Work Well-Being

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Introduction

Only one third of the 100 million full-time employees in the United States feel engaged at work, according to Gallup's 2017 State of the American Workplace. Engaged employees are enthusiastic, productive, and feel good about their job and their lives outside of it. Alternatively, disengaged employees are unhappy and feel psychologically detached from their everyday work and leisure experiences. Understanding how to improve workplace engagement would help enhance individual well-being and also help improve organizational productivity and retention. Why is the experience of workplace well-being so difficult to achieve? We take a psychological perspective on this issue: how people think about work and leisure, when and why these judgments and intuitions can be mis-calibrated, and in turn understanding how to help people make better informed work and leisure decisions. Indeed, both employees and managers hold beliefs about everyday work-related choices (such as how to prioritize leisure time and meet deadlines) as well as major career decisions (such as striving to make more money or attain a certain status) that are built upon mere intuition rather than empirical data, which can affect work well-being in unanticipated ways. This literary guide contains four sections with articles that discuss the misconceptions people have in their thinking about work, both on an everyday basis and throughout their career. *Thinking About Tasks* includes articles both on the errors people make and the processes they should strive for on an everyday basis while trying to accomplish their work. *Thinking About Fun* includes articles about the misconceptions people have about the order and amount of leisure time they

should engage in. *Thinking About Colleagues* draws from the basic psychology of perspective taking to understand how to work more effectively with others. Finally, *Thinking About Career Decisions* draws from the basic psychology of prospection and thinking about the future to understand the decisions people make over the course of their career trajectory that they (sometimes mistakenly) believe will lead them to a happy and successful work life.

Thinking About Tasks

When thinking about accomplishing tasks at work, people make several types of errors. People engage in the *Planning Fallacy* and *Procrastination*, which negatively impact their ability to meet deadlines. Additionally, people multitask (see *Multitasking*) while working, which creates switching costs and decreases performance. However, there are other ways of thinking about work with more positive consequences. People should focus on finding *Flow*, experiencing *Agency*, and establishing intrinsic *Motivation*.

Planning Fallacy

People tend to underestimate how long it will take them to finish a task, a phenomenon known as the planning fallacy. Buehler, et al. 1994 outlines the boundaries and cause of the planning fallacy. Kruger and Evans 2004 and Forsyth and Burt 2008 explore ways to reduce the planning fallacy. Zauberman and Lynch 2005 identify one of the causes of the planning fallacy.

Buehler, R., Griffin, D. and Ross, M. (1994) Exploring the "planning fallacy": Why people underestimate their task completion times. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 67(3): 366–381.
> This article demonstrates that people underestimate their predictions of task completion times for themselves but not for other people. The planning fallacy occurs because people focus on plan-based scenarios rather than relevant past experiences when making predictions.

Kruger, J. and Evans, M. (2004) If you don't want to be late, enumerate: Unpacking reduces the planning fallacy. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*. 40(5): 586–598.
> This article predicts that unpacking a task into its sub-components when making predictions reduces the effects of the planning fallacy.

Forsyth, D. K. and Burt, C. D. B. (2008). Allocating time to future tasks: The effect of task segmentation on planning fallacy bias. *Memory & Cognition*. 36(4): 791–798.
> This article finds that people allocate less time for a single task than the summed time of all of the individual subtasks. This knowledge can be used to reduce the effects of the planning fallacy.

Zauberman,G. and Lynch Jr. J. G. (2005) Resource Slack and Propensity to Discount Delayed Investment of Time Versus Money. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General,* 134(1): 23-27.
> This article identifies slack, or the perceived surplus of a given resource available to complete a focal task, as a reason why people discount delayed outcomes. People expect slack for time to be greater in the future than in the present.

Procrastination

Procrastination is when people postpone or avoid completing a task. Tice and Baumeister 1997 demonstrates that procrastination is a self-defeating behavior that decreases long-term performance. O'Donoghue and Rabin 2001 uncovers circumstances that lead people to procrastinate. Steel 2007 conducts a meta-analysis of procrastination to uncover the possible causes and effects of procrastination.

Finally, Ariely and Wertenbroch 2002, Owens, et al. 2008, and Kaur, et al. 2015 analyze strategies for reducing procrastination.

Tice, D. M. and Baumeister, R. F. (1997) Longitudinal Study of Procrastination, Performance, Stress, and Health: The Costs and Benefits of Dawdling. *Psychological Science*. 8(6): 454–458.
> This article demonstrates that procrastination is a self-defeating behavior with short-term gains and long-term losses. By following students throughout a semester, this study finds that procrastinators were overall more prone to illness and received worse grades than non-procrastinators.

O'Donoghue, T. and Rabin, M. (2001) Choice and Procrastination. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*. 116(1): 121–160.
> This article demonstrates that people sometimes forego completing an attractive option when they are offered a more attractive but never-to-be-completed option. As a result, providing additional options can induce procrastination.

Steel, P. (2007) The nature of procrastination: A meta-analytic and theoretical review of quintessential self-regulatory failure. *Psychological Bulletin*. 133(1): 65–94.
> This article conducts a meta-analysis to discover the possible cause and effects of procrastination. Task aversiveness, task delay, self-efficacy, impulsiveness, and several facets of conscientiousness were found to be strong and consistent predictors of procrastination.

Ariely, D. and Wertenbroch, K. (2002) Procrastination, Deadlines, and Performance: Self-Control by Precommitment. *Psychological Science*. 13(3): 219–224.
> This article examines the effect of self-imposed deadlines on procrastination. Self-imposed deadlines help people control procrastination, but they are not as effective as externally imposed deadlines in improving task performance.

Owens, S. G., Bowman, C. G. and Dill, C. A. (2008) Overcoming Procrastination: The Effect of Implementation Intentions. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*. 38(2): 366–384.
> This article tests implementation intentions as a strategy for overcoming procrastination. Implementation intentions are an if-then plan that outlines in advance how one intends to strive for a set goal.

Kaur, S., Kremer, M. and Mullainathan, S. (2015) Self-Control at Work. *Journal of Political Economy*. 123(6): 1227–1277.
> This article examines data from a yearlong field experiment with full-time data entry workers. Results indicate that workplace features such as high-powered incentives and effort monitoring can increase self-control, thereby reducing procrastination.

Multitasking

Multitasking is when a person tries to deal with more than one task at the same time. Multitasking is associated with worse performance and reduced information retention. Rubinstein, et al. 2001 demonstrates the cognitive costs of switching between tasks. Etkin and Mogilner 2016 show the detrimental effect of multitasking on happiness. Colom, et al. 2010 examines the relationship between intelligence, working memory capacity, and multitasking. Hembrooke and Gay 2003 describes the negative effects of browsing the Internet during class on memory, while Bowman, et al. 2010 explores the negative impact of online communication on reading comprehension. Staats and Gino 2012 show how the period of time moderates the effect of task switching.

Rubinstein, J. S., Meyer, D. E., & Evans, J. E. (2001). Executive control of cognitive processes in task switching. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance,* 27(4), 763-797.
    This article examines cognitive performance after switching tasks and discovers that switching between tasks has additive costs.

Etkin, J. and Mogilner C. (2016). Does Variety Among Activities Increase Happiness? *Journal of Consumer Research,* 43(2): 210-229
    This article explores how a variety of activities impacts happiness. Variety increases happiness for longer periods of time (such as a day); however, it decreases happiness for shorter periods of time (such as an hour).

Colom, R. Martinez-Molina A., Chun Shih, P., and Santacreu, J. (2010) Intelligence, working memory, and multitasking performance. *Intelligence.* 38(6): 543–551.
    This article examines the relationship between intelligence, working memory capacity, and multitasking. While multitasking is related to both intelligence and working memory capacity, only working memory capacity predicts multitasking when considering their simultaneous relationship.

Hembrooke, H. and Gay, G. (2003) The laptop and the lecture: The effects of multitasking in learning environments. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education.* 15(1): 46–64.
    This article finds that students who are allowed to browse the Internet during lecture have a worse memory of the lecture content than students who are not allowed to use their computers.

Bowman, L. L., Levine, L., Waite, B., and Gendron, M. (2010) Can students really multitask? An experimental study of instant messaging while reading. *Computers & Education.* 54(4): 927–931.
    This article finds that students who instant message while reading a passage online took longer to read the passage and performed worse on a comprehension test of the passage.

Staats, B. R. and Gino, F. (2012). Specialization and Variety in Repetitive Tasks: Evidence from a Japanese Bank. *Management Science,* 58(6): 1141-1159.
    This article uses transaction data from a Japanese bank to compare specialization (repeating one task) and variety (working on different tasks) as strategies for sustaining productivity when completing repetitive tasks. Over the course of a day, specialization improves productivity compared to variety. However, across a number of days variety improves worker productivity.

Flow

Flow is a state of consciousness characterized by deep enjoyment, creativity, and complete involvement. Csikszentmihalyi and LeFevre 1989 finds that experiences of flow are more likely to occur while working than while engaging in leisure. Csikszentmihalyi 2009 depicts how flow can be controlled to improve overall life quality. Walker 2010 finds that experiencing flow with other people is more enjoyable than experiencing flow alone. Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi 2014 describes the flow model of optimal experience and summarizes how it has been studied over the years.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. and LeFevre, J. (1989) Optimal experience in work and leisure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* 56(5): 815–822.
    This article finds that the majority of flow experiences are reported when working instead of during leisure.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2009). Flow: the psychology of optimal experience. New York: Harper Row.
    This book describes how flow can be controlled to improve overall life quality.

Walker, C. J. (2010) Experiencing flow: Is doing it together better than doing it alone? *The Journal of Positive Psychology*. 5(1): 3–11.
    This article finds that social flow is more enjoyable than solitary flow.

Nakamura, J. and Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2014) 'The Concept of Flow' in *Flow and the Foundations of Positive Psychology: The Collected Works of Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi*. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands. 239–263.
    This chapter describes the flow model of optimal experience, explains how flow has been measured, discusses recent work in this area, and identifies directions for future research.

Agency

Agency refers to the ability to intentionally influence one's functioning and life circumstances. These articles demonstrate that experiencing agency is critical for achieving well-being at work. Bandura 2006 discusses the core properties of agency. Bandura 1982 depicts the importance of self-efficacy in feeling a sense of agency. Eteläpelto, et al. 2013 conceptualizes professional agency at work. Krishna 2001 finds that agency, in addition to social capital, is necessary for achieving high development performance. Finally, Welzel and Inglehart 2010 describes how feelings of agency are linked to well-being.

Bandura, A. (2006) Toward a Psychology of Human Agency. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*. 1(2): 164–180.
    This article discusses the core properties of human agency, the different forms it takes, its ontological and epistemological status, its role in causal structures and growing role in coevolution, and its influence on cultural systems.

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*. 37(2): 122-147.
    This article analyzes the importance of self-efficacy in human agency.

Eteläpelto, A., Vähäsantanen, K., Hökkä, P., and Paloniemi, S.(2013) What is agency? Conceptualizing professional agency at work. *Educational Research Review*. 10: 45–65.
    This article provides a critical review of the concept of agency and suggests a conceptualization of professional agency at work from a subject-centered socio-cultural perspective. This conceptualization treats individual agency and social context as analytically separate, but highly interdependent.

Krishna, A. (2001) Moving from the Stock of Social Capital to the Flow of Benefits: The Role of Agency. *World Development*. 29(6): 925–943.
    This article demonstrates that without agency, a high level of social capital does not always improve development. A combination of high social capital and agency is associated with increased development outcomes.

Welzel, C. and Inglehart, R. (2010) Agency, Values, and Well-Being: A Human Development Model. *Social Indicators Research*. 97(1): 43–63.
    This article argues that feelings of agency are linked to well-being through a series of adaptive mechanisms that promote human development.

Motivation

Motivating employees is important for incentivizing productive performance on a day-to-day basis. Sansone and Harachiewicz 2000 provide a review of research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Then, both Amabile 1993 and Lepper and Henderlong 2000 propose mechanisms that combine the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the workplace. Nadler and Lawler 1977 outlines how employers can effectively utilize motivation. Finally, Desi and Ryan 2000 outline self-determination theory, and Gagné and Deci 2005 describe how self-determination theory can enhance work motivation.

Sansone, C. and Harackiewicz, J. M. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: The search for optimal motivation and performance. San Diego, California: Academic Press.
> This book provides an extensive review of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. It focuses on answering the question of whether rewards are beneficial or harmful for intrinsic motivation and creativity.

Amabile, T. M. (1993) Motivational synergy: Toward new conceptualizations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the workplace. *Human Resource Management Review*. 3(3): 185–201.
> This article proposes two mechanisms, extrinsics in service of intrinsics and the motivation-work cycle match, which combine the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. These motivational combinations should lead to high levels of employee satisfaction and performance.

Lepper, M. R. and Henderlong, J. (2000) Turning "play" into "work" and "work" into "play": 25 years of research on intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation, in *Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: The search for optimal motivation and performance.* San Diego, CA, US: Academic Press. 257–307
> This chapter explores differences in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. While intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be in conflict, it is also possible for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to work together to positively affect behavior.

Nadler, D. and Lawler, E. E. (1977). Motivation: a diagnostic approach. New York: OR & C, Organizational Research and Consultation.
> This book explains how employers can utilize motivation to understand causes of behaviors, predict the effects of managerial actions, and direct behavior towards organizational goals.

Deci, E. L. and Ryan R. M (2000) The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry,* 11(4): 227-268.
> This article outlines how self-determination theory specifies the necessary conditions for psychological growth, integrity, and well-being. Self-determination theory is an understanding of motivation that considers the fundamental needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness.

Gagné, M. and Deci, E. L. (2005) Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. 26(4): 331–362.
> This article depicts self-determination theory as a theory of work motivation and shows its relevance to theories of organizational behavior.

Thinking About Fun

Over half of Americans work more than 40 hours a week, according to Gallup's State of the American Workplace. But how does the increase in time at work influence well-being? This section discusses the perils of *Overworking* and the *Benefits of Leisure*. In addition, it reviews people's intuitions about the *Order* of leisure and attempts to promote *Workplace Fun*. Finally, several articles analyze the *Wellness Programs* that have been established to offset the negative health consequences of work.

Overworking

Despite improvements in productivity and modern technology, according to the 2014 Gallup poll, the average workweek has increased to over 45 hours. Why do people continue to work so much? Hsee, et al. 2013 examines the phenomenon of overearning in the lab. Clark, et al. 2014, Schaufeli, et al. 2008, and Peiperl and Jones 2001 all explore the definition and consequences of workaholism.

Hsee, C. K., Zhang, J., Cai, C., and Zhang, S. (2013) Overearning. *Psychological Science*. 24(6): 852–859.
> This article explores overearning in the laboratory and finds that people work and earn until they feel tired rather than until they have enough, often at the cost of happiness.

Clark, M. A., Michel, J., Zhdanova, L., Pui, S., and Baltes, B. (2014) All Work and No Play? A Meta-Analytic Examination of the Correlates and Outcomes of Workaholics. *Journal of Management*. 42(7): 1836–1873.
> This article proposes a definition for workaholism and then conducts a meta-analysis of the correlates and outcomes of workaholism.

Schaufeli, W. B., Taris, T. W. and van Rhenen, W. (2008) Workaholism, Burnout, and Work Engagement: Three of a Kind or Three Different Kinds of Employee Well-being? *Applied Psychology*. 57(2): 173–203.
> This article provides evidence that workaholism, burnout, and work engagement are three different kinds of employee well-being rather than three of a kind.

Peiperl, M. and Jones, B. (2001) Workaholics and Overworkers: Productivity or Pathology? *Group & Organization Management*. 26(3): 369–393.
> This article differentiates workaholics from overworkers.

Benefits of Leisure

These articles demonstrate the benefits of taking a break from work and engaging in leisure activities. Westman and Eden 1997 and Westman and Etzion 2001 explore the effects of vacation on job stress and burnout. Sonnentag 2003 finds that recovery during leisure time leads to greater work engagement and proactive behavior the next day. Sonnentag and Zijlstra 2006 finds higher job demands lead to a greater need for recovery. Both Etzion, et al. 1998 and Sonnentag and Fritz 2015 demonstrate the positive effects of psychological detachment from work.

Westman, M. and Eden, D. (1997) Effects of a respite from work on burnout: Vacation relief and fade-out. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 82(4): 516–527.
> This article examines job stress and burnout before, during, and after vacation. Results show a decline in burnout during the vacation. Burnout partially returns to its pre-vacation level 3 days after the vacation and all the way by 3 weeks after the vacation.

Westman, M. and Etzion, D. (2001) The impact of vacation and job stress on burnout and absenteeism. *Psychology & Health*. Routledge. 16(5): 595–606.
> The article shows that vacation alleviates perceived job stress and burnout, leadings to reduced absenteeism. However, consistent with previous research, declines in burnout and absenteeism returned to pre-vacation levels four weeks after the vacation.

Sonnentag, S. (2003). Recovery, work engagement, and proactive behavior: A new look at the interface between nonwork and work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*: 88(3): 518-528.
>   This article finds recovery during leisure time is associated with increased work engagement and proactive behavior on a day-to-day basis.

Sonnentag, S. and Zijlstra, F. R. H. (2006). Job characteristics and off-job activities as predictors of need for recovery, well-being, and fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 91(2): 330-350.
>   This article finds that high job demands, low job control, and unfavorable off-job activities predict a high need for recovery, which is negatively related to individual well-being.

Etzion, D., Eden, D., and Lapidot, Y. (1998) Relief from job stressors and burnout: Reserve service as a respite. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 83(4): 577–585.
>   This article finds a significant decline in job stress and burnout among individuals called for active reserve service. The quality of reserve service and degree of psychological detachment from work moderates the positive effects. The greater the detachment, the stronger the effect of reserve service on relieving stress and decreasing burnout.

Sonnentag, S. and Fritz C. (2015) Recovery from job stress: The stressor-detachment model as an integrative framework, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. 36(1): 72–103.
>   This article uses the stressor-detachment model to demonstrate that job stressors predict low levels of psychological detachment. A lack of detachment in turn predicts high strain levels and poor individual well-being.

Order

These articles demonstrate that people hold a series of false beliefs about how the order of events affects enjoyment. Loewenstein and Prelec 1993 demonstrates how framing impacts order preferences. Novemsky and Ratner 2003 shows that people incorrectly expect to enjoy an experience more when it follows a worse experience. O'Brien and Ellsworth 2012 discovers that when the last event in a sequence is made salient, it becomes more enjoyable. O'Brien and Roney 2017 finds people falsely believe that leisure should be saved for last. Xu and Schwarz 2009 demonstrates that people also hold an incorrect intuition that indulging is less enjoyable without a reason or as a consolation.

Loewenstein, G. F. and Prelec, D. (1993) Preferences for sequences of outcomes. *Psychological Review*. 100(1): 91–108.
>   This article finds that framing impacts order preference. While people typically prefer valuable outcomes sooner rather than later, this preferences reverses when the choices are framed as a sequence of outcomes. When the sequence context is highlighted, people prefer utility levels that improve over time.

Novemsky, N. and Ratner, R. K. (2003) The Time Course and Impact of Consumers' Erroneous Beliefs about Hedonic Contrast Effects. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 29(4): 507–516.
>   This article demonstrates that people incorrectly expect to enjoy an experience more when it follows a worse experience. People continue to expect hedonic contrast effects even after they do not experience such effects.

O'Brien, E. and Ellsworth, P. C. (2012) Saving the Last for Best: A Positivity Bias for End Experiences. *Psychological Science*. 23(2): 163–165.

This article finds that when the last event in a series is made salient, not only does the event become more enjoyable, but also the entire experience is more enjoyable.

O'Brien, E. and Roney, E. (2017) Worth the Wait? Leisure Can Be Just as Enjoyable With Work Left Undone, *Psychological Science*. 28(7): 1000-1015.
    This article demonstrates that people hold a false intuition that leisure should be saved for last because people believe they will be distracted by looming work. However, in reality, leisure experiences are similarly enjoyable regardless of order.

Xu, J. and Schwarz, N. (2009) Do We Really Need a Reason to Indulge? *Journal of Marketing Research*. 46(1): 25–36.
    People expect more negative and less positive feelings when they indulge without a reason than when they indulge with a reason or when they indulge as a consolation for poor performance than when they indulge as a reward for high effort. However, studies show there is no difference between indulging without or without a reason or as a consolation versus a reward.

Workplace Fun

Can work be made fun? These articles analyze attempts to bring fun into the workplace. Laran and Janiszewski 2011 examines the contextual factors that influence the motivation for completing a task. Owler, et al. 2010 provides an overview of implementing fun at work initiatives, while Karl, et al. 2005 examines differences in interpretations of workplace fun between the public, private, and non-profit sectors. Holmes and Marra 2002 and Fatt 2002 specifically explore the role of humor in the workplace. Finally, Mollick and Rothbard 2014 examines the impact of mandatory games in the workplace.

Laran, J. and Janiszewski, C. (2011) Work or Fun? How Task Construal and Completion Influence Regulatory Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 37(6): 967–983.
    This article demonstrates that contextual factors influence the construal of a task, the motivation for completing it, and subsequent regulatory behavior. When a behavior is construed as an obligation to work, completing the behavior is depleting and self-control is more difficult. If instead a behavior is construed as an opportunity for fun, completing the behavior is vitalizing and self-control is easier.

Owler, K., Morrison, R., and Plester, B. (2010). Does fun work? The complexity of promoting fun at work. *Journal of Management & Organization*. 16(3): 338-352.
    This article reviews management literature promoting fun work to highlight the complexity of implementing fun at work initiatives in practice.

Karl, K., Peluchette, J., Hall-Indiana, L., and Harland, L. (2005) Attitudes Toward Workplace Fun: A Three Sector Comparison. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*. 12(2): 1–17.
    This article compares employees' attitudes toward fun and perceptions of what is fun across three sectors: public, non-profit, and private.

Fatt, J. P. T. (2002) When business can be fun. *Management Research News*. 25(1): 39-48.
    This article outlines the benefits of humor in the workplace and provides suggestions for employers.

Holmes, J. and Marra, M. (2002) Having a laugh at work: how humour contributes to workplace culture. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 34(12): 1683–1710.
    This article explores the potential of humor analysis for identifying characteristics of workplace sub-cultures that develop within different organizations.

Mollick, E. R. and Rothbard, N. (2014), Mandatory Fun: Consent, Gamification and the Impact of Games at Work. *The Wharton School Research Paper Series*.
> This article examines whether managerially imposed games provide benefits for affect and performance or whether they are a form of mandatory fun. Games at work increase positive affect when they are consented to, but decrease positive affect when consent is lacking.

Wellness Programs
According to Gallup's 2017 State of the American Workplace, 58% of employees in America say that their company offers wellness programs. Workplace wellness programs are intended to increase workplace well-being by improving health outcomes and decreasing health disparities. Do these programs work? Gebhardt and Crump 1990, Parks and Steelman 2008, and Goetzel, et al. 2014 assess the effectiveness of work programs aimed at improving health wellness. Finally, Berry, et al. 2010 discusses the extent to which wellness programs save money for employers.

Gebhardt, D. L. and Crump, C. E. (1990) Employee fitness and wellness programs in the workplace. *American Psychologist*. 45(2): 262–272.
> This article finds wellness programs result in not only increased levels of fitness and a reduction in the risk factors for coronary heart disease, but also a reduction in health care costs, absenteeism, and turnover.

Parks, K. M. and Steelman, L. A. (2008). Organizational wellness programs: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*. 13(1): 58-68.
> This article conducts a meta-analysis and finds participation in an organizational wellness program is associated with decreased absenteeism and increased job satisfaction. The meta-analysis also examines the moderating factors that increase and decrease these links.

Goetzel, R. Z., et al. (2014) Do Workplace Health Promotion (Wellness) Programs Work? *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*. 56(9): 927-934.
> This article analyses evidence accumulated over the past three decades to show that well-designed and well-executed programs that are founded on evidence-based principles can achieve positive health and financial outcomes.

Berry, L., Mirabito, A. M., and Baun, W. B. (2010) What's the Hard Return on Employee Wellness Programs? *Harvard Business Review.*
> This article discusses how with tax incentives and grants, US companies can use wellness programs to reduce their health care costs.

Thinking About Colleagues
Relationships at work influence productivity in many ways. *Perspective Taking* at work allows people to increase empathy and change expectations when interacting with a manager or co-worker. Providing effective *Feedback and Appraisal* is another way that interpersonal communication impacts performance outcomes. Finally, workplace *Power Dynamics* and *Groups and Diversity* establish relationship and decision-making norms that impact workplace productivity and engagement.

Perspective Taking
When managers engage in perspective taking and expect the most from their employees, it improves employee performance. Rothenberg 2003 examines the power of situation on employee performance.

Sadri, et al. 2011 demonstrates the benefits of manager empathy. Then, Dipboye 1982, Eden 1992, and Livingston 2016 explore how the self-fulfilling prophecy, also referred to as Pygmalion, affects employee performance.

Rothenberg, S. (2003). Knowledge content and worker participation in environmental management at NUMMI. *Journal of Management Studies*. 40(7): 1783-1802.
> This article highlights the general power of the situation. Putting bad employees in contexts with effective management structures can bring positive results.

Sadri, G., Weber, T. J., and Gentry, W. A. (2011). Empathic emotion and leadership performance: An empirical analysis across 38 countries. *The Leadership Quarterly. 22*(5): 818-830.
> This article shows that leaders who practice more empathy are perceived as better performers by their bosses.

Dipboye, R. L. (1982) Self-Fulfilling Prophecies in the Selection-Recruitment Interview. *Academy of Management Review*. 7(4): 579–586.
> This article demonstrates the self-fulfilling prophecy at work. When bosses think highly of their employees then employees tend to perform better.

Eden, D. (1992) Leadership and expectations: Pygmalion effects and other self-fulfilling prophecies in organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 3(4): 271–305.
> This article describes the Pygmalion effect as a type of self-fulfilling prophecy where raising manager expectations for employee performance results in an increase in performance.

Livingston, J. S. (2016). Pygmalion in Management. *Harvard Business Review.*
> This article shows what managers expect of subordinates and the way they treat them determines employees' performance and career progress.

Feedback and Appraisal

Articles in this section explore employee reactions to feedback and appraisal from managers. Garvin, et al. 2014 explores the components of creating a learning organization. Ilgen, et al. 1979 examines the processes by which feedback influences behavior. Earley 1986 demonstrates differences in reactions to feedback between the US and the UK. Finally, Boswell and Boudreau 2000 and Jawahar 2007 explore perceptions, reactions, and satisfaction with performance appraisals.

Garvin, D. A., Edmondson, A. C., and Gino, F. (2014). Is Yours a Learning Organization? *Harvard Business Review.*
> This article describes the goal of becoming a learning organization, where employees are skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge.

Ilgen, D. R., Fisher, C. D. and Taylor, M. S. (1979) Consequences of individual feedback on behavior in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 64(4): 349–371.
> This article reviews the processes by which feedback influences behavior, specifically focusing on the way the feedback is perceived, the acceptance by the recipient, and the willingness of the recipient to respond.

Earley, P. C. (1986) Trust, Perceived Importance of Praise and Criticism, and Work Performance: An Examination of Feedback in the United States and England. *Journal of Management*. 12(4): 457–473.

This article examines how performance feedback shapes work behavior in the US versus the UK. The results suggest that American and English workers value and respond to praise and criticism differently. The influence of the feedback is mediated by workers' trust in and perceived importance of the feedback.

Boswell, W. R. and Boudreau, J. W. (2000). Employee satisfaction with performance appraisals and appraisers: The role of perceived appraisal use. *Human Resource Development Quarterly. 11*(3): 283-299.

This article examines how the use of the performance appraisal impacts employee satisfaction with both the appraisal and appraiser.

Jawahar, I.M. (2007) The Influence of Perceptions of Fairness on Performance Appraisal Reactions. *Journal of Labor Research.* 28(4): 735-754.

This article integrates the literature on fairness perceptions and appraisal reactions. The success of appraisal systems depends on perceptions of fairness and reactions to the appraisal process.

Power Dynamics

This section contains articles that describe the effects of power, persuasion, and peer influence in the workplace. Magee and Galinsky 2008 defines power and status as well as their roles in hierarchies. Galinsky, et al. 2006 finds power to be associated with fewer perspective taking abilities. Cialdini 2017 offers advice for how to learn and apply persuasion, while Griskevicius, et al. 2008 unpacks the consequences of peer influence. Gabarro and Kotter 2017 offers advice for managing one's relationship with your boss. Finally, Cohen-Charash and Mueller 2007 finds that envy and perceived unfairness lead to counterproductive work behavior.

Magee, J. C. and Galinsky, A. D. (2008). The Self-Reinforcing Nature of Social Hierarchy: Origins and Consequences of Power and Status. *Academy of Management Annals. 2*(1): 351-398.

This article defines power and status as important yet distinct bases of hierarchical differentiation. While power is related to one's control over resources, status refers to the respect one has in the eyes of others.

Galinsky, A. D., Magee, J. C., Inesi, M. I., and Gruenfeld, D. H. (2006). Power and Perspectives Not Taken. *Psychological Science. 17*(12): 1068-1074.

This article finds power to be associated with a reduced tendency to comprehend how other people see, think, and feel.

Cialdini, R. B. (2017). Harnessing the Science of Persuasion. *Harvard Business Review.*

This article highlights how persuasion skills can be taught and applied.

Griskevicius, V., Cialdini, R. B., and Goldstein, N. J. (2008). Applying (and Resisting) Peer Influence. *MIT Sloan Management Review.*

This article explores two crucial components of peer influence: when people seek to influence the actions of others and when people attempt to interpret the causes of their actions.

Gabarro, J. J. and Kotter, J. P. (2017). Managing Your Boss. *Harvard Business Review.*

This article describes how successfully managing your relationship with your boss involves understanding both your supervisor and yourself, particularly strengths, weaknesses, work styles, and needs.

Cohen-Charash, Y. and Mueller, J. S. (2007) Does perceived unfairness exacerbate or mitigate interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors related to envy? *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 92(3): 666–680.

> This study finds higher levels of envy and perceived unfairness result in higher levels of counterproductive interpersonal work behavior.

Groups and Diversity

This collection of articles outlines common problems in group thinking and how diversity within the group influences those problems. Janis 1991 describes the problem of groupthink, while Harvey 1988 explores the Abilene paradox, two problematic processes of group decision-making. Surowiecki 2014 outlines how large groups are better at making decisions than small groups, while Mannes, et al. 2014 proposes an alternative select-crowd strategy. Larrick and Soll 2006 demonstrates that people hold incorrect views about averaging estimates and opinions. Finally, Mannix and Neale 2005 shows that diversity is not always the solution to group decision-making.

Janis, I. (1991). Groupthink. In E. Griffin (Ed.) A First Look at Communication Theory (pp. 235 - 246). New York: McGraw Hill.

> This chapter explores the concept and symptoms of groupthink, a mode of thinking where group members strive for unanimity.

Harvey, J. B. (1988). The Abilene paradox: The management of agreement. *Organizational Dynamics. 17*(1): 17-43.

> This article describes the Abilene paradox, where organizations take actions in contradiction to what they really want and as a result defeat the very purposes they are trying to achieve.

Surowiecki, J. (2014). *The wisdom of crowds why the many are smarter than the few*. London: Abacus.

> This book explains how large groups of people are better than elite few at solving problems, fostering innovation, making smart decisions, and predicting future events.

Mannes, A. E., Soll, J. B., and Larrick, R. P. (2014). Wisdom of Select Crowds. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 107*(2): 276-299.

> This article states that both averaging and relying on a single judge are not ideal decision-making strategies. Instead, this article proposes select-crowd strategy, which ranks judges based the accuracy of several recent judgments and averages the opinions of the top judges.

Larrick, R. P. and Soll, J. B. (2006). Intuitions About Combining Opinions: Misappreciation of the Averaging Principle. *Management Science. 52*(1): 111-127.

> This article demonstrates that people often hold incorrect beliefs about averaging. People falsely believe that the average of two judges' estimates is just as accurate as the average judge.

Mannix, E. and Neale, M. A. (2005). What Differences Make a Difference? *Psychological Science in the Public Interest. 6*(2): 31-55.

> While diversity is thought to increase variety in perspectives and approaches to solving problems, evidence suggests that diversity can cause social divisions, which creates negative performance outcomes for the group. This article explores the problematic ways in which diversity is often defined and categorized.

Thinking About Career Decisions
People often attempt to increase their well-being by prioritizing money and status as career goals. This section includes important but often under-considered career decisions, such as *Commuting*, as well as other significant factors such as *Finding a Job that Fits* and *Passion* for your work. Finally, this section discusses people's intuitions about *Money and Happiness* and "Forecasting Career Change."

Commuting
A large portion of an employee's time is spent commuting to and from work. These articles demonstrate that because long commutes increase overall stress, commute method and time is an important factor for well-being. Stutzer and Frey 2008 discovers that people who have longer commutes to work have systematically lower subjective well-being. Evans, et al. 2002 explores the unpredictability of train commutes as an explanation for the increased stress, while Schaeffer, et al. 1988 uncovers how a lack of control over the car impacts stress. Wener and Evans 2011 compares differences in commute stress between people who drive a car versus take the train to work. Finally, Lucas and Heady 2002 examines flexible working hours as a potential solution to the stress caused by commuting.

Stutzer, A. and Frey, B. S. (2008) Stress that Doesn't Pay: The Commuting Paradox. *Scandinavian Journal of Economics*. 110(2): 339–366.
> This article finds that overall people with longer commutes to work have lower subjective well-being, which defies economic predictions of equilibrium.

Evans, G. W., Wener, R. E. and Phillips, D. (2002) The Morning Rush Hour: Predictability and Commuter Stress. *Environment and Behavior*. 34(4): 521–530.
> This article examines commute unpredictability as an explanation for why daily commutes lead to greater stress.

Schaeffer, M. H., Street, S., Singer, J., & Baum, A. (1988) Effects of Control on the Stress Reactions of Commuters. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*. 18(11): 944–957.
> This article examines how control over the driving route and internal environment of the car during rush hour traffic influence commute stress.

Wener, R. E. and Evans, G. W. (2011) Comparing stress of car and train commuters. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*. 14(2): 111–116.
> This article provides a comparison of stress and mood in car and train commuters. Car commuters are found to have higher levels of stress and worse moods than people who commute to work by train.

Lucas, J. L. and Heady, R. B. (2002) Flextime Commuters and Their Driver Stress, Feelings of Time Urgency, and Commute Satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Psychology*. 16(4): 565–571.
> This article finds that commuters with flexibility in their working hours have less driving stress, fewer feelings of urgency, and more commute satisfaction.

Finding a Job that Fits
How do you find the right job for you? One distinction in the literature is between person-job and person-organization fit. Saks and Ashforth 2002 and Kristof-Brown 2000 distinguish between person-job and person-organization fit on recruitment and employment quality. Instead, Chen, et al. 2015 differentiates between fit and develop theories on finding passion for work. Cable and Judge 1996 finds that person-organization fit impacts work attitudes, while Wheeler, et al. 2007 discovers person-organization fit is not a sole determinant of high turnover.

Saks, A. M. and Ashforth, B. E. (2002) Is job search related to employment quality? It all depends on the fit. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 87(4): 646–654.
    This longitudinal study finds person-job and person-organization fit perceptions during the job search influence employment quality.

Kristof-Brown, A. L. (2000) Perceived applicant fit: Distinguishing between recruiters' perceptions of person-job and person-organization fit. *Personnel Psychology*. 53(3): 643–671.
    This article finds that recruiters distinguish between person-job and person-organization fit early in the interview process, which results in different hiring recommendations.

Chen, P., Ellsworth, P. C. and Schwarz, N. (2015) Finding a Fit or Developing It. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*. 41(10): 1411-1424.
    This article compares two perspectives on how passion for work is obtained. Fit theorists believe passion for work is obtained through finding the right career path, while develop theorists believe a passion for work is created over time. The two theories result in different motivations and behaviors, but similar well-being and job success.

Cable, D. M. and Judge, T. A. (1996) Person–Organization Fit, Job Choice Decisions, and Organizational Entry. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*. 67(3): 294–311.
    This article finds person-organization job perceptions predict the similarity between employee and organization values, but not their demographics. Because person-organization fit predicts job intentions and work attitudes, job seekers can manage their future work attitudes by considering person-organization fit in their job choice decisions.

Wheeler, A. R., Gallagher, V., Brouer, R., and Sablynski, C. (2007) When person-organization (mis)fit and (dis)satisfaction lead to turnover: The moderating role of perceived job mobility. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. 22(2): 203–219.
    This article demonstrates that person-organization misfit and job dissatisfaction does not necessarily lead to high turnover. Instead, perceived job mobility moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to switch jobs.

Passion

People often strive to find passion at work. What is passion at work and is it always positive? Cardon, et al. 2009 outlines a theory of entrepreneurial passion to serve as a basis for future research. Perttula and Cardon 2011 explore how to achieve passion at work, Chen and Ellsworth (in press) describe how you can develop passion as well as discover it. Likewise, O'Keefe, Dweck, and Walton (in press) describe some problems with particular theories. Then, Vallerand, et al. 2003 proposes a dualistic model of passion that distinguishes harmonious passion from obsessive passion. Vallerand and Houlfort 2003, Lavigne, et al. 2012 and Forest, et al. 2011 continue to research the effects of the dualistic model.

Cardon, M. S., Wincent, J., Singh, J., & Drnovsek, M. (2009) The nature and experience of entrepreneurial passion. *Academy of Management Review*. 34(3): 511–532.
    This article proposes a theory of entrepreneurial passion in order to examine what passion is and what it does for entrepreneurs.

Perttula, K. H. and Cardon, M. S. (2011) Passion. *The Oxford handbook of positive organizational scholarship* (pp. 190-200). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

This chapter explores passion in the context of entrepreneurial activity. It reviews how proactive actions at work enable people to leverage their skills in order to achieve their passions at work.

Chen, P. and Ellsworth, P. (in press). Lay theories of how passion for work is achieved. *Passion for Work: Determinants and Consequences.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
This chapter discusses various mindsets for passion at work, in particular fit theory and develop theory. People with fit theory select jobs they enjoy immediately, while people with develop theory instead focus on cultivating passion over time.

O'Keefe, P. A., Dweck, C. S. and Walton, G. M. (in press). Implicit theories of interest: Finding your passion or developing it? *Psychological Science.*
This article experimentally documents different motivational implications for holding different beliefs about passion for work. Participants with a fixed theory of passion at work (i.e., the belief that you either do or do not have passion for your job) were worse off on various outcomes compared to participants with a growth theory of passion at work (i.e., the belief that you have to work to find your passion), such as by having less interest to develop their passion and find new interests.

Vallerand, R. J. Blanchard, C., Mageau, G. A., Koestner, R., Ratelle, C., Léonard, M., Gagne, M. and Marsolais, J. (2003) Les passions de l'âme: On obsessive and harmonious passion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* 85(4): 756-767.
This article proposes two types of passion for work: harmonious and obsessive. Harmonious passion promotes healthy adaptation, while obsessive passion thwarts adaptation by causing negative affect and rigid persistence.

Vallerand, R. J. and Houlfort, N. (2003). Passion at work: Toward a new conceptualization. *Emerging Perspectives on Values in Organizations* (pp. 175-201). Greenwich, Connecticut: Information Age Publishing.
This chapter explains that because the majority of people value, enjoy, and devote significant time and energy to their work, they develop a passion towards work, However, depending on whether the passion is harmonious or obsessive, passion at work may be adaptive or maladaptive.

Lavigne, G. L., Forest, J. and Crevier-Braud, L. (2012) Passion at work and burnout: A two-study test of the mediating role of flow experiences. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology.* 21(4): 518–546.
This article finds harmonious passion decreases the amount of burnout, while obsessive passion increases levels of burnout.

Forest, J., Mageau, G., Sarrazin, C., & Morin, E. (2011) "Work is my passion": The different affective, behavioural, and cognitive consequences of harmonious and obsessive passion toward work. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences.* 28(1): 27–40.
This article examines the relationship between harmonious and obsessive passion with optimal functioning at work. Harmonious passion is associated positively with: mental health, elements of flow, vitality, and affective commitment. In contrast, obsessive passion predicts poor mental health.

Money and Happiness
What is the relationship between money and happiness? Kahneman and Deaton 2010 finds high levels of income influence life satisfaction but not emotional well-being. Aknin, et al. 2009 explores people's mispredictions about how income affects life satisfaction. Dunn, et al. 2008 finds the way you spend your

money influences happiness as much as how much money you have. Hsee, et al. 2003 discovers a medium, such as money, influences the perceived benefit and amount of effort people are willing to exert. Boyce, et al. 2010 finds the rank position of income, more than the actual amount, influence happiness. Finally, Hershfield, et al. 2016, DeVoe and House 2012, and Mogilner 2010 examine the relationship between time, money, and happiness.

Kahneman, D. and Deaton, A. (2010) High income improves evaluation of life but not emotional well-being. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*. 107(38): 16489–93.
> This article distinguishes between emotional well-being and life satisfaction and finds that high income increases life satisfaction but not happiness. Low income is associated both with low life evaluation and low emotional well-being.

Aknin, L. B., Norton, M. I. and Dunn, E. W. (2009) From wealth to well-being? Money matters, but less than people think. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*. 4(6): 523–527.
> This article finds that people accurately predict the impact of money on happiness at higher levels of income, but over-estimate the impact of income on life satisfaction at lower levels of income. People expect individuals with low household income have very low life satisfaction.

Dunn, E. W., Aknin, L. B. and Norton, M. I. (2008) Spending Money on Others Promotes Happiness. *Science*. 319(5870): 1687-1688.
> This article finds that how people spend their money is as important in predicting happiness as how much they earn. People who spend money on other people are happier than people who spend money on themselves.

Hsee, C. K., Yu, F., Zhang, J., and Zhang, Y. (2003) Medium Maximization. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 30(1): 1–14.
> The presence of a medium, such as money, leads to an illusion of advantage, certainty, and return. A medium affects people's willingness to exert effort and the perceived return of the effort.

Boyce, C. J., Brown, G. D. A. and Moore, S. C. (2010) Money and Happiness: Rank of Income, Not Income, Affects Life Satisfaction. *Psychological Science*. 21(4): 471–475.
> This article finds that while the ranked position of an individual's income predicts general life satisfaction, the absolute income and reference income have no effect.

Hershfield, H. E., Mogilner, C. and Barnea, U. (2016) People Who Choose Time Over Money Are Happier. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*. 7(7): 697–706.
> When asked to choose between more money or more time, people say they want more money. However, choosing more time is correlated with greater happiness.

DeVoe, S. E. and House, J. (2012) Time, money, and happiness: How does putting a price on time affect our ability to smell the roses? *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*. 48(2): 466–474.
> This article reveals that placing a price on time negatively impacts individuals' ability to find happiness in pleasurable experiences.

Mogilner, C. (2010) The Pursuit of Happiness: Time, Money, and Social Connection. *Psychological Science*. 21(9): 1348–1354.

Activating the construct of time leads people to socialize with family and friends, which is associated with greater happiness. However, activating the construct of money leads to working more and socializing less, which does not increase happiness.

Forecasting Career Change

People generally believe that working their way up the ranks actually pays off, such as by having more resources to buy increasingly luxurious products and experiences that presumably make working high-powered jobs worthwhile. These articles demonstrate this may not be the case. O'Brien, et al. 2018 finds over-generalizations about life experiences lead people to experience envy and pity for others. Schkade and Kahneman 1998 discovers that people rely too heavily on easily observed differences when judging life satisfaction. Gilbert, et al. 1998 finds people overestimate the amount of negative affect they will feel after a negative life event, while Schwarz and Xu 2011 reveals people overestimate feelings of positive affect after a luxury purchase. Wirtz et al. 2003 also demonstrates that people misremember experiences as more positive or negative than they actually were. Cooney, et al. 2014 and Quoidbach, et al. 2015 demonstrate ways that achieving high status undermines well-being.

O'Brien, E., Kristal, A. C., Ellsworth, P. C., and Schwarz, N. (2018). (Mis)imagining the good life and the bad life: Envy and pity as a function of the focusing illusion. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*. 75: 41-53.
    This article uses the focusing illusion to explain why people feel envy and pity. When judging others, people often over-weight salient features and neglect small nuances.

Schkade, D., and Kahneman, D. (1998). Does living in California make people happy? A focusing illusion in judgments of life satisfaction. *Psychological Science*. 9(5): 340–346.
    This article finds that while people predict that individuals living in California will be happier than those in the Midwest, there are no differences in overall life satisfaction. Easily observed differences, such as the weather and cultural opportunities, are given more weight in forming judgments than in reality.

Gilbert, D. T., Pinel, P. C., Wilson, T. D., Blumberg, S. J., and Wheatley, T. P. (1998). Immune neglect: A source of durability bias in affective forecasting. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 75(3): 617–638.
    This article demonstrates that people overestimate the duration of negative affect after a negative life event. People ignore their psychological immune system when making affective forecasts.

Schwarz, N., and Xu, J. (2011). Why don't we learn from poor choices? The consistency of expectation, choice, and memory clouds the lessons of experience. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*. 21(2): 142–145.
    This article finds people overestimate how great it is to own luxury cars. Because hedonic experiences are fleeting, people don't learn from daily consumer experiences, and instead rely on general knowledge to continue to reconstruct the experience.

Wirtz, D., Kruger, J., Scollon, C. N., and Diener, E. (2003). What to do on spring break? The role of predicted, on-line, and remembered experience in future choice. *Psychological Science*. 14(5): 520–524.
    This article finds that people mispredict and misremember experiences as either more positive or more negative than they actually were. These misconceptions then form future choices.

Cooney, G., Gilbert, D. T., and Wilson, T. D. (2014). The unforeseen costs of extraordinary experience. *Psychological Science*. 25(12): 2259-2265.

This article demonstrates that people seek extraordinary experiences, but subsequent social interactions lead people with extraordinary experiences to feel worse. People accurately predict the benefits of extraordinary experiences, but not the costs.

Quoidbach, J., Dunn, E., Hansenne, M., and Bustin, G. (2015). The price of abundance: How a wealth of experiences impoverishes savoring. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*. 41(3): 393-404.
This article outlines how people who experience an abundance of desirable life experiences, such as traveling to a large number of countries, are not as capable of savoring simpler pleasures.