational happiness, in this population, the scores, mean and variance, were calculated (Table 3). For the second-order factor, the mean was 2.94, 95% of the sample was between 1.24 and 4.12 and 50% of the sample was between 2.39 and 3.55.

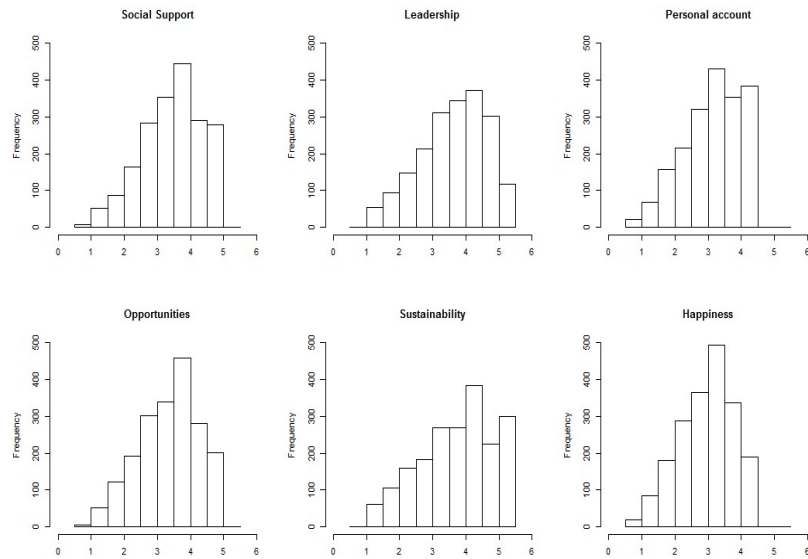


Figure 6 – Histograms of the sample scores in each of the five first order factors and in the second order factor (Organizational Happiness)

Table 3 – Mean values and variances. Sample scores in the fitted second order factor model

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
Mean	3.435	3.613	3.136	3.328	3.717	2.94
Variance	0.798	0.981	0.75	0.791	1.201	0.642

DISCUSSION

The Cronbach's alpha indicates that the content analysis clearly allows identifying factors and the respective components. The final model with 32 components and five factors has a satisfactory fitting. Thus, decisions taken for the development of the CFA were statistically valid. All factors were correlated with what (Table 2) indicates the possible existence of a higher-order factor (Figure 5). This higher-order factor, explained by other factors with a high internal consistency (between 0.85 and 0.96), can be considered as Organizational Happiness. The results (Table 3) validate that, each of the Organizational Happiness construct dimensions, have a higher average than the scale midpoint. When considering Factor 6 (Organizational Happiness) alone, the average population is close to the scale mid-point. The five factors and respective components are:

F1 Workplace Relationships

- C1 - I have a very good work ambiance
- C2 - My colleagues are engaged with the organization
- C3 - There is a good teamwork spirit
- C4 - There is humor
- C5 - The communication is easy
- C7 - I consider my colleagues as friends

F2 Acknowledgment & Respect

- C8 - I am recognized for my merit
- C9 - I am respected as an individual due to the work developed
- C10 - The organization shows confidence in my work
- C11 - The organization is fair and honest

F3 Continuous Learning and Personal Development

- C12 - The organization allows me to develop as an individual and professional
- C13 - The organization allows a continuous learning
- C14 - The organization allows having new challenges
- C15 - I have autonomy and responsibility
- C16 - I may contribute to the organization strategy
- C17 - The organization allows me to be an entrepreneur
- C21 - The organization allows me to do what I like to do (professionally)

F4 Sustainability & Job/Family Balance

- C19 - The organization allows job rotation
- C20 - My salary is good and fair
- C22 - I feel that the organization needs me (I feel useful)
- C25 - The organization allows me to have a stable job
- C34 - I work to achieve my objectives so that the organization may achieve global ones
- C36 - I have a good balance between professional and personal life

F5 Leadership

C6 - I have the tools that I need to develop my work

C24 - The organization has well-established processes

C27 - All employees know and share the organization vision

C28 - Management communicates clearly the organization objectives

C29 - Leaders promote employees wellbeing

C30 - I am involved with organization values

C31 - Top management leadership is true and inspiring

C32 - I have all the support from management

C35 - The organization have clear objectives

Having identified the first order and second-order factors is now necessary to validate the coherence with previous research and available literature, related to well-being or happiness and organizational happiness.

F1 Workplace Relationship

Research on organizational happiness and social relationships are having growing importance, mainly, when related to organizational performance factors as career development, performance at work, social acceptance and organizational attachment (Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser, 2013). The association of well-being with social satisfaction is, often, referred to as Social Wellbeing (SWB), and indicates the desire of living in a flourishing society (Keyes, 1998). Social wellbeing, the product of our relations with other individuals and community, is composed of dimensions as friendship, trust relations, social support, reciprocity relations, leadership and integration relationships (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Kramer, 1999). These factors, together with confidence, have a closer relationship with well-being than other work factors, as financial components (Helliwell & Huang, 2011). However, the relation between well-being and the work social capital is not always homogeneous (Zacher, Jimmieson & Bordia, 2014).

In this research, the first group of components related to this factor is: “there is a good teamwork spirit” (C3); “my colleagues are engaged with the organization” (C2) and “I consider my colleagues as friends” (C7). Rego, Souto, and Cunha (2009) identify the degree, to which accurate relationships in the organization are characterized by friendship, team spirit, and mutual concern. The expression “personal involvement with the team” is not recent. Hemphill (1949) considers “personal

involvement with the team” as the degree to which an employee feels responsibility and satisfaction with the organization, according to his expectations. However, the term is being progressively replaced by the study of “group cohesion”, originating a discussion on what, in the social support, reflects an orientation for the collective. Rego and Cunha (2009) consider that attitudes as loyalty, team commitment, tenure intentions, and organizational citizenship behaviors, contribute to a more collectivist orientation in the organization. These authors have also found, by relating the collectivist/individualist orientation with well-being, that collectivistic individuals demonstrate higher affective well-being, and that this relation is moderated by employees’ perceptions of friendship in the organizations. Higher affective well-being levels tend to be experienced by collectivists feeling when working in a friendly organizational context. Rego and Cunha (2009) emphasize that employee happiness may have different origins in different cultures and that individualism/collectivism orientations do not operate the same way in different cultural and organizational contexts. Parise and Rollag (2010) have researched on friendship at work, by testing several hypotheses in a competitive management simulation, involving 42 teams. Results show that the existence of, in work friendship relationships, is associated with a higher group performance.

One may consider that, conceptually, these factors of perceived happiness (Team Spirit, Involvement with the Team, Friendship Relationships) are forms of “social support” and “co-worker support”. Social support, in the context of organizational psychology, is being used to designate interactions between workers and between workers and respective supervisors (Luchman & González-Morales, 2013; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Social support may be considered as an individual difference that contributes to the quality of a person's social environment (Sarason, Sarason & Shearin, 1986). Thoits (1985) refers the Co-Worker Support as a job component that describes workers’ perceptions of instrumental help (e.g., information and feedback) and emotional assistance (e.g., showing sympathy and understanding). Reis (1984) stated that good health and good relationships are more likely to be found in competent people.

The perception of supporting colleagues emerges when, at the workplace, exists a network of interaction and communication, allowing workers to help each other and promote positive affect. This ambiance, very rich in social capital (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), facilitates the task accomplishment, by mobilizing social ties, in order to obtain coworkers, help, and advice. It is in this context that the components “I have a very good work ambiance” (C1) and “the communication is easy (C5), should be considered. Still exist a research gap on the study of organizational or interpersonal communication and its contribution to well-being. Gable, Reis, Impett, and Asher (2004) refers that sharing personal positive events is associated with the increase of the daily positive

affect and well-being. In our research, the component “there is humor” (C4) represents this positive communication in the organization, being considered, by respondents, as important for them. Research looking for relations between humor and well-being in the organization are scarce, but recent work from Tews, Michel, and Stafford (2013) clearly support this relation.

F2 Acknowledgment & Respect

This factor has two main components: the need for personal skills recognition, and the recognition, by others, of the individual ability to execute the job. It is true that the attitude of gratitude and acknowledgment is very, socially, recognized in our culture. However, it is also a fact that the study of prosocial behaviors influence well-being is in the beginning.

The meaning of “recognition for merit” (C8) is very close to one’s gratitude, but, also, different, due to the appeal to personal value. Cullogh, Emmons, and Tsang (2002) refer that grateful disposition is related to positive affect, well-being, prosocial behaviors, and religiousness/spirituality. The same authors referred that gratitude is negatively correlated with envy and materialism, and positively related to vitality and optimism.

The effect of Respect (C9) on well-being is little explored in psychosocial literature. However, a recent study (Ng & Diener, 2014) reveals that respect is a strong predictor of positive feelings. The component “Personal Trust” (10) means “I feel good because others trust me”. Studies support the relation between personal trust and well-being but, exclusively, based on the employee confidence in the leader.

The component “Justice” (C11) expresses the employee’s desire of having a trustworthy leader. This is consistent with available research, in the sense that organizational justice appears to be an important predictor of work attitudes and behavior (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel & Rupp, 2001).

F3 Continuous Learning and Personal Development

The need for learning and personal development, from an organizational perspective, means the opportunity for an employee to have continuous learning and develop tasks that may contribute to his personal and professional growth. Both are important components of a healthy organization (Wilson, Mendes de Leon, Bienes, Evans & Bennet, 2004). There are relevant researches supporting the relation between lifelong learning & personal development on organizational well-being, as reducing job insecurity, increasing employability (Luthans, Avolio, Avey & Norman, 2007), a higher perception of a more intrinsically and rewarding job (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and the increase of meaningfulness (Wrzesniewski, 2003). Also, allows professionals to develop senses of job competence, self-efficacy, autonomy, feelings of enthusiasm and comfort (Luthans, Youssef &

Avolio, 2007). Rego and Cunha (2009) have conducted a study where it is visible that the perception of opportunities for learning and personal development is a predictor of five affective well-being dimensions: pleasure, comfort, placidity, enthusiasm, and vigor. It is also demonstrated that this relation is moderated by the work-family conciliation perception.

In addition to “Learning” (C13) and “Personal Development” (C12) components, others were considered: “Work Must Provide Challenges” (C14) reveals that challenges as time pressure or job control can be positively experienced as associated with performance-related behaviors (Ohly & Fritz, 2010). The same authors have studied the relationship between these challenges, with creativity and proactive behavior (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Results indicate that time pressure and job control are related to daily creativity and proactive behavior. A challenge is, first, an opportunity of self-overcoming (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). These authors realized that a situation can be perceived as challenging when offering the potential for a personal gain, as mastery, learning, or personal growth. The relation between well-being and challenge is a subject with a high potential for future research.

It is difficult to imagine that someone may learn and develop by doing a continuous and repetitive job. Probably, for this reason, our respondents have considered that having Job Rotation (C19) is important for organizational happiness. Although it was not found research relating job rotation and well-being, there is literature focusing on job rotation benefits: boosts morale and self-efficacy, relieve physical and mental stresses, decrease boredom and monotony (Hsieh & Chao, 2004).

The job must allow “being creative and entrepreneur” (C17). In several areas of mental life, creativity and proactivity are considered health markers and the opposite of disease. So, it makes sense the increasing number of studies linking proactivity and well-being (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). Proactive behavior consists of having the initiative to anticipate the future and, generally, consists of addressing issues in an active way, by proposing suggestions or entrusting spontaneously solutions, for a problem (Unsworth & Parker, 2003). Creativity is the ability to generate new ideas or new ways of addressing old solutions (Amabile, 2000). Recent studies (Kim, Hon & Lee, 2010) examine the relationship between proactive personality and employee creativity, introducing moderate variables as supervisor support for creativity. Results show that a proactive personality is positively associated with employee creativity. However, there is a research gap on this subject, especially relating affects and well-being with creativity and proactivity.

The fourth component in this factor is “Autonomy” (C15). The importance of autonomy for well-being is relatively well studied. This relation is mostly mediated by factors as performance-

avoidance objectives (Heidemeier & Wiese, 2014), the existence of a quality competitive ambiance and the organizational commitment (Gelens, et al., 2015; Park & Searcy, 2014).

The possibility for the employee to “contribute for organization strategy” (C16) was appreciated by respondents. This is related to the ability to influence or having power as a factor of achievement. Jakson (1983) proposed a causal model relating the participation in the decisions with the perceived influence, conflict, ambiguity, personal and job-related communications, social support, emotional strain, overall job satisfaction, absenteeism, and turnover intention.

Finally, respondents considered they would be happy in the organization if they could "do what they like" (what I like / free choice) (C21). The way a society deals with freedom have a high influence on individuals' happiness. According to World Values Survey (WVS) (Inglehart, Foa, Peterson & Welzel, 2008) and European Values Survey from 1981 to 2007, the feeling of free choice and one's life control, have strong importance on explaining the change in social well-being over the time. This association seems to be universal (Welzel & Inglehart, 2010).

F4 Sustainability & Job/Family Balance

This factor considers, first, the components related to organizational happiness, more linked with the basic needs' satisfaction, as financial compensation and job security. It was decided to include in this factor some intermediate components. Those components, between basic needs satisfaction and "pro-social" needs, have in common to be related to organizational sustainability and the ability to achieve a fair working /family balance (which determines, ultimately, the possibility to work).

The first component “My Salary is Good and Fair” (C20), defines the economic status, an overarching term that defines the desired income and feeling of being adequate (Howell & Howell, 2008). The income objective is the basis for metrics used by economists and researchers as personal income, household income, and *per capita* household income. There exists relevant research on the relationship between economic prosperity and well-being, individually or at a global level (Diener, Ng, Harter & Arora, 2010; Kinnunen, Mauno & De Witte, 2014; Levine & Lombardi, 2014). However, this relationship is not linear: Kahneman and Deaton (2010) realized that higher income continues to improve life evaluation until U.S. \$120,000, but the relation start decreases from this value.

Material wealth is also associated with components of well-being. It is strongly related to the cognitive component of subjective well-being but is a weaker predictor of emotional well-being (Diener, Kahneman, Tov & Arora, 2010). Tay and Diener (2011), across a sample of 123 countries, have evaluated the relation between needs fulfillment and subjective well-being, including life

evaluation, positive feelings, and negative feelings. The authors conclude that this relation was omnipresent in all the studied regions, but while life valuation is more connected to basic needs satisfaction, positive feelings are more related to social needs and concerns.

The second component of this factor is “The organization allows me to have a stable job” (C25). In a society with high levels of unemployment and traditional dependence on the public sector, like Portugal and Spain, it is not surprising that employment security could be an important factor in organizational welfare. According to Probst (2008) there exists a consensus on defining "Job Insecurity" as a subjective evaluation of threat when facing the possibility of losing the job. This construct has suffered a significant projection (Keim, Landis, Pierce & Earnest, 2014) from the moment when Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's (c.f. Keim et al, 2014) published a seminal article on this subject. Later, the same authors have reinforced the idea that this is a psychological construct, mediated by personality factors and depending on how the individual interprets and evaluates the involving work environment, with real consequences on personal and professional life, stress and disruption.

The components "I feel that the organization needs me" (C22) and “I work to achieve my objectives so that organization may achieve global ones” (C34) may be interpreted as a “pro-social” and altruistic attitudes, a concern for balance, with the organization and own job sustainability. Studies demonstrate the positive relationship between physical and psychological well-being with an altruistic behavior (Fredrickson, Cohn, Coffey & Finkel, 2008) and a negative relation with the operational hedonic and social anxiety (Alden, Taylor, Mellings & Laposa, 2008). The motivation for autonomous help originates benefits and the satisfaction of personal needs (Weinstein & Ryan, 2010).

Because of its importance in the literature, the work-life balance could have been considered as an isolated factor contributing to organizational happiness (Crain et al, 2014). The component “I have a good balance between professional and personal life” (C36) does not reflect a real need for safety or social need, but, a balance between these two needs. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) consider the work/family balance as a challenge since the requirements of both are not compatible. Different studies identify the negative impact of excessive working hours on family quality time, also, in the involvement with the community, difficulty to develop social networks, no leisure or time to recover. Recent studies evaluate the negative impact of job performance in the hours of sleeping, as this is key for health and well-being (Barnes, Wagner & Ghumman, 2012; Garroza-Hernández, Carmona-Cobo, Ladstätter, Blanco & Cooper-Thomas, 2013; Steger & Kashdan, 2013).

F5 Leadership

Leadership is an organizational concept deeply studied, and so, it is normally the existence of studies linking leadership with employee's well-being. Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, and Guzman (2010) have developed a review of research works analyzing the impact of leaders, and leadership styles, on employee stress and affective well-being. These researches validate the relationship between leadership styles, employee stress, and affective well-being. Authors recommend, for future research, the use of qualitative data and a deeper evaluation of the process leaders/employee stress, allowing effective actions in the organization.

The "transformational leadership theory" (Burns, 1978) is one of the most cited in the literature. The author defends the importance of having a "meaningful" experience at work. Based on Burns (1978) works, Yukl (1999) proposes an effective model to implement a transformational leadership: develop a challenging and attractive vision together, materialize the vision into strategy and concrete actions, express confidence and optimism in the translation and implementation of the vision into actions, go step by step and achieve quick wins. In our work was able to identify transformational leadership components (characteristics) related with organizational happiness: "All employees know and share the organization vision" (C27), "Management communicates clearly the organization objectives" (C28), "I am involved with organization values" (C30). These results are well supported by Skakon et al. (2010) study, where a strong relationship between transformational leadership and well-being is validated. The same authors concluded that the relationship between transformational leadership and employee well-being is explained by the employees' experience of having a 'meaningful' job.

The second leadership component identified in our study and, considered by respondents, as important for the well-being is "top management leadership is true and inspiring" (C31). No specific literature demonstrating the impact of this leadership characteristic on employees' well-being was found. However, Brown, Treviño and Harrison (2005) described an ethical leader as honest, trustworthy, fair, caring, treats employees with respect, respect promises, allow employees to have input in decisions, manage clearly expectations and responsibilities. Kalshoven and Boon (2012) found evidence about the existence of a strong relationship between ethical leadership, helping and well-being.

Have support from the hierarchy is highly valued by respondents, as a leadership characteristic related to wellbeing at work. That justifies the components: "I have all the support from management" (C32), "I have the tools that I need to develop my work" (C6), "The organization has well-established processes" (C24), "The organization has clear objectives" (C35). The same relation

was previously validated by Gilbreath and Benson (2004) when referring that leader support is related to employee well-being and low stress.

The component “Leaders promote employees wellbeing” (C29) is a form of support and may be defined as the degree to which a leader values subordinate’s contribution and care about his well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). This has been deeply investigated by positive psychology authors, with the aim to identify specific leading strategies that promote the well-being of the organization.

CONCLUSIONS

Prior research on Organizational Happiness considers that this construct could be considered as an integrated framework. Based on the existing literature, a qualitative and quantitative analysis was conducted. The qualitative study allows understanding that the research on Organizational Happiness is directly related to well-being and positive psychology theories. The quantitative study allows measuring the components previously identified. By applying structural equations, first-order and higher-order representations of Organizational Happiness were validated.

A predictive model, using the higher-order representation, shows that Organizational Happiness is influenced by five factors: Workplace Relationships, Acknowledgment & Respect, Continuous Learning, and Personal Development, Sustainability & Job/Family Balance, and Leadership. These factors are hierarchical and cumulative, framing the conditions needed to be happy in an organization. These cumulative factors conceptualized initially by Maslow, is still observed in the actual studies related to subjective well-being. Diener et al. (2010) and Kahneman et al. (1999) refer that the subjective well-being experience could be different depending on one’s needs. Diener et al. (2010) consider that for different levels of affections there are different levels of needs and, so, different forms of subjective well-being. This interpretation is consistent with Maslow's theory when considering that fulfill basic biological needs is the priority. Previous research validates the important relation between low income and well-being, and, in these cases, the priority to achieve the basic to survive. This vision of the “well-being hierarchy” is heuristic and acceptable for the human resources management framework. This higher order model adds value to the existing gap on Organizational Happiness knowledge by: (1) leading to a more comprehensive and integrated framework of Organizational Happiness related to professionals experience, (2) validating that prototype components can be collected and modeled structurally and (3) allowing to demonstrate how lower-level components can be used to influence higher level professionals perceptions.

This research has important contributions for management, allowing managers to know, with scientific evidence, how to promote an Organizational Happiness culture, with a strategic vision. By applying the proposed Organizational Happiness model, managers are willing to identify organizational strengths and weaknesses and, according to priorities, establish effective actions and metrics for evaluation.

Limitations and Further Research

Since the questionnaires collected data at the same time from the same participants, we acknowledge the limitations resulting from the same-respondent studies which can suffer from common method variance (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn & Eden, 2010).

Further research is needed to understand how Organizational Happiness components interact with each other. Experimental research manipulating the features of the Organizational Happiness prototype would complement this cross-sectional research, allowing establishing more unambiguously causal directions. A longitudinal study on Organizational Happiness, including case studies from different industries, would also be of major relevance. Finally, would be relevant to evaluate how national culture may influence Organizational Happiness, components, and factors.

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APPENDIX

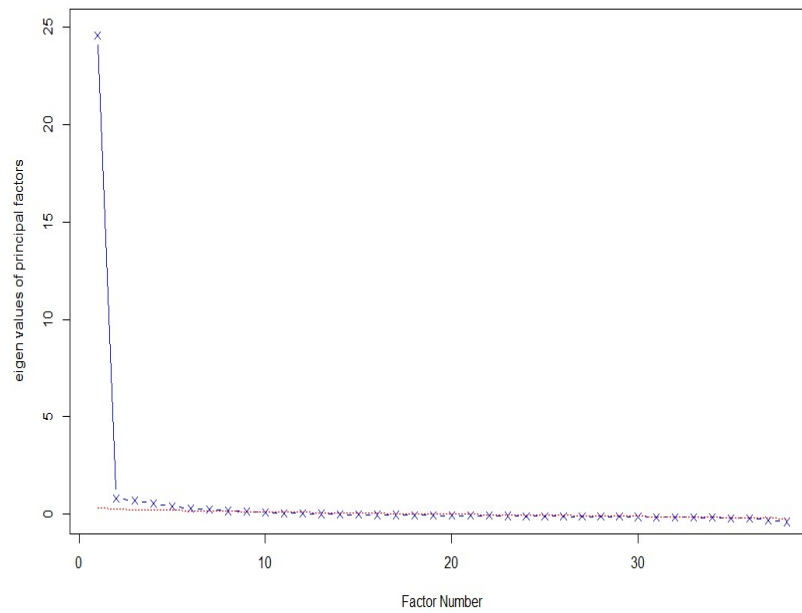


Figure 1 – Scree plot of the parallel analysis, indicating a large decrease in the eigenvalues after the first factor and a slow decrease afterwards. The optimal value, where the lines are crossed was 8 factors.

Table 1 – Unstandardized loadings of the second order CFA, between left factor and right item (factor) and its standard error. Loadings without SE were fixed at value 1.

Items/factors		estimate	SE
F1	PO1	1.00	
F1	PO2	0.94	0.02
F1	PO3	1.12	0.02
F1	PO4	0.96	0.02
F1	PO5	1.08	0.02
F1	PO7	0.91	0.02
F2	PO8	1.00	
F2	PO9	0.9	0.01
F2	PO10	0.86	0.02
F2	PO11	1.07	0.02
F3	PO19	1.00	
F3	PO12	1.22	0.03
F3	PO17	1.17	0.03
F3	PO15	0.91	0.03
F3	PO14	1.20	0.03
F3	PO13	1.15	0.03
F3	PO16	1.17	0.03
F3	PO21	1.10	0.03
F4	PO20	1.00	
F4	PO22	1.16	0.03
F4	PO34	0.63	0.02
F4	PO36	0.79	0.03
F4	PO25	0.96	0.03
F5	PO28	1.00	
F5	PO31	1.09	0.02
F5	PO27	0.94	0.02
F5	PO29	1.01	0.02

Items/factors		estimate	SE
F5	PO35	0.90	0.02
F5	PO30	0.98	0.02
F5	PO32	1.00	0.02
F5	PO24	0.88	0.02
F5	PO6	0.7	0.02
F6	F1	1.00	
F6	F2	1.21	0.03
F6	F3	1.06	0.03
F6	F4	1.09	0.03
F6	F5	1.33	0.03

Table 2 – Unstandardized (co)variances of the second order CFA between left item(factor) and right item (factor) and its standard error.

Items/factors		estimate	SE
PO17	PO15	0.11	0.01
PO14	PO13	0.13	0.01
PO12	PO13	0.10	0.01
PO28	PO27	0.11	0.01
PO28	PO35	0.09	0.01
PO8	PO9	0.11	0.01
PO9	PO10	0.09	0.01
PO12	PO14	0.07	0.01
PO24	PO6	0.09	0.01
PO35	PO24	0.08	0.01
PO31	PO32	0.07	0.01
PO2	PO5	-0.07	0.01
PO20	PO25	0.12	0.02

Items/factors		estimate	SE
PO1	PO1	0.27	0.01
PO2	PO2	0.27	0.01
PO3	PO3	0.24	0.01
PO4	PO4	0.36	0.01
PO5	PO5	0.41	0.02
PO7	PO7	0.58	0.02
PO8	PO8	0.37	0.01
PO9	PO9	0.30	0.01
PO10	PO10	0.29	0.01
PO11	PO11	0.29	0.01
PO19	PO19	0.80	0.03
PO12	PO12	0.24	0.01
PO17	PO17	0.31	0.01
PO15	PO15	0.35	0.01
PO14	PO14	0.30	0.01
PO13	PO13	0.32	0.01
PO16	PO16	0.48	0.02
PO21	PO21	0.38	0.01
PO20	PO20	0.7	0.02
PO22	PO22	0.27	0.01
PO34	PO34	0.41	0.01
PO36	PO36	0.73	0.02
PO25	PO25	0.65	0.02
PO28	PO28	0.40	0.01
PO31	PO31	0.38	0.01
PO27	PO27	0.40	0.01
PO29	PO29	0.26	0.01
PO35	PO35	0.40	0.01
PO30	PO30	0.24	0.01
PO32	PO32	0.33	0.01

Items/factors		estimate	SE
PO24	PO24	0.37	0.01
PO6	PO6	0.50	0.02
F1	F1	0.17	0.01
F2	F2	0.05	0.01
F3	F3	0.04	0.00
F4	F4	0.04	0.01
F5	F5	0.07	0.01
F6	F6	0.66	0.03