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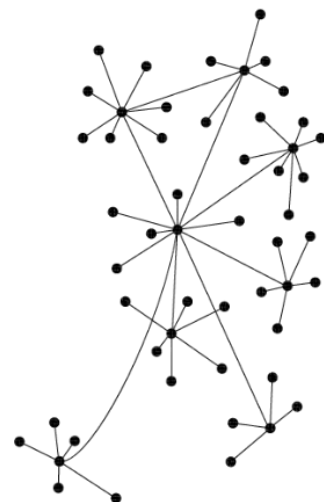
IMPROVING POST-SECONDARY ACADEMIC AND SUPPORT STAFF WELLBEING: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Organizational and Individual Wellbeing Report
Fall 2019

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Introduction to the Report

Numerous studies attest to the increasing levels of stress and reduced wellbeing reported by university academic and support staff[1]. The priorities of the neoliberal model that characterize current Anglo-Western universities emphasize business-like competitiveness, managerialist control, performance measures, and demand-driven funding (Pignata, Boyd, Winefield, & Provis, 2017; Sinclair, 2017; Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013). These conditions are associated with changing expectations and working conditions, negatively impacting staff autonomy, communication, interpersonal relationships, and increasing job stress (Tytherleigh, Webb, Cooper, & Ricketts, 2005). In addition to numerous adverse health effects (Mudrak et al., 2018), impacts on staff wellbeing are "likely to have detrimental effects on student experience and attainment, and the success of the institution as a whole" (Watts & Robertson, 2011, p. 35). Understanding wellbeing at the post-secondary level is therefore essential to the effective functioning of the institution.

Despite the growing wealth of research on individual and organizational or workplace wellbeing (i.e. group- or collective-level), there is a lack of synthesis on the context and effect of interventions supporting the wellbeing of post-secondary staff. While studies explore particular antecedents or influences on wellbeing in different contexts (e.g., workplace bullying, organizational culture, workload, burnout), the disparate foci and conceptualizations can hinder the design of comprehensive frameworks to support wellbeing (Grawitch, Trares, & Kohler, 2007). Researchers have similarly focused more on whether or not an intervention is effective,

[1] Except where otherwise specified, terms such as 'employees,' 'staff,' and 'colleagues' will be used to refer collectively to both academic and support staff throughout this report

rather than the conditions under which it is effective (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014; Pignata et al., 2017). This knowledge gap has often necessitated organizations to begin implementing interventions which may not have been tested in their context, and to undertake their own efforts to evaluate effectiveness (Gilbert & Kelloway, 2014).

Further complicating workplace wellbeing interventions, the concept of wellbeing is often contested and not easily defined (Dodge, Daly, Huyton, & Sanders, 2012). Given the importance of context and the complexities inherent to different workplaces, including organizational history, culture, and employee characteristics of postsecondary institutions, organizations need to understand wellbeing as it is experienced by these individuals and teams (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014).

Wellbeing is a broad concept, even when conceptualized in the workplace. Here, wellbeing encompasses a multitude of psychological, physiological, job-related, and situational factors (De Jong et al., 2016). Taken together, workplace wellbeing represents an employee's holistic health (e.g., physical, mental, social, emotional, spiritual, intellectual, and financial wellbeing), satisfaction with their work (e.g., professional/occupational wellbeing), work-life integration, and the functioning of the context (e.g., environmental, historical, relational, cultural, personal) in which the work is situated (Loughlin & Mercer, 2014; Roscoe, 2009). These dimensions can guide wellness programs in promoting and protecting employee health and work-life quality, while reducing direct and indirect costs associated with poor wellbeing (Michaels & Greene, 2013).

Wellbeing is central to overall individual - and therefore organizational - health and performance (Warr, 2008). According to Day and Randell (2014), healthy workplaces are "those

that incorporate practices, programs, policies, or work design that promote or enhance positive employee health and wellbeing or that remediate or prevent employee stress or other negative health and wellbeing" (p. 10). Organizational and individual wellbeing are therefore inextricably connected (Tetrick & Haimann, 2014).

In their seminal work, Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001) presented the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model to conceptualize optimum working conditions (see Appendix A Figure 2). In the JD-R model, job demands are tasks, expectations, and other dimensions (e.g. social, organizational) that require sustained effort and attention, potentially leading to burnout, while job resources mitigate the physiological/psychological costs of the demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Building on the original model, job demands are subcategorized into challenges (e.g., task complexity, which may push but not exceed capabilities), hindrances (e.g., bureaucratic processes and other frustrating obstacles which impede success), and threats (e.g., incivility, which warns of future costs or loss of job resources) (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Tuckey, Searle, Boyd, Winefield, & Winefield, 2015). While all job demands deplete employee energy, challenges are positively associated with performance, engagement, and wellbeing (Pignata et al., 2017). Beyond a structural perspective, organizations should consider that all job demands and resources are filtered through an employee's experiences, disposition, self-efficacy, and coping skills (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). The concepts of job demands and job resources will recur frequently throughout this report.

In some contrast, Kelloway and Day (2005a, p. 229) offer a broader view of workplace wellbeing, characterized by:

a) developing a culture of support, respect, and fairness;

b) creating employee involvement and development;

c) providing and promoting a physical and psychological "safe" environment;

d) developing and promoting positive interpersonal relationships at work;

e) ensuring appropriate and fair work content and characteristics; and

f) encouraging positive work–life balance

Warr (2008) offers a different lens, focusing on improving employee *happiness* through:

a) Opportunity for personal control – e.g., discretion, decision latitude, participation

b) Opportunity for skill use and acquisition – e.g., a setting's potential for applying and developing expertise and knowledge

c) Externally generated goals – e.g., job demands, underload and overload, task identity, role conflict, required emotional labour, work-home conflict

d) Variety – e.g., changes in job content and/or location

e) Environmental clarity – e.g., role clarity, task feedback, low future ambiguity

f) Contact with others – e.g., quantity of contact, irrespective of its personal value, quality of contact (e.g., aggression or social support)

g) Availability of money – e.g., opportunity to receive income

h) Physical security – e.g., working conditions, degree of hazard

i) Valued social position – e.g., significance of a task or role

j) Supportive supervision – e.g., the extent to which one's concerns are taken into consideration by bosses

k) Career outlook – e.g., job security, the opportunity to gain promotion or shift to other roles

l) Equity – e.g., justice within one's organization and in that organization's relations with society

Though there is considerable overlap between the models (e.g., a safe environment, equity and fairness, supportive interpersonal relationships, and career development), these are just a few of the many frameworks for interpreting workplace wellbeing.

Regardless of the perspective, organizations can find opportunities to promote and improve wellbeing by identifying and analyzing the antecedents and outcomes of wellbeing in their context (Chenoweth, 2011). As Zheng and colleagues (2016) observe, organizations should "focus on providing effective [programs] and an organizational climate that would help individual employees to harness or develop effective work-life coping strategies" (p. 519). Such programs should be part of a comprehensive approach to wellbeing; an approach that most Canadian organizations fail to implement (Lowe, 2014). While an organization's wellness strategy may involve a variety of programs (Sonja, Urska, & Zizek, 2015), a plan which meets the varying needs of the organization can significantly improve wellbeing measures (Nielsen, 2014). Addressing wellbeing results in considerable improvements for both the organization and its employees; for a review of these outcomes, please see Smith & Holden (2016).

Purpose of the Report

This report was commissioned by the Werklund School of Education in order to investigate organizational and individual wellbeing, focusing on interventions and strategies to support postsecondary academic and support staff. Given the importance of wellbeing, Werklund

School stakeholders sought a review of relevant research, so that they might use this information to inform a comprehensive, organizational wellbeing strategy. This report describes a range of practices in supporting wellbeing and work-life effectiveness, derived largely from the fields of psychology and business, with a focus on studies conducted in postsecondary settings whenever possible.

Synthesis of Wellbeing Interventions

NB: These categories are not exclusive or clearly bounded; indeed, there are many areas of overlap and connection (e.g., email overload can be the result of poor internal communication; expectation ambiguity can lead to incivility). This format was designed to facilitate the grouping of otherwise disparate interventions.

		Leadership: Organizational Interventions	Individual: Self-Directed Strategies
Through Lines	KEY IDEAS	Develop and maintain strategies and habits that foster wellbeing and success at both organizational and individual levels (LaMontagne, Noblet, & Landsbergis, 2012) Foster a culture of wellbeing and integrate it meaningfully into everyday practice (Pignata et al., 2017) Apply organizational- and individual-level interventions simultaneously in a multi-faceted approach (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014; LaMontagne et al., 2007) Be curious and continue to learn (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Maintain (self) awareness and regular monitoring – for the self 'it starts with you' (Clark & Sousa, 2018), and monitoring the organizational ecology (DeJoy & Della, 2014) Make effective communication – open, honest, consistent, timely, etc. – the norm both interpersonally and across the organization (Uslu, 2018) Practice self-care and self-compassion as an essential foundation for personal wellbeing across all domains – physical, social, emotional, financial, spiritual, intellectual, environmental, and professional (Roscoe, 2009) Remain cognizant of factors such as gender, age, sexuality, minority- and organization-status – that intersect with the signs, symptoms, and outcomes of wellbeing in all aspects of work (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Strive to articulate and honour values in all work – support congruence of values between the individual and organization (Day & Randell, 2014); design effective innovations around values (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014)	
Bureaucratic and Systemic Issues • Autonomy • Change management • Internal communication • Job Security • Meetings, committees, and paperwork • Recognition • Salary/funding • Sociocultural factors • Work processes	RECOGNITION	Regularly celebrate success and recognize contributions formally and informally (Tetrick & Haimann, 2014); both everyday contributions and exceptional achievements (Saunderson, 2004) Encourage colleagues, particularly formal and non-formal leaders, to express appreciation frequently (Mudrak et al., 2018; Pignata et al., 2017) Consider recognition practices that reward personal achievement, work practices, job dedication, and successful outcomes (Brun & Dugas, 2008) Avoid supporting performance-based rewards when comparing internal employees (Paulin & Griffin, 2016) Apply an 'Appreciative Inquiry' or 'Climate Assessment' tool to review culture of recognition within the organization (Daniel & Metcalf, 2005; van Straaten, Du Plessis, & van Tonder, 2016) Explicitly position support staff as integral to the organization's function and positive core (Oxford Brookes University, 2018; Pitman, 2000; van Straaten et al., 2016)	Share in the recognition of colleagues informally and in everyday practice (Saunderson, 2004) Offer congratulations and encouragement, praise effort, arrange gifts/letters/gestures of thanks, host celebrations, and highlight the contributions of colleagues during meetings, at lunch, and in faculty communications (Brun & Dugas, 2008; Tetrick & Haimann, 2014) Self-advocate: communicate and promote your notable events and achievements that colleagues and leaders may not know about (Rezvani & Hedges, 2014) See yourself as worthy of recognition, but without presenting as prideful or self-serving (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Recognition for colleagues and stakeholders should be timely, personally delivered, perceived as valuable, and plentiful (Luthans, 2000)
	JOB SECURITY, STATUS & AUTONOMY	Examine contingent staff positions, and their working conditions, for both basic (e.g., salary, job security) and higher needs (e.g., office space, participation in community and governance) (Reevy & Deason, 2014) Support contingent staff in developing effective coping strategies for the stress associated with job insecurity (Reevy & Deason, 2014) Provide stronger administrative support to academic staff, and consider ways to reassign administrative work to support staff (Zábrodská et al., 2018) Refocus and align faculty duties with values; find opportunities to credit service and commitments which are not traditionally recognized in tenure or promotion (Gentry & Stokes, 2015) Provide employees with meaningful autonomy and control over their work whenever possible (van Straaten et al., 2016) Consider who has authority over academic and administrative processes, and where decisions are made; are faculty gatekeepers over non-academic areas? (Henkin & Persson, 1992) Review instances where the fairness of pay is perceived as unequal to performance expectations (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011)	Consciously build positive networks and relationships with managers and coworkers; demonstrate growth, value-added, and quality of contribution (Quast, 2016) Understand alignment between work and strategic initiatives; communicate personal goals and commitment (Ceniza-Levine, 2019) Strategize time committed to work activities that do not align with career growth, personal development, or promotion (Gentry & Stokes, 2015) Seek opportunities to tailor work approach to your preferences and skills; discuss possibilities with managers (van Straaten et al., 2016) Engage in career and development discussions, particularly concerning promotion (van Straaten et al., 2016)

		Leadership: Organizational Interventions	Individual: Self-Directed Strategies
	MEETINGS	Meetings should be planned and purposeful, action-oriented, involve members, and include collaboration (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000) Provide clarity on expectations surrounding off-task behavior and multitasking in meetings; establish group norms (Kleinman, 2007) Incorporate active participation, engaging activity/discussion, and the purposeful use of technology (Benbunan-Fich & Truman, 2009) Review the effectiveness and the purpose of decision-making in meetings (Garcia, Kunz, & Fischer, 2004) Frame the agenda as questions; distribute agenda beforehand (Romano & Nunamaker, 2001)	Self-analyze performance and habits for meetings – in pre-work, during, and follow up. Ensure you are informed, prepared, and contribute meaningfully (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Mroz, Allen, Verhoeven, & Shuffler, 2018) Review meetings for their purpose and frequency using a taxonomy or checklist (Allen, Beck, Scott, & Rogelberg, 2014; Mroz et al., 2018) Consider replacing some meetings with emails; explicitly communicate the purpose of meetings; shorten times of meetings or have stand-up meetings (Lundquist & Misra, 2016)
	INTERNAL COMMUNICATION	Use meetings, emails, regular newsletters, social activities, and retreats to appropriately communicate information based on its importance (Uslu, 2018) Generate bottom-up strategies and ensure availability of leadership for open communication to handle urgent problems (Uslu, 2018) Managers and content creators need instruction on the design and importance of internal communication, and need rewarded for effective practices (Tkalac Verčič & Pološki Vokić, 2017; Tourish & Hargie, 1996) Regularly communicate employee and organizational accomplishments, opportunities, and activities; socialize and reward employees for staying informed (Fuller, Hester, Barnett, Frey, & Relyea, 2006)	Consider "who, says what, in which channel, with what media affect, to whom, with what effect?" (Welch, 2012, p. 253) Survey employee preferences and perceptions of communication modes; one size will not fit all (DeJoy & Della, 2014) Ensure an internal communication strategy purposefully manages all communications (i.e., everyday to larger initiatives) for consistency and content (Robson & Tourish, 2005)
Institutional Expectations • Goals, duties, expectations • Job demands • Resources and staffing • Values and goals • Workload	**VALUE INCONGRUENCE**	Clearly define and communicate organizational values and goals to employees through social processes (Ayers, 2015) Review and refine values articulated in key documents (e.g., strategic plan) on a regular basis (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Provide orientation and ongoing training focused on organizational values, and forming social consensus in office teams (Mellor, Karanika-Murray, & Waite, 2012) Train managers to help employees see organizational values reflected in their own and team values, and aligned with their work (Paarlberg & Perry, 2007)	Publicly reward adherence to organizational values (Paarlberg & Perry, 2007) Assess, monitor, and negotiate personally meaningful goals and values during performance reviews (Salanova & Llorens, 2014) Encourage leaders to spend time motivating staff and reinforcing value-enhancing behaviors (Luthans, 2000) Frequently assess employee responses to change and allow opportunities for staff to "try on" new organizational values (DeJoy & Della, 2014)

		Leadership: Organizational Interventions	Individual: Self-Directed Strategies
	WORKLOAD	Review workload and job task assignments to assess areas of concern; redesign, redistribute, and reduce burdensome or inequitable workloads and stressful job demands (Pignata et al., 2017) Encourage and facilitate staff in developing resources, learning new skills, and in fostering positive mindsets (Pignata et al., 2017) Ensure adequate resources, more efficient processes, and trained staff are available to support priorities (Pignata et al., 2017) Support staff in seeing duties and processes within their self-perceived capacity (Pignata et al., 2017) Align job portfolios to employee strengths and talents (Attridge, 2009) Continuously highlight available job resources to combat perceptions of insufficient support (Mudrak et al., 2018) Review student supervision load and higher-stress course assignments (e.g., first year courses, online courses) to ensure more equal distribution (Watts & Robertson, 2011) Train leaders to recognize implicit bias and its effect on division of labour (O'Meara, Jaeger, Misra, Lennartz, & Kuvaeva, 2018) Consider approaches to make workload assignments and their processes more transparent; use organization data to drive decision-making (O'Meara et al., 2018) Implement policies such as credit systems, job rotations, and differentiated workloads to help alleviate inequities (O'Meara et al., 2018) Consider opportunities for trading off between research and teaching responsibilities (e.g., reduce teaching load for those with high research success, output, and impact) (Jonker & Hicks, 2014)	Regularly use and manage an e-calendar; review the amount of time allocated to tasks to better plan for future (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Pursue professional development on aligning time and priorities in academia (O'Meara et al., 2018) Maintain a clear purpose and goal for work; plan and prioritize important tasks; avoid distractions, and keep organized (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007) Use supporting software to reduce time spent in administrative tasks (e.g., reference-, resume-, and task-management) (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Identify times when workload is burdensome and actively address concerns (Sturges, 2012) Consistently use time management strategies (e.g., prioritizing, goal-driven work) (Jackevicius et al., 2014) Understand when and how to say 'no,' and when to give timelines for when you will respond (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Find opportunities to create your own resources and shape professional development to support your work (Bakker, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2012) Seek resources and strategies to habitualize proactive coping (Reevy & Deason, 2014) Prioritize tasks using tools/technqiues, such as the Eisenhower Matrix (Clark & Sousa, 2018)
	ROLE AMBIGUITY	Provide role clarity, processes, and clear expectations in all aspects of academic workload (e.g., administrative, research, teaching, managerial) (Zábrodská et al., 2018) Address confusion and ambiguity in tasks goals, expectations, etc. (Pignata et al., 2017); support employees when issues are identified (Boss, 2017) Employees need to know and agree to the standards they are being held accountable for; embed them in performance plans and work portfolios (Ayers, 2015)	Ask for feedback and pose questions to explore process or responsibility confusion; have the courage to speak up (Boss, 2017)

		Leadership: Organizational Interventions	Individual: Self-Directed Strategies
Workplace Community and Culture • Business practices • Civility • Commitment • Cynicism • Engagement • Internal competition • Isolation • Mentorship • Participation • Policy • Role equity • Training • Transformative leadership	**CULTURE OF WELLBEING**	Provide training to leaders to model and communicate organizational perspectives and strategies of wellbeing (Nielsen, 2014); their strong commitment is essential (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014) Encourage and provide training in functional coping mechanisms (Reevy & Deason, 2014) Identify and address signs of protective coping (e.g., withdrawal, disengagement) (Pignata et al., 2017) Promote resources, strategies, and interventions to increase trust and perceived justice; ensure clarity and acceptability (Pignata & Winefield, 2015) Solicit and act upon feedback concerning current wellbeing strengths and areas for improvement (Price & Kerschbaum, 2017) Demonstrate a motivating, considerate, engaging, and authentic leadership approach (Attridge, 2009; Mellor et al., 2012) Conduct annual reviews of leaders using a "360 Evaluation" approach (Passmore & Anagnos, 2008); gather feedback and act on the results (Hollis, 2015) Continuously communicate and raise awareness of organizational commitment to wellbeing interventions (Reevy & Deason, 2014) Consider involving lower-status and known cynical employees in decision-making; address self-interest concerns and reinforce commitment to positive change (Brown & Cregan, 2008) Ensure enacted decisions reflect espoused priorities (Mellor et al., 2012) Support academic leaders with managerial training to address workplace culture and incivility among colleagues (Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013) Direct employees to resources and training that can provide assistance on how to cope with incivility, conflict, bullying, etc. (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Haraway & Haraway, 2005)	Encourage colleagues displaying signs of poor wellbeing to seek support; ask what would be helpful for them; follow up and provide ongoing support to colleagues in need (Price & Kerschbaum, 2017) Familiarize yourself with campus mental and physical health resources, for both yourself and as a referral for others (Price & Kerschbaum, 2017) Use supportive and inclusive language; avoid valorizing behaviours that may negatively impact wellbeing (e.g., working long hours for extended periods) (Price & Kerschbaum, 2017)
	ENGAGEMENT	Review hierarchies and conditions that may limit structural and psychological empowerment (Salanova & Llorens, 2014) Support meaningful participation in all aspects and stages of process change and interventions (LaMontagne et al., 2012) Complete regular 'Engagement Audits' to identify and monitor success and issues (Salanova & Llorens, 2014) Use participatory methods to ensure the fit of interventions and changes to the context of the organization (Randall & Nielsen, 2012) Define the roles, opportunities, and processes that employees can engage in to shape change management (Karanika-Murray, Biron, & Cooper, 2012)	Find agreed upon opportunities to take ownership for improving work processes (Salanova & Llorens, 2014) Participate in optional committees, planning meetings, and feedback opportunities when available (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Riordan, Vandenberg, & Richardson, 2005)

	Leadership: Organizational Interventions	Individual: Self-Directed Strategies
COMMUNITY-BUILDING	Support the co-development of unit/department statements of goals and guidelines (Mullen, Bettez, & Wilson, 2011) Position teamwork and collegial relationships as central to faculty vision; encourage teamwork and job sharing strategies (e.g., team teaching, co-writing, joint projects) (Pignata et al., 2017) Provide latitude in how, with whom, and when staff collaborate (Zábrodská et al., 2018) Address limited perceptions of the importance of community-building and teamwork through an ethic of care (Mullen et al., 2011) Organize academic-focused support groups and increase social contact between faculty members (Ren & Caudle, 2016) Position leadership, communication, and reconciliatory actions as key to collegial management (Uslu, 2018) Take action to combat incivility without waiting for grievances (Cortina & Magley, 2009) Provide open forums to discuss and problem-solve incivility and community issues (Clark, Olender, Kenski, & Cardoni, 2013) Identify and address inequities and conflict between support and academic staff (van Straaten et al., 2016) Develop a team process and possible responses for common sources of workplace conflict (Pitman, 2000) Facilitate supportive and empowering relationships between managers and employees (Pignata et al., 2017) Set a clear tone and act in ways that reinforce a workplace culture free from incivility (Hollis, 2015) Review and articulate mechanisms for preventing workplace conflict (e.g., training, resources, code of conduct), not just reacting to incidents (Roscigno, Lopez, & Hodson, 2009) Regularly review, revise, and reaffirm social norms (Clark et al., 2013) Host workshops on team empowerment, emotional intelligence, and engagement (Salanova & Llorens, 2014) Address spirals of 'contagious' poor affective wellbeing and carefully intervene (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014)	Find opportunities to socialize and get to know colleagues; contribute to building a respectful team environment (Paulin & Griffin, 2016) Learn about staff positions to direct enquiries and ensure requests are appropriate (Pitman, 2000) Communicate respect and appreciation of support staff in all interactions; reframe perceptions that they are responsible for bureaucratic issues (Small, 2008) Self-analyze for persistent issues, unmet needs, and beliefs that may fuel incivility (Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013) Identify longstanding negative relationships and consider mediation strategies (Keashly & Neuman, 2010) Actively develop and nurture positive relationships among academic staff, and between academic and support staff; reduce formalities and bureaucratic barriers (Pitman, 2000) Question stereotypes or generalizations of negative stakeholder relationships to reduce bias: "how do I frame and experience working with students? Academic staff?" etc. (Pitman, 2000) Employ active conflict management and resolution strategies; seek support and resources (Haraway & Haraway, 2005; Pignata & Winefield, 2015) Push back against framing workplace bullying as inevitable in organization culture, or justified based on personal attributes (Paulin & Griffin, 2016)

		Leadership: Organizational Interventions	Individual: Self-Directed Strategies
	MENTORSHIP	Provide potential mentors with explicit training in mentoring best practice (Ramani, Gruppen, & Kachur, 2006) Offer staff the time and opportunity to engage each other in mentoring/coaching relationships (Ladyshewsky, 2017) Reward collegial and student mentorship (Blankenship-Knox, Platt, & Read, 2017; Mullen et al., 2011) Assess opportunities for multiple types of coaching and mentorship throughout the organization (Joo, Sushko, & McLean, 2012; McCauley & Douglas, 1998) Design holistic mentorship programs focusing on all aspects of development, support, relationships, and achievement (Thorndyke, Gusic, George, Quillen, & Milner, 2006) Use mentoring systems to promote collaboration, collegiality, socialization, and effective communication throughout the organization (Uslu, 2018) Consider academic mentorship with a focus on: tenure/promotion, faculty responsibilities, job resources, department/faculty/university familiarity, grant writing, feedback and editing, and/or career development plans (Jackevicius et al., 2014) Provide opportunities for mentoring and support at all stages of academic careers, in addition to those aimed at junior members (Thorndyke et al., 2006) Ask staff to return from training sessions/conferences prepared to share information/practices and coach other colleagues (Ladyshewsky, 2017)	Find opportunities to (in)formally model and mentor other staff and students (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Reinforce and promote new efforts to improve mentoring and development in offices/faculty (Thorndyke et al., 2006) Establish mutual trust and use non-evaluative questions to support colleagues in learning opportunities (Ladyshewsky, 2017) Find opportunities to establish reciprocal learning with colleagues, linked to personal and team goals (Ladyshewsky, 2017)
Work-Life Integration • Absenteeism • Always being 'on' • Burnout • Email overload • Fear of failure • Growth mindset • Mindfulness • Perfectionism • Personal/family time • Physical health • Presenteeism • Self-care • Self-expectations • Spiritual health • Time management • Workaholism	**BURNOUT**	Raise discussions and respond to gendered and age-normative effects of burnout (Watts & Robertson, 2011) Periodically measure and address stressors leading to faculty burnout using established instruments (Lackritz, 2004) Align employee assistance programs with development plans (Hubbard & Atkins, 1995) Promote ongoing awareness of employee health programs and benefits (Pignata, Boyd, Gillespie, Provis, & Winefield, 2014) Train managers to maintain positive wellbeing in those exhibiting strong wellbeing, and to identify and support those with weaker wellbeing (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014) Integrate stress management and stress awareness into everyday workplace culture (Pignata et al., 2017) Shift organizational focus from quantity to quality of work (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Provide training in efficacy beliefs (Salanova & Llorens, 2014) Change duties or help staff to see their work within their self-perceived capacity (Pignata et al., 2017) Support staff in developing and maintaining effective work habits and routines (Clark & Sousa, 2018)	Stay aware of self-criticism and its impact on the sense of self (Dunn, Whelton, & Sharpe, 2006) Identify and address times where being busy (e.g., answering email) may also be avoidance from priority tasks (Dunn et al., 2006) Practice self-compassion, and reframing judgment of self and others (Neff, Hsieh, & Dejitterat, 2005) Adopt a growth mindset and see learning opportunities in every situation (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Confront instances where perceptions of expertise and desire for 'correctness' may conflict with learning from failure (Dweck, 2006) Acknowledge, accept, and grow from instances of failure (Clark & Sousa, 2018) Use mindfulness techniques to stay 'in the moment,' rather than worrying about the past or future (Buck, 2015) (Re)define success – understand the difference between striving to improve and desiring perfection (Buck, 2015) Use comparisons and self-assessment to reanalyze negative situations – how they developed, what might be instead, where could they go (Warr, 2008); evaluate multiple courses of action when addressing personal growth (De Carlo et al., 2014) Strive for a mastery orientation towards success, focused on developing skills, new understandings, and task control (Neff et al., 2005) Seek work social supports and active coping techniques when facing workplace stress (Gilbert, Laschinger, & Leiter, 2010); avoid 'going it alone' (Dunn et al., 2006)

		Leadership: Organizational Interventions	Individual: Self-Directed Strategies
	EMAIL	Design and encourage adherence to organizational email etiquette and effectiveness techniques (Sehgal, 2016) Evaluate the helpfulness, promptness, and frequency of email on performance (Pignata, Lushington, Sloan, & Buchanan, 2015) Recognize areas where 'email' tasks might mean considerable investment of staff time, energy, and care (e.g., distressed students) (Sinclair, 2017) Raise awareness of the signs and strategies for combatting email over-monitoring and addiction (Pignata et al., 2015) Consider ways to decrease the volume of emails employees receive; provide email training; establish policies on effective and appropriate email use (McMurtry, 2014)	Use deliberate email techniques, e.g., filing, filtering, inbox management (Pignata et al., 2015) Schedule email outside of peak creativity periods; only check email during these set times; resolve emails after first read; only send necessary emails (A. Clark & Sousa, 2018) Consider a "think before you check" and "think before you write" approach to email; reflect on effective email writing and appropriate use of email (McMurtry, 2014) Set expectations for response turnaround and appropriate use of email clear to students and other stakeholders (Pignata et al., 2015) Question the (perceived) obligation to monitor email and other work outside of work time (Pignata et al., 2015) Use software features, inbox management, and schedule specific times for email during the day (McMurtry, 2014) Consider negative attitudes towards email (and by extension organization culture) which may increase stress (McMurtry, 2014)
	WORK-LIFE INTEGRATION	Use experienced staff to mentor, model, and guide others in time management, prioritization, and work-life integration (Jackevicius et al., 2014) Ensure support and performance assessments are geared toward positive work-life balance (e.g., not implicitly promoting time spent in the office) (Sturges, 2012) Consider employee's wellbeing when assigning work hours and reviewing the frequency of overtime (Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Bobko, 2012)	Actively manage work and personal spheres, and the boundaries between (Ren & Caudle, 2016) Define personally-relevant criteria of work-life integration in your context (Sturges, 2012) Experiment with habits such as daily 'switch off times,' delayed responses, and scheduled social and non-work time (Ren & Caudle, 2016) Look for opportunities to shape "physical" work factors (e.g., where, when, with whom, and how work is performed) (Sturges, 2012) Develop personally meaningful and relevant strategies based on (self) identified needs (Clark & Sousa, 2018) See stress management as personally relevant and actively manage stressors (Sturges, 2012) Identify areas where job demands and tasks limit or interfere with non-work time, and seek strategies to address issues (Zábrodská et al., 2018) Apply a mixture of organization-directed and personally-oriented strategies to support work-life integration (Hyman, Scholarios, & Baldry, 2005) Use time management techniques to limit work to set hours; set boundaries on using technology that might allow work outside the office (Sturges, 2012)
	ABSENTEEISM/PRESENTEEISM	Promote 'family friendly' policies and practices, which manage attendance appropriately for both individual and organizational realities (Johns, 2009) Carefully review attendance dynamics for underlying relationship or work culture issues (Warr, 2008) Encourage staff to take appropriate time off; focus on individual control and flexibility (Kinman & Wray, 2018) Provide feedback on missed days to discuss concerns with employees; avoid draconian attendance management systems and punishments; use flextime or other policies to support trust while addressing these behaviours (Johns, 2009) Communicate the detriment of both presenteeism and absenteeism, and the need to manage both (Johns, 2009) Train managers to notice and sensitively address absenteeism/presenteeism (Baker-McClearn, Greasley, Dale, & Griffith, 2010)	Reflect on (self-imposed) pressures, boredom, or habit that may encourage presenteeism and working while sick; discuss concerns and practices with managers (Kinman & Wray, 2018) Encourage colleagues to look after themselves and take time off when unwell; model strategies for managing work and health (Kinman & Wray, 2018) Seek feedback on absences or presentee behaviours, and develop strategies to self-manage work-life integration (Johns, 2009) Reflect on when and how you might want to work while sick/absent; seek strategies that work and are controlled by you (Kinman & Wray, 2018)

		Leadership: Organizational Interventions	Individual: Self-Directed Strategies
	PHYSICAL & SPIRITUAL WELLBEING	Consider spirituality training (e.g., meditation), silence/breathing exercises before meetings, individual religious practice, and emphasizing the service orientation to academic work (Altaf & Awan, 2011) Communicate the larger purpose and goals of the work, beyond the immediate task (Garg, 2017; Tan, 2007) Support a humanistic culture of belonging, support, trust, harmony, and values; remember that employees are spiritual, not just physical, beings (Garcia-Zamor, 2003) Incorporate opportunities for spiritual practices (e.g., prayer, energy practices, breathing, meditation) during work (Tischler, Biberman, & Mckeage, 2002) Incorporate opportunities for employees to improve/maintain physical wellness into work life; considering offering light exercise, meditation, or relaxation workshops and classes (Chu, Koh, Moy, & Müller-Riemenschneider, 2014; Sonja et al., 2015) Offer workplace wellness classes led by experienced trainers, geared to the needs and goals of employees (Chu et al., 2014) Consider workplace yoga programs to impact energy, confidence, stress, incivility, self-esteem, attention, and happiness (Hartfiel et al., 2012) Improve ergonomic design and equipment available to staff (Attridge, 2009); consider physical workspaces, lighting, privacy, workplace culture, communication, and training for ergonomics (Robertson, Huang, O'Neill, & Schleifer, 2008)	Set and strive to achieve consistent goals for improving and maintaining physical health (Chu et al., 2014; Sonja et al., 2015) Consider how you are (not) meeting your spiritual needs in your current professional and personal practices (Altaf & Awan, 2011)
Student Service - Civility - Entitlement - Orientation - Self-regulation - Skills/competencies development - Career readiness - Program preparedness - Graduate program transition	**STUDENT SERVICE**	Establish formal rules of conduct and communicate them to students (e.g., in course syllabi, handbooks) (El-Alayli, Hansen-Brown, & Ceynar, 2018) Set explicit requirements for academic staff-student interactions, deadlines, and assessment standards to reduce expectation ambiguity (Lippmann, Bulanda, & Wagenaar, 2009) Provide training to students and staff on relevant policies (Barrett, Rubaii-Barrett, & Pelowski, 2010) Provide exemplary work as a reference point for assignment standards (Lippmann et al., 2009) Raise discussions and respond to gendered and age-normative student expectations (Watts & Robertson, 2011) Help faculty (re)orient themselves to the world of today's learners (Lippmann et al., 2009) Design orientations to introduce students to program expectations and success strategies (Lippmann et al., 2009) Critically examine admissions processes for effectiveness and fit – pre-requisites, selection criteria, assessment tools, and the alignment between them (Casey & Childs, 2007) Reflect on program plans for teacher career-readiness skills, competencies, and knowledge – what skills etc. are teachers required to obtain? When and where are these articulated in the program? (National Council on Teacher Quality, 2014) Consider: what data do we collect on the success of our programs? How is this data informing program improvements? (National Council on Teacher Quality, 2014) Review student self-perceived preparedness and self-efficacy for targeted training interventions (Ronfeldt, Reininger, & Kwok, 2013) Investigate areas where programs are (not) preparing students for graduate program entry and success – methods courses, research experience, faculty mentorship, self-efficacy (Huss, Randall, Patry, Davis, & Hansen, 2002)	Help students develop skills to self-regulate their efforts and learning (Lippmann et al., 2009) Make your teaching philosophy and the joint responsibility of learning explicit in all courses (Lippmann et al., 2009) Familiarize yourself with institutional policies, conduct office, and wellness resources to support yourself and to refer students (Whitfield, 2018) Model "respectful speech and behaviors" to promote safety, inclusion, and support for all students (Whitfield, 2018) Ask students to problem-solve and explore information before seeking support (Pignata et al., 2015) Support students in developing quality relationships with partner teachers, instructors, and other staff (Ronfeldt et al., 2013)

Literature Review

Wellbeing interventions are purposeful, usually voluntary, actions undertaken by individuals and organizations to reduce stress and/or increase health, wellbeing, and performance (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014). Interventions intended to improve employee wellbeing require time, energy, and resource investment in order to achieve its goals (Loughlin & Mercer, 2014). Interventions must be:

- derived from strong evidence and needs assessment (Karanika-Murray et al., 2012);

- tailored to the context and needs of employees (Pignata et al., 2017);

- designed and realized through participatory and well-communicated processes (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014); and

- perceived as authentic and meaningful (Randall & Nielsen, 2012).

Of course, "any solution or action plan is only as good as its implementation" (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014, p. 356). Organizations must continuously monitor the effectiveness of the intervention in achieving its goals, consult with staff, and clearly communicate information to maintain any benefits. This ongoing assessment allows for the early identification of new opportunities and challenges (LaMontagne et al., 2012), and reinforces the need for long-term approaches to wellbeing – rather than one-time efforts (Karanika-Murray et al., 2012). Interventions must also be assessed for their appropriate 'fit' within the organizational context during initial planning (Randall & Nielsen, 2012). There is no 'one-size-fits-all' solution to improving employee wellbeing, even when implementing empirically-tested interventions (Day & Randell, 2014).

Interventions are often categorized into primary, secondary, and tertiary levels (LaMontagne

et al., 2007):

- Primary – proactive prevention - reducing, removing, or altering stressors/issues;

- Secondary – proactive coping – supporting employees with the skills and knowledge to adaptively cope, build resilience, and maintain positive wellbeing; and

- Tertiary – reactive – treating and rehabilitating staff who are suffering from stress-related symptoms

While all three levels play a complementary role, "primary prevention is generally more effective than secondary, and secondary is generally more effective than tertiary" (LaMontagne et al., 2007, p. 268). Organizations have an important role in directing wellbeing interventions, particularly at the primary level, while individually-directed strategies often focus at the secondary level, contributing to a multi-level approach to wellbeing. Yet, Corbière, Shen, Rouleau and Dewa (2009) found that organizations commonly focused interventions at the secondary level, and only 1 in 3 implemented interventions at all levels. A comprehensive wellbeing plan should combine organizational interventions and support for individual strategies for greater effect (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014; Pignata et al., 2017).

Bureaucratic and Systemic Issues

The changing nature of postsecondary institutions has brought renewed attention to both emerging and historical challenges facing staff (Berg & Seeber, 2016). While accelerated demands, increased competitive pressure, decreasing job security, stricter performance measures, and limited funding opportunities may be seen as more recent developments (Zábrodská et al., 2018), bureaucratic processes, rigid hierarchies, and oligarchic rule are enduring problems inherited from traditional university models (Child, 2011; Conrad et al.,

2010; Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013). Since universities are often slow to respond to external pressures, engaging and motivating positive change from within is essential (Bates, 2010). Explored in detail in the following sections, factors which impact wellbeing within this category include:

- Recognition;

- Job security, status, and autonomy;

- Meetings; and,

- Internal Communication.

Recognition

Recognition of employees and colleagues rewards or celebrates important work, milestones, or achievements, and is consistently highlighted as a fundamental practice for supporting organizational wellbeing. According to Brun, Biron, Martel, and Ivers (2003), a perceived lack of recognition was seen as the second-largest stressor for staff, after workload demands. Effective recognition practices are a means for enhancing employee motivation and identity congruence, as well as contributing to perceptions of meaningful work (Brun & Dugas, 2008). Recognition also contributes to positive collegial and managerial interactions, and its absence is a likely indicator of a malfunctioning work environment (Clark & Sousa, 2018).

Recognition programs differ widely in what they reward or celebrate (e.g., individual/team performance, project outcomes, life events), who performs the recognition (e.g., the organization, leadership team, supervisors, colleagues, clients), the type of reward (e.g., monetary, small gifts, notes/letters, or interpersonal interactions), how it is presented (e.g., formally or informally, publicly or privately, in-person or delivered), and the frequency of the

recognition (Daniel & Metcalf, 2005; Luthans, 2000; Tetrick & Haimann, 2014).

Recognition programs should purposefully tie rewards to performance, employee needs, and expectations (Daniel & Metcalf, 2005; Luthans, 2000). By rewarding particular behaviours and events, organizations not only express appreciation and gratitude, but reinforce organizational values and the presence of a supportive organizational culture (Saunderson, 2004). Organizations must therefore be conscious of what they reward, as any recognition practices must be perceived to be meaningful and justly awarded (Daniel & Metcalf, 2005). See Appendix A Figure 8 for a matrix of recognition practices.

Recognition strategies. While there is not yet an established literature summarizing the effects of different recognition program designs (Tetrick & Haimann, 2014), studies on workplace recognition highlight a number considerations and strategies that organizations and individuals can implement.

While research indicates that monetary incentives (e.g., cash or gift cards), bonuses, and salary increases are not an effective strategy for long-term performance improvements (Brun & Dugas, 2008), these rewards are still identified by employees as being of value. While small monetary rewards can reinforce positive behaviours (Luthans, 2000), an appropriate salary helps employees perceive job demands as fair for the amount of pay received, and that dedicated service and performance are rewarded with acknowledgement and career development (Riordan et al., 2005). Taking seriously all instances where the fairness of pay is perceived as unequal to performance expectations is crucial (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011).

Surveys consistently report that non-financial rewards are integral to office performance (Luthans, 2000; Pignata et al., 2017). Regular expressions of appreciation, gratitude, and

congratulations are valuable, and cost-effective, tools to improve employee wellbeing, turnover rates, productivity, and a supportive organizational culture. These everyday acts also bolster the credibility of formal awards and recognition programs (Saunderson, 2004). Simple suggestions from the literature include:

- A manager publicly congratulating a team for a successful project

- Senior Leadership hosting a social event to celebrate year-end

- A written note of thanks delivered to a colleague

According to Luthans (2000), recognition should be: frequent, immediate, delivered personally, valuable to the employee, and a direct reinforcement of desired behaviour. Employees must understand the recognition program's initiatives and the connection to organizational goals, values, and performance measures (Tetrick & Haimann, 2014). Employees should also be involved in awards committees, and in the selection of rewards, to limit opportunities where inconsequential or disconnected recognitions are implemented (Daniel & Metcalf, 2005). These programs must be effectively communicated and integrated in the workplace culture in order to take root (Saunderson, 2004); Daniel and Metcalf (2005, p. 4) recommend the ongoing monitoring of recognition programs, using questions prompt reflection:

- Does the program provide rewards that are adequate, fair, competitive, and appropriate?

- Have the program's objectives been met?

- Has the program helped to change processes and/or did it support the organization's performance initiatives?

- Are there appropriate levels of communication?

- Was there a celebration?

- Do employees find the program to be meaningful?

- What could be done differently the next time?

As part of a broader survey of organizational culture, organizations might use a Climate Assessment (Daniel & Metcalf, 2005) or an Appreciative Inquiry (van Straaten et al., 2016), instrument to investigate recognition practices. This inquiry may also uncover issues of role inequity, bullying, or other obstacles to effective recognition (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Pitman, 2000; van Straaten et al., 2016).

Job Security, Status and Autonomy

The nature, conditions, and context of staff appointments can have a substantial influence on wellbeing. Job security concerns among contingent, contract, and temporary university staff are one of the most serious stressors faced by these individuals (Tytherleigh et al., 2005). These positions are associated with pay inequity, limited benefits, stigmatization, exclusion from organizational governance and community, substantial workloads, and restricted institutional resources (e.g., access to a physical office, training) (Reevy & Deason, 2014). While organizations still expect commitment and quality work from these employees, long-term contract or temporary work fails to reward these individuals with the support, recognition, and compensation that might engender such effective performance (Grawitch, Gottschalk, & Munz, 2006; Kelloway & Day, 2005b; Mudrak et al., 2018; Tytherleigh et al., 2005). From a wellbeing perspective, job insecurity is associated with stress, anxiety, depression, maladaptive coping, incivility, and position turnover (Mullen et al., 2011; Reevy & Deason, 2014; van Straaten et al., 2016). High numbers of contingent positions may also directly and indirectly impact student

outcomes, as the increased wellbeing, confidence, commitment, and professional development associated with increased job security can improve learning experiences (Pignata et al., 2017; Zee & Koomen, 2016). These effects reinforce the importance of job security on both individual wellbeing and organizational performance.

Beyond contract issues, organizational hierarchy and role autonomy are job characteristics that are frequently associated with employee satisfaction, performance, and wellbeing. The structures and processes that exist within the institutional hierarchy are possible sources of stress in themselves, and can also provide the conditions for issues such as role inequity, bullying, and a restricted ability to control, tailor, and perform job tasks effectively (i.e., job autonomy) to take root. Excessive bureaucratic and administrative demands, uneven workloads, micromanagement, and a lack of opportunity for career advancement are associated with employee stress, reduced productivity, cynicism and disengagement (Cleary, Hungerford, Lopez, & Cutcliffe, 2015; Franken & Plimmer, 2019; Kinman, 2014; Loughlin & Mercer, 2014). Traditional university hierarchies and processes are also challenged by shifts in the roles of academic and administrative positions, and the emergence of "third-space" portfolios that blur category boundaries (Whitchurch, 2008). These staff, and others, may find themselves increasingly caught between their mandated goals and the barriers of existing structures, adding additional job demands that must be navigated in the strive for workplace wellbeing (Johari & Yahya, 2009).

Job security, status and autonomy strategies. A broad and deep review of staff positions, organizational hierarchy, and work processes is central to addressing issues of job security, status, and autonomy (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Morgan & Zeffane, 2003; Reevy &

Deason, 2014). High numbers of contingent positions, unmet professional needs, and limited

career and job management are likely considerable sources of stress within the organization,

and possible antecedents to other outcomes which reduce both personal and organizational

wellbeing (Reevy & Deason, 2014; van Straaten et al., 2016). Consulting with staff over the ways

in which they are able to influence and take meaningful control over their portfolios; addressing

bureaucratic, inefficient, and excessive administrative processes; challenging inequitable

hierarchies; as well as aligning duties with organizational values can address these issues (Child,

2011; Conrad et al., 2010; Gentry & Stokes, 2015; Pignata et al., 2017; Seeber et al., 2015).

Zábrodská and colleagues (2018) note that reducing administrative duties for faculty may be

particularly beneficial. Providing additional administrative support, reassigning duties, and

training resources for completing paperwork efficiently may lessen stress and renew focus on

academic work (Pignata et al., 2017; van Straaten et al., 2016; Zábrodská et al., 2018).

Meetings

Although a potentially generative and purposeful activity, ineffective, overlong, or an

excessive quantity of meetings can be a frustrating and costly drain on employee resources

(Romano & Nunamaker, 2001). Corporate administrative staff can average six hours of

meetings per week, managers at 23 hours per week, and leadership can spend up to 80% of

their workweek in meetings (Rogelberg, Scott, & Kello, 2007). For organizations, the

preponderance of higher ranking staff in meetings may be a concern, as their salary is a greater

loss when not used productively (Mroz et al., 2018). Comparatively, most academic staff may

spend around 20% of their workweek in meetings (Ziker, 2014) and sitting on numerous

committees (Mrig & Sanaghan, 2014).

Beyond impacting productivity, factors relating to meetings and their perceived effectiveness can have negative job attitude and wellbeing consequences. This includes stress related to goal-task disruption, time demands, and decreased job satisfaction (Rogelberg, Leach, Warr, & Burnfield, 2006). Rampant "social loafing" or "free-loading" can also create strain on active members who are expected to take on additional responsibilities in order to sustain committees and teams (Curcio & Lynch, 2017, p. 243). On the other hand, meetings can be positively associated with wellbeing for staff who are less structured and more group-oriented in their working style (Rogelberg et al., 2006). In order to make efficient use of time, and benefit from these collective endeavours, organizations and staff will need to critically examine and (re)define the characteristics of meetings (Allen et al., 2014).

Meeting strategies. Romano and Nunamaker (2001) define meetings as "a focused interaction of cognitive attention, planned or chance, where people agree to come together for a common purpose" (p. 1). Research examining workplace meetings emphasizes the need for meetings to be planned, purposeful, collaborative, focused, action-oriented, engaging, and well-facilitated (Allen et al., 2014; Mroz et al., 2018; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). Clark and Sousa (2018) suggest reflecting on the purpose (i.e., intended outcomes), participants (i.e., who actually needs to attend), planning (i.e., what needs done beforehand, and who should complete it), process (i.e., following the agenda and not being derailed), and post-work (i.e., review key takeaways action items for the next meeting). Numerous guides, such as Harvard Business Review's (2016) *Making Every Meeting Matter*, can be used to lead change. Other recommendations include:

- Always set an agenda and send it out beforehand (Garcia et al., 2004); try framing

the agenda items as questions (Lundquist & Misra, 2016);

- Shorten the time of meetings to under 60 minutes (preferably 30, 15, or 10 minutes) to discourage tangential or irrelevant discussion. Meetings will often fill the allotted time, rather than ending early (Williams, 2012);

- Try stand-up or walking meetings for impromptu and small group meetings (Lundquist & Misra, 2016);

- Consider replacing meetings with emails or phone calls when only sharing information (Lundquist & Misra, 2016);

- Self-analyze and be critical of your own meeting behaviours – are you daydreaming, interrupting, chronically absent, dominating discussion, off-task, or multitasking? (Atlassian, 2014; Clark & Sousa, 2018);

- Review the effectiveness of decision-making, and limit 'decisions by committee' unless necessary (Garcia et al., 2004); and

- Train meeting leaders in facilitation skills, and try applying guidelines such as *Robert's Rules of Order* (Lundquist & Misra, 2016).

While off-task behaviour during meetings is not a new phenomenon, the growing presence of digital technologies (e.g., cellphones, laptops, tablets) in meetings raises new questions about attention and presence (Allen et al., 2014). Digital devices can provide access to information, documents, and resources related to meeting goals, but also quick access to other tasks (e.g., email) which may be seen as more important or pressing than the meeting (Kleinman, 2007). While technology can certainly be used to benefit meetings, research indicates that around 75% of multitasking during meetings is distracted, rather than compliant

with meeting activities (Benbunan-Fich & Truman, 2009). According to Benbunan-Fich and Truman (2009), participants may switch between activities over 35 times in meetings longer than an hour. Staff perceptions of the need for technology and the ability to multitask are likely divided (Bajko, 2012); including technology as a topic during explicit discussions of group norms and meeting expectations, purposefully using technology during meeting activities, and reinforcing compliant behaviour is recommended (Benbunan-Fich & Truman, 2009; Kleinman, 2007). From a wellness perspective, a key message to communicate and model is respecting employee and colleagues' time:

- Organizations can reinforce the importance and influence of staff input and participation;
- Facilitators can highlight the goals and expected outcomes of meetings; and
- Attention and presence can be given by attendees (Lundquist & Misra, 2016; Mroz et al., 2018; Rogelberg et al., 2006; Sanaghan, 2015).

Internal Communications

Though often maligned and undervalued, internal communications processes contribute to both the functioning (e.g., information-sharing) and socialization (e.g., leading, motivating, inspiring) of corporations and universities (Beytekin & Arslan, 2013; Tourish & Hargie, 2004; Uslu, 2018). An "incredibly broad area" (Orsini, 2000, p. 29), internal communication refers to formal/informal, planned/impromptu, and explicit/implied intra-organizational messaging delivered in digital, print, and in-person channels (Tourish & Hargie, 1996; Welch, 2012). Commonly cited examples include emails, newsletters, posters, online bulletins, meetings, and social gatherings (Uslu, 2018).

More than just a tool of organizational governance or a means of improving efficiency and productivity (Barnes & Walker, 2010), internal communication has wide-ranging implications for organizational wellbeing (Grawitch et al., 2006; Tkalac Verčič, Verčič, & Sriramesh, 2012). These include:

- Organizational commitment and identification (Welch, 2012)

- Engagement (Tkalac Verčič & Pološki Vokić, 2017)

- Trust; perceptions of transparency, integrity, and consistency (Goodman, 2006)

- Job satisfaction (Uslu & Arslan, 2015)

- Reduced stress (Pignata et al., 2017)

Dejoy and Della (2014) position strategic internal communication as the "foundation upon which the key attributes of a healthy workplace must be developed" (p. 178), forging and reinforcing the relationship between employees and the organization (Tourish & Hargie, 1996, 2004). Internal communication is in many ways the enactment of the organization's vision: the process through which successes can be celebrated, and issues can be managed (Goodman, 2006). On the other hand, poor communication undermines this positive potential, allowing cynicism and distrust to erode relationships and hinder progress towards organizational goals (Brown & Cregan, 2008; Robson & Tourish, 2005; Welch, 2012).

Internal communications strategies. Given the centrality of internal communication in organizational success, integrating and leveraging an effective system is essential (Barnes & Walker, 2010; Tourish & Hargie, 1996). Like other interventions, improving internal communication hinges on understanding current strengths, responding to existing and emerging challenges, ensuring consistency throughout everyday practices, and continuous

evaluation to inform ongoing change. Tourish & Hargie (2004) identify two sides to communication issues - what issues *result in* poor communication, and what problems arise *as a result of* poor communication? Both require ongoing intervention, as short-lived attention and a few influential communications will not change organizational culture (DeJoy & Della, 2014). Frameworks, such as the Lean Six Sigma, can support the analysis and measurement of communication strategies (Barnes & Walker, 2010). These process aids guide managers in defining issues, understanding employee needs, and the unique context of their culture; again, no 'one-size' approach to communication will work for all employees all of the time (DeJoy & Della, 2014).

Clear, open, honest, and timely are some of hallmark qualities of effective internal communication (Pignata et al., 2017). By reinforcing these organizational commitments, staff can be motivated to take up these values in their own work, which can fuel a positive cycle of communication and job satisfaction (Tkalac Verčič & Pološki Vokić, 2017). Communication plans should consider both top-down and bottom-up communication strategies. Communication between staff and management must be bidirectional in order for staff to perceive trust and transparency in the communication, rather than seeing it as institutional propaganda (DeJoy & Della, 2014; Uslu, 2018). Increasing the effectiveness of communication during times of organizational change becomes of even greater importance (Orsini, 2000).

Implementing a communications plan requires the commitment, support, and participation of all levels of leadership, and the investment of time, resources, and patience (Tourish & Hargie, 1996). Helping leadership recognize the importance of effective communication, and

training all content creators on the organization's branding and style, are also integral to this process (Robson & Tourish, 2005; Tkalac Verčič & Pološki Vokić, 2017; Welch, 2012).

Institutional Expectations

Job demands, workload, duties, available resources, and staffing are all largely organization-controlled antecedents of wellbeing. The expectations, values, and goals of the institution directly or indirectly impact employee wellbeing, resulting in opportunities and challenges that organizations must navigate (Ayers, 2015).

Value Congruence

Taking a human-focused, rather than structural, approach to job performance, Day and Randell (2014) highlight the importance of individual and organizational value congruence in workplace wellbeing. These values – desired principles and priorities (e.g., integrity) or rationale/end goals (i.e., the 'why,' 'how,' and 'what' objectives are accomplished) – have substantial meaning to the individual and/or organization, and shape understandings of (un)acceptable decisions and behaviour for the individual, collective, and future direction (Paarlberg & Perry, 2007).

Employees must understand and agree to the results and values to which they are being held accountability (e.g., in performance reviews). Organizations should invest the time to resolve unproductive tensions, negative attitudes, disengagement, and interpersonal conflicts that arise from a mismatch in values (Ayers, 2015; Day & Randell, 2014). Increased alignment between individual and organizational values can result in significant increases to organizational performance - helping to motivate, lead, and evaluate quality work (Ayers, 2015), and strengthen positive work attitudes, job satisfaction, and engagement (Paarlberg & Perry, 2007).

Clark and Sousa (2018) contend that "values form an essential part of academic work" (p. 43), and therefore imperative that universities take the opportunity to discuss individual and organizational values with employees.

Value congruence strategies. A fundamental aspect of value congruence is uncovering the individual and organizational values that exist in the workplace (Clark & Sousa, 2018). For the employer, actions include defining and communicating values via strategic documents, as well as helping employees to examine their personal values, their values' connection to their work, and alignment with organizational values (Paarlberg & Perry, 2007). As new organizational values are presented, staff will need time and opportunities to 'try on' values, and form social consensus about how these values are embodied in practice (DeJoy & Della, 2014; Mellor et al., 2012). Values management is therefore a social, rather than bureaucratic, process.

Values cannot be assigned - increased communication or memorization of the values does not contribute to increased performance (Paarlberg & Perry, 2007). Nor is not enough to simply espouse certain values in the hopes of improving performance. The organization must demonstrate an ongoing commitment to carry out these values in actions and decisions, and help employees see these values 'alive' in their work (Mellor et al., 2012). Consistency and adherence to those plans is critical to success (Tourish & Hargie, 2004). Mid-level managers, in particular, can be effective in: connecting organizational values with employees' duties and personal values; helping staff to see the impact and importance of their work to the organization and beyond; as well as rewarding performance that builds on these shared values (Paarlberg & Perry, 2007). Integrating values discussions into performance reviews can

reinforce these values-job task connections, and their importance to performance and organizational culture (Salanova & Llorens, 2014).

Workload

Mounting workloads and the simultaneous pressure to do 'more with less' are commonly cited challenges for university staff (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007; Kinman, 2014; van Straaten et al., 2016; Watts & Robertson, 2011). Unmanageable workload is associated with poor work-life integration, stress, burnout, disengagement, job dissatisfaction, and decreased work performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Stoeber & Damian, 2016; Sturges, 2012). When the quantity of job demands exceeds the employee's current (perceived) capacity to complete work during scheduled hours, they are more likely to take work home or stay overtime, limiting their ability to recover (Zábrodská et al., 2018).

As noted by Kinman (2014), while an emphasis on student experience is essential to university functioning, improving the experience of "exhausted, demoralized and dissatisfied" employees is also justified (p. 231). This requires organizations to engage in strategies that: "redesign, reduce, and redistribute workloads" (Pignata et al., 2017, p. 6); provide opportunities to improve performance efficiency (Lackritz, 2004); and, help employees become aware of their work habits, productivity, and workload challenges (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Dunn et al., 2006).

Workload strategies. A strategic plan for fairly distributing and rewarding workload begins with a critical review of staff portfolios, duties, and performance. Although this process will differ significantly for support staff and academic staff (Kinman, 2014), improving work processes for both groups is an established need (Pignata et al., 2017). While assigned work

may seem equitable on paper, uncovering and effectively managing staff who may be struggling or disengaged is equally as important as discussing workload with office 'workhorses' - those who are consistently taking up slack and filling gaps during turnover (Davey, 2016; Knight, 2016).

A review of workload may also identify areas where additional resourcing, staffing, training, and processes can be improved. Helping staff learn new skills, foster positive mindsets, and develop their own resources and job aids can effectively support coping with workload stress (Pignata et al., 2017). Similarly, job sharing strategies (e.g., team teaching or collaborative projects), job rotations for intensive roles, differentiated workload policies, and credit systems are recommended for balancing job demands (O'Meara et al., 2018).

For academic staff specifically, Jonkers and Hicks (2014), Lackritz (2004) as well as O'Meara and colleagues (2018) highlight possible opportunities to combat burnout through changing faculty workload assignments, processes, and policies. In brief, these approaches include:

- Monitoring and supporting individuals at-risk and who have demonstrated previous instances of burnout; reducing teaching and supervisory load for these individuals; and regularly gauging faculty burnout via an assessment instrument (Lackritz, 2004)

- Catering faculty positions to be either more focused on research, or on teaching, rather than following the typical 40%-40%-20% division to research, teaching, and service (Jonker & Hicks, 2014). This may support increased research output, quality, and impact; bolster teaching capacity; and limit the perceived need for academic staff to "discharge the obligations expected of them" in order to perform effectively in different areas (p. 45).

- Use a dashboard and professional development opportunities to identify inequities and increase transparency in workload assignment (O'Meara et al., 2018). Expressing a commitment to workload equity can improve staff perceptions of organizational justice, and empower individuals to self-advocate in addressing issues.

Since workload is likely determined by managers, senior leadership, and the organization, significant reform will require commitment and action these stakeholders (O'Meara et al., 2018).

For individual staff members, research suggestions for managing workload (outside of advocating for support) focus largely on improving personal effectiveness (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007). Far from suggesting that employees simply work more or avoid duties, effectiveness is "more about applying skills . . . to develop consistently better routines, habits and systems for these tasks" (Clark & Sousa, 2018, p. 169). Employees without a clear sense of their job priorities, time, or task management strategies may simultaneously be busy (e.g., with email, small requests) yet ineffective overall by delaying work on urgent and important tasks (Dunn et al., 2006). Strategies for improving personal effectiveness include:

- Prioritize and control your time – assess tasks for their immediacy and purpose, use an e-calendar, and keep organized (Jackevicius et al., 2014; Kearns & Gardiner, 2007)

- Assess whether tasks should be done by you at all, and if the tasks are urgent or not (Clark & Sousa, 2018)

- Give timelines for when you will respond (Sturges, 2012). This provides individuals with structure and control over their time, and clarifies expectations to reduce the need for additional follow-up.

- Use software to streamline tasks (e.g., reference/citation-, résumé-, and task-management tools) (Clark & Sousa, 2018)

- Try creating your own resources and seek training to support your work effectiveness (Bakker et al., 2012; O'Meara et al., 2018)

- While it might be uncomfortable to knowingly leave work undone or say 'no,' even when under existing pressure, give yourself this permission to do so when possible (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007)

Increased planning and scheduling of tasks can have a variety of benefits for staff, including increased feelings of control, increased creativity, and reduced stress (Zampetakis, Bouranta, & Moustakis, 2010). Although staff may not have full control over their workload, self-directed strategies for improving work effectiveness can reduce stress and worry associated with the 'lack of time' to accomplish tasks and goals (Gillespie, Walsh, Stough, Winefield, & Dua, 2001; Pignata & Winefield, 2015).

Role Ambiguity

Whether related to job portfolio, processes, expectations, or priorities, role ambiguity arises whenever staff have insufficient information to "know what is expected from them at work" (Pignata & Winefield, 2015, p. 32). Role ambiguity is not only a stressor staff members, particularly for those with perfectionist tendencies (Stoeber & Damian, 2016), but a potential antecedent of role conflict, incivility, dissatisfaction, and depersonalization (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Watts & Robertson, 2011). Role ambiguity is a particular concern in universities, as the complexity inherent to knowledge work, institutional governance, and diverse portfolios are fertile ground for ambiguity (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Joo et al., 2012; Schulz, 2013). While some

level of ambiguity can allow for flexibility and the freedom to solve problems creatively (Schulz, 2013), too little clarity and structure reduces the confidence staff have in their capacity to accomplish duties, reduces motivation, and increases perceived job demands (Pignata et al., 2017). These factors clearly implicate role ambiguity with workplace wellbeing.

Role ambiguity strategies. Providing clarity requires organizations to make goals, expectations, and processes explicit to staff members in all areas of their work (Pignata et al., 2017). For academic staff, research indicates that many performance expectations are understood from observation, inference, and experience, rather than from explicit discussions or institutional documents (Clark & Sousa, 2018). As demands for research, teaching, service, administration, and management grow and change, a clear understanding of practices and goals becomes increasingly important for individual and institutional success (Zábrodská et al., 2018).

Dunn and colleagues (2006) recommend connecting these conversations to performance evaluations, and markers of success in different areas. This information provides staff with the opportunity to purposefully plan and guide their work (Clark & Sousa, 2018). Rather than imposing criteria, staff must "know and agree to the standards and outcomes to which they are being held accountable" (Ayers, 2015, p. 172). Co-developing these criteria together with staff can increase the control and sense of ownership employees develop over their work (Ayers, 2015). Ongoing feedback reinforces mutual understanding, limiting the potential for ambiguity to return (Pignata et al., 2017).

Workplace Community and Culture

A foundational goal of any long-term wellbeing strategy must be a change in the workplace culture. An organization's culture "conveys a sense of identity and helps to share meaning among individuals interacting in a given workplace" (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014, p. 98). Workplace cultures are embodied, and "reinforced by leadership styles, procedures and perceptions of what's valued, rewarded and punished" (Purcell, 2019, para. 10). In the case of wellbeing, policies and practices must be modified to permeate wellbeing throughout the organization for optimal effect (DeJoy & Della, 2014).

Culture of Wellbeing

Wellbeing interventions require the ongoing commitment, action, and communication of the ways in which the organization is developing a culture of wellbeing (Reevy & Deason, 2014). The following sections explore recommendations for transforming three key factors:

- Leadership approaches (Attridge, 2009; Mellor et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2014);

- Policies and practices (Pignata & Winefield, 2015; Tourish & Hargie, 1996; Zábrodská et al., 2018); and,

- Staff training and development (Pignata et al., 2017; Reevy & Deason, 2014).

Culture of wellbeing strategies – leadership. The role of leadership in "creating positive work conditions at academic workplaces appears to be indispensable" (Mudrak et al., 2018, p. 341), to the extent that leaders can "make or break" the success of organizational change (Nielsen, 2014, p. 237). The front-line, middle, and senior leaders in an organization perform both functional (i.e., in carrying out plans) and symbolic roles (i.e., embodying the vision) in wellbeing interventions (LaMontagne et al., 2012). The substantial influence these leaders have necessitates training these staff to use both behavioural and relational approaches to

promoting wellbeing (Nielsen, 2014). The commitment of all leadership to wellbeing strategies

is crucial (Karanika-Murray et al., 2012), yet many organizations struggle to sustain the required

dedication in the long-term (Chenoweth, 2011; LaMontagne et al., 2012).

Transformational leadership approaches can positively influence employee wellbeing (Mellor

et al., 2012). Supportive, considerate, and empowering relationships (Salanova & Llorens, 2014)

between managers and staff can foster:

- Perceived organizational support (Pignata et al., 2017);

- Positive work attitudes and perspectives (contagion effect; Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005);

- Reduced stress (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014); and,

- A sense of accomplishment, meaning, and fulfilment at work (Mellor et al., 2012)

In addition to defining and operationalizing a wellbeing strategy, transformational leaders

strive to guide and inspire staff to achieve wellbeing goals, internalize the importance of

personal wellbeing, and self-direct ongoing change (Mellor et al., 2012; Nielsen, 2014). Leaders

should serve as wellbeing role models, active communicators of the wellbeing strategy and

initiatives, and a resource in supporting the wellbeing of their individual staff (Nielsen, 2014).

While promoting wellbeing may manifest as another responsibility for leaders to juggle

(LaMontagne et al., 2012), a wellbeing focus can support a shift away from mainly 'managing'

administrative duties, to 'leading' transformational change and 'guiding' teams to exemplary

performance (Loughlin & Mercer, 2014). Training all leaders - particularly academic leaders who

may not have the same professional experiences and development opportunities as support

staff - in the competencies to effectively lead teams, build workplace culture, and resolve conflict is recommended (Noe & Tews, 2014; Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013).

Organizational leaders at all levels must consistently open safe spaces and leverage mechanisms to solicit and act upon staff feedback (Clark et al., 2013; Price & Kerschbaum, 2017). Any changes toward a culture of wellbeing will likely be fruitless "if the leadership of that organization has cultivated a culture in which employee suggestions are ignored" (Grawitch et al., 2006, p. 145). A bidirectional exchange of feedback between employees and leaders provides information on current areas of strength, as well as tensions and issues which may be negatively impacting wellbeing and performance success (DeJoy & Della, 2014; Joo et al., 2012). When employees feel heard, and trust that leadership supports them, organizational commitment and job satisfaction are increased, and psychological strain is decreased (Pignata et al., 2014).

Culture of wellbeing strategies – policies, practices, and training. As job demands are a likely source of stress for employees (Mudrak et al., 2018), the addition and revision of workplace policies, practices, and training opportunities must shift in order to realize a culture of wellbeing[2]. Pignata and colleagues (2017) suggest a number of upstream redesigns that can improve employee wellbeing:

- Reducing workload burden – specifically hindrances and threats

- Relocating staff and/or improving physical workspaces and environments

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[2] This report does not explore the services or impacts of Employee (Family) Assistance Programs (EAP/EFAP). Although integral to staff wellbeing, this was the focus of Smith and Holden (2016). Please refer to that report for further information.

- Changing or reducing (overtime) work hours; allowing more flexible work time

- Providing additional staffing, training, and job resources

These structural changes are also supported by van Straaten et al. (2016), who emphasized that having sufficient human capital and job resources in administrative positions within a faculty can reduce stress among both academic and support staff.

Staff can also benefit from explicit training in positive coping strategies, emotional intelligence, efficacy beliefs, and stress-reduction measures (Salanova & Llorens, 2014). These interventions may be particularly relevant for academic staff, who are more likely to report protective coping strategies (e.g., withdrawing, disengaging) to conserve personal resources than support staff (Pignata et al., 2017). Reevy and Deason (2014) add that younger academics are more likely to use maladaptive coping strategies than their more experienced colleagues. Therefore, offering or directing new faculty members to training in stress-reduction and coping may be particularly useful to supporting improved wellbeing.

Beyond the immediate benefits of reduced stress, staff that participate in wellbeing programs may also report "higher levels of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and perceived procedural justice and trust in senior management than those who were not aware of the measures" (Pignata & Winefield, 2015, p. 31). Employees' positive perceptions of change, organizational support, and their own coping abilities are key drivers in their wellbeing, even when not coupled with modifications to their job demands (Dunn et al., 2006; Mudrak et al., 2018; Pignata et al., 2017).

Employee Engagement

Engagement in workplace wellbeing literature may refer to either/both a) the involvement

of employees in the planning and direction of wellbeing initiatives, and b) their personal commitment toward their work and contribution to the organization's goals (Salanova & Llorens, 2014). Stoeber and Damian (2016) position work engagement as "a state of mind in which employees consider their work to be personally meaningful, feel positive towards their work, and are involved in, committed to, and enthusiastic and passionate about their work" (p. 268). In their seminal work, Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker (2002) present three common expressions of engagement: vigor (i.e., high energy, mental resilience, persistence), dedication (i.e., enthusiasm, pride), and absorption (i.e., concentration, being engrossed in the work). Connecting engagement to job resources, LaMontagne and colleagues (2012) highlight engagement as the "concrete enactment of job control," demonstrating "organizational fairness and justice," and building "mutual support among workers and between workers and supervisors" (p. 27).

According to Day and Randell (2014), employee engagement is of fundamental importance "as employees must be actively involved in the shaping of organizational practices to truly produce long-term win–win benefits for both employees and organizations" (p. 14). Yet, studies of work engagement report that less than 30% of an organization's employees may be actively engaged in their work, with over 50% being neutral or only moderately engaged (see Attridge, 2009). Engaged employees benefit from increased positive feelings, intrinsic motivation, and satisfaction in their work, while employers benefit from increased productivity, customer service, and reduced turnover (Attridge, 2009). Engaged and committed employees are also more likely to interpret negative workplace events in more positive ways, experiencing fewer negative emotional responses than less committed employees (Reevy & Deason, 2014). These

affective and physical state effects therefore implicate engagement as a facet of employee

wellbeing (Schaufeli, Taris, & Van Rhenen, 2008).

Employee engagement strategies. Various job resources are positively associated with

employee engagement, including:

- Job autonomy and control (Mudrak et al., 2018; Salanova & Llorens, 2014),

- Supportive and positive collegial relationships (Mudrak et al., 2018; Reevy & Deason,

  2014; Salanova & Llorens, 2014),

- Performance feedback and growth opportunities (Salanova & Llorens, 2014; van

  Straaten et al., 2016), and

- Recognition and organizational support (Reevy & Deason, 2014; Salanova & Llorens,

  2014; Schaufeli et al., 2002)

The current state of employee engagement can be regularly measured through surveys, and

workshops on positivity, personal skills, and collegial relationships can support the enjoyment

of and commitment to work (Fredrickson, 2003; Salanova & Llorens, 2014).

Beyond day-to-day work engagement, employee participation in implementing wellbeing

interventions is foundational in the success of the initiatives. Employees should be included

throughout the planning, implementation, and evaluation stages, as this optimizes the fit of the

intervention to the context, based on employee perceptions, and improves perceptions of the

initiative (Karanika-Murray et al., 2012; LaMontagne et al., 2007, 2012). Involvement ingrains

the value of the initiative, develops a shared meaning and investment in the actions, positions

staff as 'champions' of the intervention, and promotes the positive reception of the initiative

(Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014). Participation may also help guide staff towards developing

their own, personally meaningful strategies for managing their wellbeing (Clark & Sousa, 2018).

Consistent participation in the established wellness program is also crucial (Nielsen, Randall, & Albertsen, 2007), but employees do not always have the mental or physical capacity to engage at the necessary levels at the start of the program (DeJoy, Wilson, Vandenberg, McGrath-Higgins, & Griffin-Blake, 2010). Employees may need support in seeing the benefits and perceiving the impact of being involved (Brown & Cregan, 2008), and offering participation incentives is common in wellness programs (Sangachin & Cavuoto, 2015). According to Mattke et al. (2013), only 1 in 5 U.S. employees actively participates in their organization's wellness program, mediated by a number of personal and contextual factors. Although perceived stress is a central motivator for staff who do participate in wellness programming (Sangachin & Cavuoto, 2018), studies commonly report that employees who are already health-conscious are the most likely to use wellness services without additional supports (e.g., Jones et al., 2018). If employees perceive accessing services or programs to be inconvenient or detrimental to their work-life integration (e.g., because of timing, distance, policy restrictions), they are also less likely to engage (Grawitch et al., 2006). These perceptions can explain low participation in after-work-hours wellness programs (Harrison & Stephens, 2019). While participation can increase job resources, including aspects of health and wellbeing, researchers reiterate that structural issues must also be addressed in order to reduce actual job demands (Ott-Holland, Shepherd, & Ryan, 2019).

As in any change management process, wellbeing interventions must be purposefully developed and framed to convey the importance, impact, and role of individuals in the process (DeJoy & Della, 2014). In fact, changes in workplace practices, culture, and policy are a

considerable source of stress in themselves that must be addressed (Schulz, 2013). Tetrick,

Quick, and Gilmore (2014) presented six criteria for the conditions surrounding wellbeing

intervention from a change perspective:

(a) readiness to change,

(b) participation of the change recipients in the change effort,

(c) accurate diagnosis of the need for change,

(d) taking a positive approach for creating readiness for change

(e) strategically leading the change to support the key beliefs underlying the motivation to

change, and

(f) continuous assessment of reactions to the change effort

This process is time-intensive, and requires multiple levels of analysis and action simultaneously

(Tetrick & Haimann, 2014). If the conditions for large-scale, organizational interventions are less

than ideal, success may still be possible by developing individual-level approaches (Biron &

Karanika-Murray, 2014).

Community-Building

Developing a meaningful sense of belonging, collegiality, acceptance, and value among staff

has notable impacts for both productivity and wellbeing (Chenoweth, 2011; Leiter & Patterson,

2014). Humans are finely attuned to interpersonal cues and organizational structures that

impact their status in work teams, and positive and negative affective states are transmitted

between individuals on teams (Biron & Karanika-Murray, 2014). Monitoring and improving the

conditions and antecedents to these relationships and affective states is therefore central to

promoting a respectful and healthy organization (Tetrick & Haimann, 2014).

Collegial, mentoring, or other professional relationships contribute to the "effectiveness, vibrancy, and quality of [academic] work" (Clark & Sousa, 2018, p. 124), yet post-secondary contexts (e.g., tenure/promotion processes, isolation, hierarchical structures) typically lend themselves to limited conceptualizations of community-building, teamwork, and collegiality (Mullen et al., 2011). For instance, Heinrich (2010) and Cassell (2011) report less than five percent of academics perceived faculty working well in teams. The need to increase collegiality and community among post-secondary staff is therefore pressing (Clark et al., 2013).

Developing supportive and trusting teams requires the investment of time and energy from individual staff (Paulin & Griffin, 2016), while communicating the value of strong teams and offering teambuilding opportunities can be prioritized by the organization (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Paarlberg & Perry, 2007; Salanova & Llorens, 2014). Community-building also requires addressing systemic issues and persistent forms of interpersonal conflict which may preclude the development of a positive team environment (Mullen et al., 2011), including:

- Bullying and incivility (e.g., Keashly & Neuman, 2010; C. King & Piotrowski, 2015; Roscigno et al., 2009), and

- Role inequity and internal competition (e.g., Benndorf & Rau, 2012; Brown & Cregan, 2008; Conrad et al., 2010)

Bullying and incivility. Civil interpersonal interactions are essential to a respectful and healthy workplace. Day-to-day encounters are a primary factor in employee perceptions of workplace (in)civility (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Leiter & Patterson, 2014). Although closely connected, bullying and incivility present different 'faces' of negative workplace behaviours. Bullying is defined as a "prolonged and repeated negative behaviour at work directed against

one or more employees" (Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013, p. 90). Bullying usually involves a power imbalance, is typically higher-intensity, and refers to a regularly occurring interaction, while incivility is a broader construct encompassing many other, perhaps more subtle, forms of intentionally harmful behaviours (Cortina & Magley, 2009).

Respectful workplaces provide a sense of psychological safety, as well as job resources in the form of collaboration, social support, and knowledge exchange; civil work environments are associated with improved efficacy, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, trust, and perceived organizational justice (Leiter & Patterson, 2014). Conversely, negative work environments and relationships are associated with:

- Stress, distraction, negative affective states (e.g., frustration, annoyance, sadness), lower job satisfaction, and reduced creativity (Cortina & Magley, 2009), and

- Reduced performance, disengagement, self-efficacy, mental and physical health, as well as increased absenteeism and job turnover (Leiter & Patterson, 2014)

These factors have clear impacts on organizational performance, as well as on individual wellness (Hollis, 2015). The consequences of these antisocial acts raise salient questions about how organizations are interpreting employee voice (and silence) surrounding these issues (Donaghey, Cullinane, Dundon, & Wilkinson, 2011).

The frequency of bullying in university and other post-secondary settings is often higher than other professional norms, with studies reporting an average prevalence between 18% and 32% (Keashly & Neuman, 2010). While well-managed debate and disagreement are inevitable and even beneficial in knowledge work (see University of Calgary, 2019), these discussions may also

be a prominent cause or rationale for incivility (Mullen et al., 2011). Other factors that may

trigger incivility among post-secondary staff include:

- "Personality conflicts, extreme self-interest, a high need for control or power,

    jealousy, spite, or revenge" (McElveen, Leslie, & Malotky, 2006, p. 34)

- Organizational injustice (Leiter & Patterson, 2014)

- Personal isolation, competition, and limited teamwork (Twale & De Luca, 2008),

- "Poor management … ideological disagreements, rivalry, and personal animosity"

    (Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013, p. 98), and/or

- "Faculty superiority, unmanageable faculty workload, … juggling multiple roles,

    unclear roles and expectations" (Clark et al., 2013, p. 212)

Roberts, Scherer and Bowyer (2011) report a positive correlation between job stress and

engagement in incivility. Incivility in post-secondary contexts commonly manifests as "threats

to professional status and isolating and obstructional behavior" (Keashly & Neuman, 2010, p.

54), as well as "exclusion, competitiveness, lack of support, unequal workloads, or physical

attacks" (Clark et al., 2013, p. 212).

   Despite the negative effects on health, the majority of employees are more likely to respond

to bullying with avoidance, minimization, disengagement, and withdrawal than responding

actively – particularly when the aggressor has power over the victim (Cortina & Magley, 2009;

Hollis, 2015) – while those employees accused of bullying often respond in ambivalent and

detached ways (Cortina & Magley, 2009). Reinforcing these findings, Keashly and Neuman

(2010) found little motivation among academic staff to address uncivil behaviours, particularly

among tenured colleagues where academic freedom took precedence. These attitudes allow

"situations to escalate, resulting in a toxic climate and an increased likelihood of aggression and bullying" (Keashly & Neuman, 2010, p. 60). Bullying is more likely to occur in disorganized workplaces, and where leadership is ineffective at managing office culture (Roscigno et al., 2009). Bullying disproportionately affects employees with less power (e.g., female, minority, contingent, and administrative staff), younger employees, and recent hires (Roscigno et al., 2009; Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013). On the other hand, tenure may play a role in incivility among senior and longstanding staff, where cycles of incivility may have been ingrained over many years (Keashly & Neuman, 2010; Roscigno et al., 2009; Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013).

Furthermore, faculty leadership may be the instigator or enabler of bullying in university settings (Hollis, 2015). While respect from leaders has a profound positive impact on how employees perceive the organizational climate (Leiter & Patterson, 2014), incivility from higher-ranking staff can be more stressful than peer-peer behaviours, and more difficult to address (Cortina & Magley, 2009). Organizational processes (e.g., from Human Resources [HR]) and leadership can also effectively obstruct or hamper anti-bullying efforts (e.g., particularly against supervisors and senior staff) and poorly handle collegial incivility, allowing bullying to become more strongly entrenched (Hollis, 2015; Roscigno et al., 2009). Though a potential ally, organizational psychology scholars and business surveys report employee concerns over the support of leadership and HR in bullying instances (e.g., King, 2011; Smith, 2013; Zillman & Fry, 2018). According to a survey conducted by Cortina and Magley (2009), "only 1% to 6% of employees who experienced incivility had ever filed a formal complaint" (p. 285). Further, unions and other organizational resources may not have the authority and scope to support employees experiencing bullying (Roscigno et al., 2009). Thus, employees are more likely to

turn to friends or colleagues to discuss their issues, over institutional authorities (Cortina &

Magley, 2009; Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013).

Bullying and incivility strategies. Studies consistently report that "organizations that fail to

be proactive in managing incivility will likely face more serious and corrosive consequences that

eat away at workplace culture" (Sidle, 2009, p. 89). Having a systematic program and

mechanisms in place to prevent and address incivility, rather than relying on "Band-Aid"

tertiary interventions, is key (Cortina & Magley, 2009; Roscigno et al., 2009). Hollis (2015)

reinforces that, particularly in the light of increasing fiscal austerity, "higher education cannot

afford to lose valuable productivity to staff turnover and employee disengagement" (p. 8)

caused by bullying and incivility.

Developing positive interpersonal relationships and sense of community is often at the core

of anti-bullying and civility interventions. Increasing opportunities for social interactions,

arranging support and/or professional interest groups, and providing open forums to address

community issues can reinforce staff commitment and investment in these relationships (Clark

et al., 2013; Ren & Caudle, 2016; Zábrodská et al., 2018). Social supports can also reduce the

isolation commonly experienced by academic staff (Dunn et al., 2006; Leiter & Patterson, 2014;

Pope, 2010).

Individuals can actively develop relationships with colleagues, particularly across staff

boundaries, reducing the formalities and bureaucratic barriers which limit interpersonal

connections (Pitman, 2000). Faculties, offices, and other sub-units may also benefit from co-

creating value-based norm statements that reflect the dynamic and thriving culture they aspire

to achieve (Clark et al., 2013; Mullen et al., 2011). These guidelines should describe just and

caring ways of working within the unit, and regularly be revisited and reaffirmed by the group (Clark et al., 2013; Mullen et al., 2011).

Similarly, staff can benefit from capacity-building opportunities which increase their awareness and skills related to managing conflict, difficult conversations, and incivility (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Keashly & Neuman, 2010; Stone, Patton, & Heen, 2010). Importantly, training in this area could focus on giving negative feedback, addressing perceived incivility, being an empathetic and focused listener, working effectively in a team, supporting others, and being self-aware and self-regulating through times of conflict (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Haraway & Haraway, 2005; Pignata & Winefield, 2015).

Leaders play a critical role in setting the tone for a healthy, civil, and respectful workplace (Clark et al., 2013; Hollis, 2015). Beyond training opportunities, organizational leaders can:

- Review current policy, process, and resources regarding workplace incivility for areas of strength and weakness (Roscigno et al., 2009),
- Take a proactive approach to addressing the underlying causes of incivility (Keashly & Neuman, 2010); do not wait for formal grievances to take serious action (Cortina & Magley, 2009),
- Position teamwork and collegiality as central to Faculty operations; provide opportunities for collaboration, job sharing, and mutual support (Pignata et al., 2017),
- Articulate a clear stance against incivility, and uphold it in action (King & Piotrowski, 2015; Roscigno et al., 2009),
- Facilitate empowering relationships between staff and managers (Pignata et al.,

2014),

- Help teams develop processes for responding to common sources of conflict (Pitman, 2000),

- Help employees in need with resources and social support (Cortina & Magley, 2009),

- Handle issues discreetly and expeditiously, yet acknowledge those indirectly affected (Hollis, 2015; King & Piotrowski, 2015), and

- Consider including staff in "policy development and performance evaluation" (Clark et al., 2013, p. 217).

Establishing more equitable and positive stakeholder relationships – whether among academic staff ranks (Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013), between academic and support staff (Henkin & Persson, 1992; Small, 2008; van Straaten et al., 2016), or staff and students (Barrett et al., 2010; Lippmann et al., 2009; Pitman, 2000) – has important ramifications for university community-building. Relationships among these groups are explored below to highlight possible issues.

Academic staff. While bullying in academia is primarily directed towards new and lower-ranking faculty members, troubled peer-peer relationships among academic staff can also negatively influence faculty culture (Beckmann, Cannella, & Wantland, 2013; Blankenship-Knox et al., 2017; Keashly & Neuman, 2010). Bullying and incivility among academic staff can occur during research projects, meetings, teaching, and in informal spaces; bullying among academic ranks is often subtle and psychologically-oriented, and can include slights against reputation, assigning 'demeaning' tasks, and social exclusion (Meriläinen, Sinkkonen, Puhakka, & Käyhko, 2016; Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013). In retaliation, academic staff may find opportunities to return

bullying or uncivil behaviours, engaging in a dual victim-bully role (Meriläinen et al., 2016). As the majority of reported bullying cases among academic staff are work-related, discussions around workload, task assignments, and engagement are key to understanding and addressing these issues (Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013).

Academic and support staff. Studies have consistently reported that the traditional organizational structures and positioning of academic and support staff creates unproductive tensions and turbulent relationships between these groups (Pitman, 2000; Small, 2008). Participants in Pitman's (2000) study perceived that there are "two clear cultures operating" (p. 172) in universities regarding the treatment of administrative and academic staff. Support staff generally see themselves connected to more than just the administration of students, and express a desire to be better promoted and recognized for their work in other student service areas (Szekeres, 2011). In particular, involvement in decision-making processes and recognition of their skills and knowledge is essential. Whitchurch (2008) noted that support staff increasingly have a post-secondary education, and therefore have perspectives on student and staff experience that they want to have acknowledged. Support staff may also feel looked-down upon and undervalued by academic staff, perceiving that they give, but do not receive, respect (Pitman, 2000; Small, 2008). Based on traditional hierarchies, academic staff and academic leaders are typically positioned to be the gatekeepers for involvement in the faculty community, governance, and decision-making; structural changes may be required to allow authentic participation from support staff (Henkin & Persson, 1992).

On the other hand, support staff incivility towards their academic colleagues can also reinforce issues. Support staff may harbour negative stereotypes about the skills and attitudes

of academic staff, or limit their relationship with academic staff to transactional, 'client'-based exchanges which prevent trust and positive relationships from developing (Pitman, 2000). Academic and support staff may also find themselves in conflict over adherence to processes and bureaucratic requirements set in place by the organization. While academic staff may be acting in the best interest of students, frustrations can arise if support staff are restricted to particular methods or schedules, and additional requests may exceed staff capacity (Small, 2008). Such interactions can mar future exchanges, and reduce the likelihood of support staff assisting academic colleagues beyond the minimum requirements (Szekeres, 2011).

Staff and students. Bullying and incivility can also occur bottom-up, where negative student interactions and sexual attention can cause staff varying degrees of discomfort and distress (Lampman, Phelps, Bancroft, & Beneke, 2009). Staff may not feel respected or acknowledged by students, and rude, disruptive, and even aggressive actions in the classroom can be a considerable source of stress (Barrett et al., 2010; Clark, 2009; Whitfield, 2018). Student expectations of staff time and support are also concerns, where excessive requests can present additional job demands for staff to address (El-Alayli et al., 2018; Lippmann et al., 2009). See the Student Services section of this report for additional information in this area.

Regardless of the stakeholder group, assessing incivility can include satisfaction surveys and the evaluation of leaders, which are not frequently conducted in post-secondary settings (Hollis, 2015; Passmore & Anagnos, 2008). Faculties should also be critical of how these surveys are taken up, and how the information is informing change (Williams & Cappuccini-Ansfield, 2007). Studies highlight the need to take any report or survey seriously, and reinforce that

action will be taken, as "gathering information and complaints . . . then acting with apathy once results are tallied" indicates that the organization does not have a true commitment to these processes (Hollis, 2015, p. 8).

Role inequity and internal competition. Beyond provoking uncivil conduct, role inequity and internal competition may be further barriers to improving community within an organization. Role inequity refers to the unjust treatment of staff based on visible or invisible positionalities, such as age, gender, sexual orientation, race, rank, and job class (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Johnson-Bailey, 2015; McCord, Joseph, Dhanani, & Beus, 2017). As noted above, in addition to broader societal influences, inequity in post-secondary institutions may be reinforced by longstanding structural and/or procedural norms that privilege certain groups and disadvantage others (Mullen et al., 2011; O'Meara, Kuvaeva, & Nyunt, 2017). These characteristics factor into different aspects of post-secondary staff work, including: student support expectations (El-Alayli et al., 2018; Hyman et al., 2005), division of labour/workload (O'Meara et al., 2018, 2017), and performance evaluations (Rivera & Tilcsik, 2019).

Studies of wellbeing in university contexts commonly refer to the individualistic and competitive nature of academic tenure and promotion processes, which can discourage collegial support (Conrad et al., 2010; Miner, Smittick, He, & Costa, 2019). Given the importance of tenure and promotion in faculty aspirations (Gentry & Stokes, 2015), the systematic rewarding of staff who outperform their colleagues, and whose individual achievements take precedence over collaborative projects, serves to intensify competition (Benndorf & Rau, 2012). While the organization stands to benefit somewhat from the increased effort and pressure to perform, competition over position and status is reported to be a common source of stress and

mistrust among university staff (Björkqvist, Österman, & Hjelt-Bäck, 1994; Meriläinen et al., 2016).

Role inequity and internal competition strategies. Relationships are developed and enacted over several years, thus thinking beyond the immediate interaction and towards a community culture may improve the functioning of the organization (Small, 2008). Organizations can also encourage interactions beyond formal transactions, to establish more personal and caring relationships (Pitman, 2000). Such a goal requires opportunities for relationship building and reconciliation of past issues (Salin, 2009).

Ensuring the equitable treatment of staff from all categories requires a conscious shift in practices and processes across the organization (Small, 2008). All groups deserve to be recognized, considered, and celebrated within the organization (Luthans, 2000), and need a genuine belief that they are contributing to the success of the organization and other stakeholders (Szekeres, 2011). Opportunities to improve perceived disparities include bolstering communication and understanding between staff categories (Small, 2008), authority sharing and involvement in decision-making (Henkin & Persson, 1992), and rewarding collegiality (Blankenship-Knox et al., 2017). These actions "enhance the perception of the university as an open system where equity and fairness prevail, and facilitate the implementation of decisions where the support of consensual arrangements is critical" (Henkin & Persson, 1992, p. 57)**.**

Mentorship

Successful mentorship and coaching programs support community-building and wellbeing outcomes for individuals and the organization (Dawley, Andrews, & Bucklew, 2010). Positioning

mentorship as planned socialization (Dunham-Taylor, Lynn, Moore, McDaniel, & Walker, 2008),

mentoring relationships can result in positive "behavioral, attitudinal, health-related, relational,

motivational, and career outcomes" (Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & DuBois, 2008, p. 254), such as:

- Higher employee retention and commitment (Dawley et al., 2010; Dunham-Taylor et al., 2008)

- Improved interpersonal relationships, supports, and job satisfaction (Dawley et al., 2010; Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Thorndyke et al., 2006)

- Increased knowledge, enhanced career development, and acclimatization within the organization (Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Thorndyke et al., 2006)

McCauley and Douglas (1998) presented four types of mentoring relationships: one-on-one

mentoring, peer coaching, executive coaching, and coaching in groups (see Appendix A, Figure

9). The potential benefits and drawbacks of each will require organizations to consider how to

use the appropriate style based on the intended results (Joo et al., 2012). These developmental

relationships must be carefully cultivated, supported, and purposefully integrated into

organizational efforts to improve leadership and community development (McCauley &

Douglas, 1998). Staff may also informally establish modeling and mentoring relationships to

support their colleagues with learning opportunities (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Ladyshewsky, 2017).

However, the benefits of mentorship are unlikely to be realized in typical post-secondary

settings when there are "impoverished reward structures for mentoring" (Mullen et al., 2011,

p. 285).

 In higher education, faculties of medicine and nursing are frequently featured in the

literature for addressing issues through academic staff mentorship models (e.g., Dunham-

Taylor et al., 2008; Jackevicius et al., 2014; Thorndyke et al., 2006). These authors highlighted

possibilities for achieving reciprocal and meaningful relationships that "increase the quality and

overall outcome of faculty development programs" (Thorndyke et al., 2006, p. 673). Jackevicius

and colleagues (2014) suggested a possible focus on core topics, such as tenure/promotion,

faculty responsibilities, job resources, university familiarity, grant writing, feedback and editing,

as well as career development planning. While these programs often focus on mentoring for

new staff, opportunities for mid- and late-career mentoring can support the success of these

employees (Jackevicius et al., 2014; Thorndyke et al., 2006).

Work-Life Integration

Literature on work-life integration has increasingly recognized that controlling 'work' and

'home' life is not necessarily a balance of two distinct spheres, but a continuous negotiation of

how and when these domains manifest in a person's life (Ren & Caudle, 2016). Staff must

consciously manage long-term, and often competing, goals in each area with the demands of

everyday responsibilities (Hyman et al., 2005). Boundaries are therefore always relative to the

demands of each domain, the goals of the person, and their happiness/ability to cope with the

current state of work-life; as such, "going the extra mile" in times of increased demands may be

easier for those who are willing and able to do so, than for those who feel forced or burdened

by additional responsibilities (Salanova & Llorens, 2014). What is clear, however, is that

excessive spillover from work to home life, particularly over a long duration, reduces a person's

ability to recover, their perceived time to participate in family and non-work life, and negatively

impacts their wellbeing (Zábrodská et al., 2018). As in other areas, demographic factors such as

age and gender importantly shape how individuals are affected by and respond to these

stressors (Ren & Caudle, 2016; Sturges, 2012). Academic and support staff also face distinct

challenges and opportunities in their work-life integration, and may therefore require separate

interventions (Pignata et al., 2014; Zábrodská et al., 2018).

Work-life integration strategies. Employees commonly use a variety of methods – both

organizational and self-directed – to manage work-life (Sturges, 2012). Although most

strategies are initiated and enacted by the individual, having organizational policies and

managerial support for any staff member's plan is essential (Hyman et al., 2005). Understanding

what work-life integration means to individuals in their current work context is fundamental to

building an effective plan (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Sturges, 2012). Strategies might include shifting

working hours (e.g., part-time, flex-time), workload divisions (e.g., portfolios, job sharing,

teamwork), time management (e.g., techniques which improve efficiency, contain work within

working hours, or reinforce social/family time), interpersonal resources (e.g., using family,

friends, or support services [e.g., child care] to mitigate demands), as well as unofficial

behaviours (e.g., occasionally working from home, tele-commuting) (Clark & Sousa, 2018;

Kearns & Gardiner, 2007; Sturges, 2012).

Staff who use more time management behaviours are likely to see themselves as more

effective and have lower stress levels than their colleagues (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007). Listing

and prioritizing tasks, allocating time, being organized, avoiding distractions and interruptions,

and relating tasks to overall goals or plans are associated with improving productivity and

wellbeing (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Kearns & Gardiner, 2007). Rather than focusing on continuously

'doing more,' organizations and individuals can also reframe perceptions of engagement

towards performance-based outcomes, and improving quality over quantity, reducing the focus

on spent performing work tasks (Sturges, 2012). This shift aligns with the goal of helping employees maintain control of how and when the boundaries of work-life change.

Burnout

Studies of workplace health often feature measures of job burnout given its association with various issues that reduce both performance and individual/organizational wellbeing (Stoeber & Damian, 2016). Often related to emotional exhaustion, burnout is characterized by a set of interrelated symptoms surrounding depleted reserves, cynicism/depersonalization, and inefficacy/dissatisfaction, which adversely affects both physical and psychological wellbeing (Maslach & Leiter, 2016; Shirom & Melamed, 2005; Watts & Robertson, 2011). Burnout may reflect an inability to cope with current demands and/or prolonged stressors, encouraging further negative behaviours and an avoidance of health-promoting habits (Shirom & Melamed, 2005).

Burnout is associated with absenteeism, high turnover, low work morale, strained collegial relationships, and reduced job performance (Shirom & Melamed, 2005; Stoeber & Damian, 2016). Workplace contexts and relationships are central to burnout, in terms of both demand and reward, which make the 'contagious' effects of burnout all the more important for organizations to recognize and address (Meredith et al., 2019). In educational settings, burnout can also impact student learning and experience by reducing educators' self-efficacy and increasing negative classroom interactions (Zábrodská et al., 2018). Since teaching is commonly identified as a stressful profession, educators report above average levels of wellbeing issues when compared to other occupations, and lower use of effective coping strategies (Herman, Hickmon-Rosa, & Reinke, 2018). In post-secondary, younger academic staff are more likely to

experience burnout, and report feeling more stressed and less satisfied with their work than older academics (Zábrodská et al., 2018). Interventions can therefore be tailored to fit the needs of particular groups.

Burnout strategies. Addressing burnout has benefits for the health of individual staff members, as well as for the economic success and health of the organization (Awa, Plaumann, & Walter, 2010). Whether designed proactively or reactively, previous burnout interventions have focused on the individual – rather than on the group or organizational level (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Yet, increasing evidence points to the value of broader interventions on interpersonal dynamics and relationships across the organization (Meredith et al., 2019). Interventions can include training programs on stress management/self-efficacy/relaxation, on-site recreational and health-promoting facilities, peer support groups, increased job control, workload redesign, and changing workplace culture (Herman et al., 2018; Maslach & Leiter, 2016; Meredith et al., 2019; Shirom & Melamed, 2005). In their systematic review, Awa and colleagues (2010) found that intervention programs often benefit from ongoing "refresher sessions" to continue the positive effects of these interventions. Further, according to Shirom and Melamed (2005), "effective measures to prevent burnout may also prove to be protective of health and beneficial to physical well-being" (p. 613), which reinforces their value.

Additionally, helping staff identify the signs of impending burnout in themselves and others, and seeking help and support, can mitigate the impact of burnout (Gerry, 2013). This awareness can also limit the interpersonal spread of burnout and promote proactive self-help, rather than continued rumination on issues (Meredith et al., 2019). Herman and colleagues (2018) suggest screening for, or have staff self-identify as, individuals who are in need of immediate assistance

recovering or preventing burnout. Being aware of previous episodes of individual burnout, and teams or areas with chronic burnout, may also help target interventions (Lackritz, 2004).

Email

A fundamental communication in the modern workplace, email has become associated with the "academic and organizational performance" of universities (Pignata et al., 2015, p. 159). While email can increase the promptness and helpfulness of responses between stakeholders across physical distance, unmanaged expectations and email overload are associated with increased job stress (Jerejian, Reid, & Rees, 2013; McMurtry, 2014; Reisz, 2016). The spread of wireless devices facilitates increased connection to work after hours, which is reinforced by organizational norms and peer activity (Richardson & Benbunan-Fich, 2011). Without adequate training and strategies to manage emails, over-monitoring, work-life conflict (e.g., checking emails on evenings and weekends), task disruptions, and addiction to email can negatively impact staff health (Pignata et al., 2015).

While all staff experience some stress and worry about email, academic staff have been shown to experience greater stress from email, which increases as the volume of emails climbs (Jerejian et al., 2013). In their review of an Australian university, Pignata and colleagues (2015) found that academics are also less likely than support staff to use email management techniques, and more commonly respond to emails on weekends and evenings. Staff also perceived an ongoing misuse of email by their colleagues and students. Within the academic ranks, associate and full professors received a higher volume of emails, and reported checking their email more frequently, while instructors reported feeling more overwhelmed by the amount of emails they received, and checked their emails less frequently (Pignata et al., 2015).

These differences drawn attention to the varied needs of staff in addressing email-related stress.

Email strategies. Introducing staff to email management strategies, and establishing organizational norms for email etiquette, can benefit wellbeing by reducing the time and worry associated with email. Suggested techniques include (Clark & Sousa, 2018; Kushlev & Dunn, 2015; Pignata et al., 2015; Reisz, 2016; Sehgal, 2016; Sinclair, 2017):

- Filing, tagging, and deleting emails – rather than leaving all emails in the inbox

- Prioritize and filter emails for urgency and importance; respond to urgent emails first (consider the Eisenhower Matrix); try to resolve emails after the first read

- Schedule time to address emails outside of peak productivity; limit responses to these allocated blocks; check email less often

- Generate templates for commonly sent emails

- Only send necessary emails; follow email etiquette (e.g., have a clear purpose, be courteous, flag questions and items for response, etc.)

- Unsubscribe from external newsletters, promotional lists, and other items that clutter the inbox

How staff perceive email may also need reframed. The organization can address the perceived obligation to check/respond to emails outside of working hours, negative attitudes towards email, and the use of email as one of many tools to fulfill communication needs (Clark & Sousa, 2018). Speed is not necessarily the primary goal of email, particularly when it impinges on the quality of the response – for example, in responding to distressed students or handling complex tasks (Sinclair, 2017). Discussing email norms also extends to the classroom, where

educators can outline the goals and expectations of email communication (e.g., include relevant information; having a clear purpose; ensure students have done their own problem-solving first) early in their courses (Pignata et al., 2015). Ultimately, it is the responsibility of individual staff to implement and sustain practices that enhance email performance.

Absenteeism/Presenteeism

Attendance dynamics can be an indicator of individual and organizational wellbeing (Johns, 2011). While consistent productivity is expected, and a level of attendance may be mandated, extremes of both absence and presence can reveal underlying wellbeing issues (Warr, 2008). Absenteeism, chronically missing or avoiding work, and presenteeism, continuing to attend work when not functioning well/to the detriment of an individual's health, both result in losses for the organization (Michaels & Greene, 2013). In addition to coming to work while sick or injured, being distracted by pressing personal issues or business also detracts from workplace effectiveness and therefore contributes to presenteeism (D'Abate & Eddy, 2007). Indeed, research indicates that "considerably more productivity [is lost] via presenteeism than absenteeism" (Johns, 2009, p. 13), and presenteeism is a significant risk factor for future illness (Bergström, Bodin, Hagberg, Aronsson, & Josephson, 2009).

Absenteeism is more closely associated with poor work relationships, inequity, distrust, and a perceived lack of organizational support, while presenteeism may the result of job insecurity, high demands, and low control (Johns, 2009; Kinman & Wray, 2018). According to Kinman and Wray's (2018) survey, 88% of academic staff reported working while sick, and more than 50% reported doing so often or always. Rather than being imposed, these academic staff were highly engaged with their work, which encouraged presenteeism. Thus, the detriments and

management of both absenteeism and presenteeism should be discussed with staff (Johns, 2009).

Absenteeism/presenteeism strategies. While attendance management systems can be useful in supporting employees, they must be carefully implemented to be truly "family friendly" and avoid becoming perceived as draconian (Johns, 2009). Leaders and colleagues need to encourage other staff to take appropriate time off, and not to be present at work at the expense of their health (Kinman & Wray, 2018). Reinforcing this message may be important for employees who are concerned that absence may reflect poorly on their performance (Lack, 2011).

The seemingly most common strategy for responding to these issues is flexible scheduling, commonly called flextime (Poelmans, Olde-Dusseau, & Beham, 2009). By managing attendance in a way in which fits for both individual and organizational needs, trust and perceived support are also increased (Johns, 2009). However, Spieler, Sheibe, Stamov-Roßnagel, and Kappas (2017) presented a caveat that a continued reliance on spontaneous flextime (i.e. shifting hours that is not part of a structured routine) may compromise work goals and productivity. Thus, an individualized plan may require additional strategies in order to benefit both parties.

Discussions with staff on either absenteeism or presenteeism should focus on supporting individual control and self-management (Johns, 2011). Employees may benefit from reflecting on current demands and needs, and co-developing strategies that address these concerns (Kinman & Wray, 2018). Managers should be trained to notice these issues, and address them from a place of concern and support (Baker-McClearn et al., 2010). Johns (2009) reinforced that converting absenteeism to presenteeism is not beneficial for the individual or the organization.

Working to optimally promote both individual and organizational wellbeing is the desired

"balance" when addressing absenteeism and presenteeism (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012).

Physical and Spiritual Wellbeing

Although in different stages of integration into wellbeing programs, physical and spiritual

wellbeing interventions are converging as mindfulness-based, meditation, and non-Western

exercise/relaxation programs (e.g., yoga) become increasingly popular (Hilton et al., 2019).

Although often separate in the literature, these sections are positioned together to draw

attention to sites of overlap.

Physical wellbeing strategies. Physical health interventions in the workplace are among the

most commonly implemented, often focusing on nutrition, fitness, smoking cessation, and

reducing substance abuse (Mattke et al., 2013). These programs, along with ergonomics

initiatives, aim to improve musculoskeletal, cardiovascular, and other bodily system health

(Bidassie, McGlothlin, Goh, Feyen, & Barany, 2010; Reed et al., 2017; Robertson et al., 2008).

Participation in these programs is associated with improved physical and psychological health

outcomes (Hedge & Pazell, 2017). These programs vary in their extent, with companies usually

offering workshops or short term programming (Grawitch, Ballard, & Erb, 2015). In contrast, in

their expert statement for Public Health England, Buckley and colleagues (2015) call for at least

two hours of low-impact physical activity to be integrated into the workday to benefit staff

whose work is predominantly sedentary. The following paragraphs focus on two common

approaches to physical health, ergonomics and physical activity programs.

Ergonomics refers to the process of workspace (re)design for flexibility and injury

prevention, accommodation for injury and ability, and improving performance (Hedge & Pazell,

2017). Ergonomics aims to eliminate exposure to harmful environments, reduce the level and time of exposure, and/or adjust staff behaviour and habits (Goggins, Spielholz, & Nothstein, 2008). Beyond preventing physical injury, ergonomics studies have reported benefits for productivity, turnover, absenteeism, and financial return on investment in ergonomics programs. Ergonomics also has implications for psychological, social, and organizational health, as workspace design which implicates ergonomics within wellbeing programs (Dul & Neumann, 2009; Hedge & Pazell, 2017).

In the research literature, scholars are increasingly turning to participatory ergonomics, whereby organizations are looking to improve physical spaces and work task design alongside employees to optimize solutions and acceptance (Burgess-Limerick, 2018). This approach not only provides staff with additional control and investment during consultations, but also training on how to use that control for increased performance and health (Robertson et al., 2008). In their review of a 13-year ergonomics program at Purdue University, Bidassie and colleagues (2010) noted a decrease in illness-related absences, injury reduction (e.g., carpal tunnel syndrome), as well as improved efficiency. The study reinforced the cost-justification of the program, as equipment and other costs were eventually offset by the decrease in lost time and compensation claims.

Other physical activity programs have reported notable benefits for staff wellbeing. For example, in their review of the physical health programs of working-age women, Reed et al. (2017) called for workplace programs to improve cardiometabolic health, given the low number of working-age women in OECD countries who meet recommendations for moderate-to-vigorous-intensity physical activity. Integrating yoga programs into work time, the lunch hour,

or immediately after work can "provide a time-effective, convenient and practical method for reducing the costly effects of stress and back pain" (Hartfiel et al., 2012, p. 611). Participants in employee yoga programs have shown significant improvements in stress, anxiety, and pain management; improved mood, interpersonal relationships, self-efficacy, attention, energy, and satisfaction; as well as productivity (Chu et al., 2014; Hartfiel et al., 2012; Hartfiel, Havenhand, Khalsa, Clarke, & Krayer, 2011; Pereira, Coombes, Comans, & Johnston, 2015; Pronk & Kottke, 2009). Where significant results were not found, the interventions and program participation did not show any adverse effects (Chu et al., 2014; Strijk, Proper, Van Mechelen, & van der Beek, 2013). In their meta-analysis of physical activity interventions, Chu and colleagues (2014) found notable effects from programs with personalized supervision and those led by experienced trainers. These researchers note the importance of adherence to the program in achieving these benefits.

   Spiritual wellbeing strategies. As spiritual wellbeing begins to influence conceptions of workplace wellness, scholars report a growing importance on the value of life experience beyond simply *doing* work, and more on being, belonging, and becoming in the workplace (Pazell, 2015). Spiritual wellbeing in the workplace refers to staff satisfaction with their work life, and the sense of fulfillment and meaning staff derive from their work (Garcia-Zamor, 2003). Spiritual workplaces tie the purpose of self and work beyond the immediate task, and beyond material gain, to a greater potential (Garg, 2017). A spiritual approach for most organizations is humanistic rather than religious, but still recognizes employees as spiritual beings (Garcia-Zamor, 2003).

Spiritual commitments in organizations can take a number of foci, including an explicit focus on creating a culture of: belonging, interconnection, and support; trust, harmony, equity, honesty, and humanistic values; as well as compassion, ethical behaviour, and a positive societal or "higher" impact (Altaf & Awan, 2011; Garcia-Zamor, 2003; Tan, 2007). Spiritual wellbeing is associated with a number of benefits, such as: increased productivity, employee commitment/retention, job satisfaction, attitude, motivation, creativity, teamwork, and mediated job stress (Altaf & Awan, 2011; Garcia-Zamor, 2003; Garg, 2017). These results support the potential for spiritual wellbeing practices to promote physiological and psychological wellbeing (Tischler et al., 2002).

A change in workplace culture for spiritual commitments is essential to achieving spiritual wellbeing (Tan, 2007). Organizations can provide spirituality training sessions, as well as prayer, energy practices, breathing exercises, yoga, meditation, and silent reflection to engage in spiritual practices (Altaf & Awan, 2011; Tischler et al., 2002). Tischler and colleagues (2002) connected spirituality with emotional intelligence to promote work success, focusing on four competencies: personal awareness, personal skills, social awareness, and social skills.

Meditation and mindfulness-based interventions are among the more common approaches to workplace spiritual and overall wellbeing, and interest continues to grow in this area (Lomas, Medina, Ivtzan, Rupprecht, & Eiroa-Orosa, 2019). According to Hilton et al. (2019), 13% of U.S. employees were using meditation programming at work. Systematic reviews of literature on mindfulness and mediation report an association with improved performance, resilience, and decreased stress, as well as a myriad range of other positive health outcomes (Hilton et al., 2019; Lomas et al., 2019). In education, mindfulness can also bolster students' academic

achievement, mental health, as well as skill development (e.g., creativity, interpersonal, empathy, self-compassion) (Shapiro, Brown, & Astin, 2011). Shapiro and colleagues (2011) promoted the benefits of including meditation in classrooms, and for training teachers in meditation in order to better lead students' mindfulness experiences.

Organizations planning to address spiritual wellbeing should be mindful that these activities are fundamentally undermined if they are approached as an effort to manipulate employees' commitment and perceptions, or approached as a short-term remedy for workplace issues (Garg, 2017). While spiritual workplaces can improve both wellbeing and organizational performance, remaining true to the articulated "higher" purpose establishes these organizations as "worthy" of employees spiritual commitment (Garcia-Zamor, 2003, p. 361).

Student Service

A primary pillar of the work of post-secondary institutions, engaging with students presents both rewards and challenges for staff. Believing that students are satisfied and supported as a result of their work can increase staff sense of achievement, while uncivil student interactions can engender frustration, cynicism, and detract from staff wellbeing and performance (Watts & Robertson, 2011). Indeed, student apathy, disengagement, and unrealistic expectations significantly contribute to teacher burnout (Lippmann et al., 2009; Watts & Robertson, 2011). Entitled students are those who are most likely to see their relationship with staff from a client-provider perspective, and therefore expect higher grades, positive feedback, and exceptional treatment as a part of the "exchange" for their tuition payments (El-Alayli et al., 2018; Lippmann et al., 2009). Female and contingent staff are also more likely to receive demands from these students, and are forced to tread a finer line between warmth and support, and

risking negative evaluations, than their colleagues (El-Alayli et al., 2018; Lippmann et al., 2009). Providing structures, practices, and training to improve staff and student experience can reduce the frequency, severity, and negative outcomes of these experiences (Barrett et al., 2010; El-Alayli et al., 2018).

On the other hand, considerations for student voice and participation in the faculty are often limited to set times and topics (Brooman, Darwent, & Pimor, 2015). The amount of control and involvement students are permitting regarding matters of governance, curriculum development, and processes has traditionally been low, and even in program quality assurance (i.e., course feedback surveys) an appropriate response is not always guaranteed (Seale, 2009; Williams & Cappuccini-Ansfield, 2007). Assumptions are often made about what students want, and staff-student collaborations can challenge, clarify, and alter practices, improve perceptions/experiences of the program, and develop student-staff relationships (Brooman et al., 2015). Evaluating how, and how effectively, student voice is engaged and amplified in a faculty is a possible means for improving staff and student interactions (Seale, 2016).

Student Service Strategies

A large percentage of strategies related to improving student-staff interactions involve establishing explicit guidelines, norms, and practices to mitigate potential issues, including:

- Outline rules of conduct, assessment/evaluation standards and practices, and expectations for student-staff interactions in course syllabi, handbooks, in the first class, etc. (Barrett et al., 2010; El-Alayli et al., 2018; Lippmann et al., 2009)

- Co-create norms and outline your philosophy of teaching and learning early in the course; frame the course as a partnership in learning, rather than a set of

behaviour in the classroom (Clark, 2009; Lippmann et al., 2009; Whitfield, 2018)

- Provide rigorous training and refer students to sessions on self-regulation and academic skill building early in the students' program (Lippmann et al., 2009); familiarize staff with organizational policies, processes, and wellness resources to support themselves and others (Whitfield, 2018)

- Establish guidelines around handling special requests; use exemplary work to reduce ambiguity around work expectations (Barrett et al., 2010; El-Alayli et al., 2018; Lippmann et al., 2009)

- Re-socialize staff to the expectations and orientations of students surrounding post-secondary teaching and learning; provide opportunities for positive, non-formal interactions to build relationships (El-Alayli et al., 2018; Lippmann et al., 2009)

Long-term change in culture and practice will require the involvement of leadership, all staff, and a prepared campus infrastructure (Clark, 2009). Further, leadership can consider reducing student supervision for academic staff who report issues with a difficult student (Pignata et al., 2017). Particularly when students are less prepared and/or struggling, these responsibilities present a greater burden than the supervision load might suggest (Watts & Robertson, 2011).

Final Words

This report presents an initial exploration of the varying facets of individual and organizational wellbeing in order to provide directions for review and reform within the Werklund School of Education. The preceding strategies are based on a review of Canadian and international workplace wellbeing literature, focusing on postsecondary employees whenever

possible. This review highlights the possibilities for connecting "evidence-based findings from health, exercise science, and wellness models" in the design of wellbeing strategies (Hedge & Pazell, 2017, p. 411). However, additional inquiry is needed to how and under what conditions these benefits are realized for staff categories within university settings (Karanika-Murray et al., 2012; Ott-Holland et al., 2019; Randall & Nielsen, 2012).

A healthy workplace goes beyond the physical conditions, involving psychological, social, professional, and other contextual factors (Loughlin & Mercer, 2014). Given the realities of workplaces, every staff group needs the capacity to work efficiently under stress, and recover effectively (Leiter & Patterson, 2014). All employees need to be engaged, wellbeing programs must be accessible, and employees need opportunity to shape and direct programs to meet their needs (Karanika-Murray et al., 2012). Harrison and Stephens (2019) refer to need to embed wellness into every aspect of the organization and each staff position, which they term "wellness-in-practice." As voluntary wellness initiatives are likely to be used by staff who are already motivated and engaged in improving their health, supporting *all* staff towards achieving healthful behaviour is essential (Hedge & Pazell, 2017).

Perception and awareness of available services and initiatives are essential, such as in recognition programs (Daniel & Metcalf, 2005). If employees perceive the wellbeing program originating from a position of support (i.e., caring about employees), rather than exploiting or saving costs, they will have improved work attitudes and performance outcomes (Ott-Holland et al., 2019). This means practices must not only be available, but well communicated, and understood to be a benefit to staff in order to engage in the program (Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008). Mudrak and colleagues (2018) posit that so long as staff perceive that they

have sufficient job resources, they may be largely satisfied with their work in spite of growing demands. Yet, individuals have different expectations and needs, so what may be perceived as manageable for some may be the opposite for others (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012).

Organizations must acknowledge their stressors and coordinate plans for helping staff to cope in face of their job demands (Berg & Seeber, 2016; Zoller, 2003). Academic and support staff cite common stressors that suggest that they are responding to similar stressful job variables, such as management processes, colleague/supervisor relationships, job demands, and contextual factors (Pignata & Winefield, 2015). Of course, some stressors (e.g., government funding cuts) are beyond the control of organizational interventions, and individual coping is essential (Pignata & Winefield, 2015).

Addressing organizational and individual wellbeing requires a long-term plan, and the continual investment, engagement, and support of all stakeholders. Understanding wellbeing in context requires cycles of data gathering, response, and assessment, a process which the majority of institutions fail to follow through (Mattke et al., 2013). Data can be drawn from surveys, focus groups, HR records, as well as interviews and discussions with key groups (Noblet & LaMontagne, 2009). Without a direct connection between current workplace issues and appropriate interventions, wellbeing programs are unlikely to be value-added (Harrison & Stephens, 2019).

This report presents strategies which highlight the importance of both organizational responsibility and individual engagement with the wellbeing plan. Although individual wellbeing goes beyond work hours, employers can set staff up for success in and beyond work to improve professional and personal performance, health, and wellbeing (Pazell, 2015). While the

institution can lead structural change and offer meaningful opportunities to staff, individual

staff are responsible for carrying out and promoting health-related behaviours of their own

(Karanika-Murray et al., 2012). In messaging a wellbeing plan, organizations should be mindful

not to divert the focus of wellbeing away from the organizational context as the likely source of

stress and illness, as this tactic is more likely to foster resentment rather than engagement

(Zoller, 2003).

Organizations will need to facilitate difficult conversations and invite honest feedback in safe

spaces to uncover barriers to wellbeing in their context; unless deep-seated issues are

identified and addressed, interventions may not spark the desired change (Clark & Sousa,

2018). This process may be uncomfortable, particularly as feedback may implicate individuals,

practices, values, and other areas where perceived shortcomings can be challenging to hear and

address (Stone et al., 2010). However, employee silence is not a sign that all is well within the

organization (Donaghey et al., 2011).

Faculty leaders should, of course, be wary of assuming corporate best practices will transfer

effectively into their contexts (Pignata et al., 2015). However, studies conducted in this context

are often not as prevalent, which leaves little recourse but to draw from other areas and

evaluate plans as they unfold (Gilbert & Kelloway, 2014). Post-secondary institutions with

established wellbeing plans can serve as an example. One notable example is Oxford Brookes

University (2018). Their Staff Experience and Engagement Strategy outlines an institutional

approach to improving staff wellbeing and work experience. The strategy draws upon research

literature and ongoing consultation, and specifies issues they are addressing beyond general

commitments.

Faculties of education can also benefit from examining the more established literature on wellbeing in other professional faculties – such as nursing and medicine – where topics such as mentoring and incivility have been examined extensively in the university context (e.g., Clark et al., 2013; Dunham-Taylor et al., 2008; Heinrich, 2010; Jackevicius et al., 2014). In developing a wellbeing strategy, given the breadth of the topic, each of these themes and subthemes can be the focus of more in depth literature reviews. Further inquiry will provide more comprehensive information about a particular area and related interventions, which can augment and guide data gathered from stakeholders within the organization.

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APPENDIX A: FRAMEWORKS AND RESOURCES

The following figures provide additional insights into the frameworks and strategies highlighted in the literature, including:

- Figure 1 & 2 – Conceptualizations of staff wellbeing (Demerouti et al., 2001; van Straaten et al., 2016)

- Figures 3 & 4 – Models of organizational wellbeing (Grawitch et al., 2006; Salanova & Llorens, 2014)

- Figure 5 – Questions for designing work systems (Loughlin & Mercer, 2014)

- Figure 6 – Organizational wellbeing change process (DeJoy & Della, 2014)

- Figure 7 – Overview of systemic organizational wellbeing interventions (LaMontagne et al., 2007)

- Figure 8 – Matrix of recognition practices and interactions (Brun & Dugas, 2008)

- Figure 9 – Types of developmental relationships (McCauley & Douglas, 1998)

- Figure 10 – Faculty mentorship continuum (Dunham-Taylor et al., 2008)

- Figure 11 – Time management behaviours for academics, support staff, and students (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007)

Figure 1. Staff well-being contextualised and research process explained. Reprinted from "Enhancing the well-being of support services staff in higher education: The power of appreciation," by L. van Straaten, A. du Plessis, and S. Fanus Van Tonder, 2016, *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 42*(1), p. 3. Copyright 2016 by AOSIS Publishing.

Elements related to/affecting staff's well-being:

- Feeling valued/appreciated
- Sense of belonging
- Job motivation
- Empowerment
- Flourishing
- Job security
- Work performance
- Positive emotions
- Remuneration
- Job satisfaction
- Happiness
- Confidence
- Gratefulness
- Organisational commitment
- Equality
- Resources
- Longevity
- Staff retention
- Creativity
- Vigour
- Dedication
- Trust
- Morale
- Productivity
- Engagement
- Relationships
- Meaningful life
- Accomplishment
- Optimism
- Opportunities for promotion

Aspects of well-being investigated

- Definition of well-being
- Elements of well-being
- Theories on well-being:
 - AI Theory
 - Positive psychology theory
 - Flourishing theory
 - Well-being theory
 - Elements of well-being
- Causes of well-being
- Benefits of well-being
- PERMA Model of well-being

PERMA Model of Well-being
(Seligman 2011)

- Positive emotions
- Engagement
- Relationships
- Meaning
- Accomplishment

Appreciative Inquiry (AI)
Five-D framework (Definition, Discover, Dream, Design, Destiny) AI workshop conducted for purposes of empirical research to:

- Identify strengths of organisation related to support staff's well-being
- Use such strengths as a basis for enhancing their well-being through AI
- Identify elements related to support staff's well-being
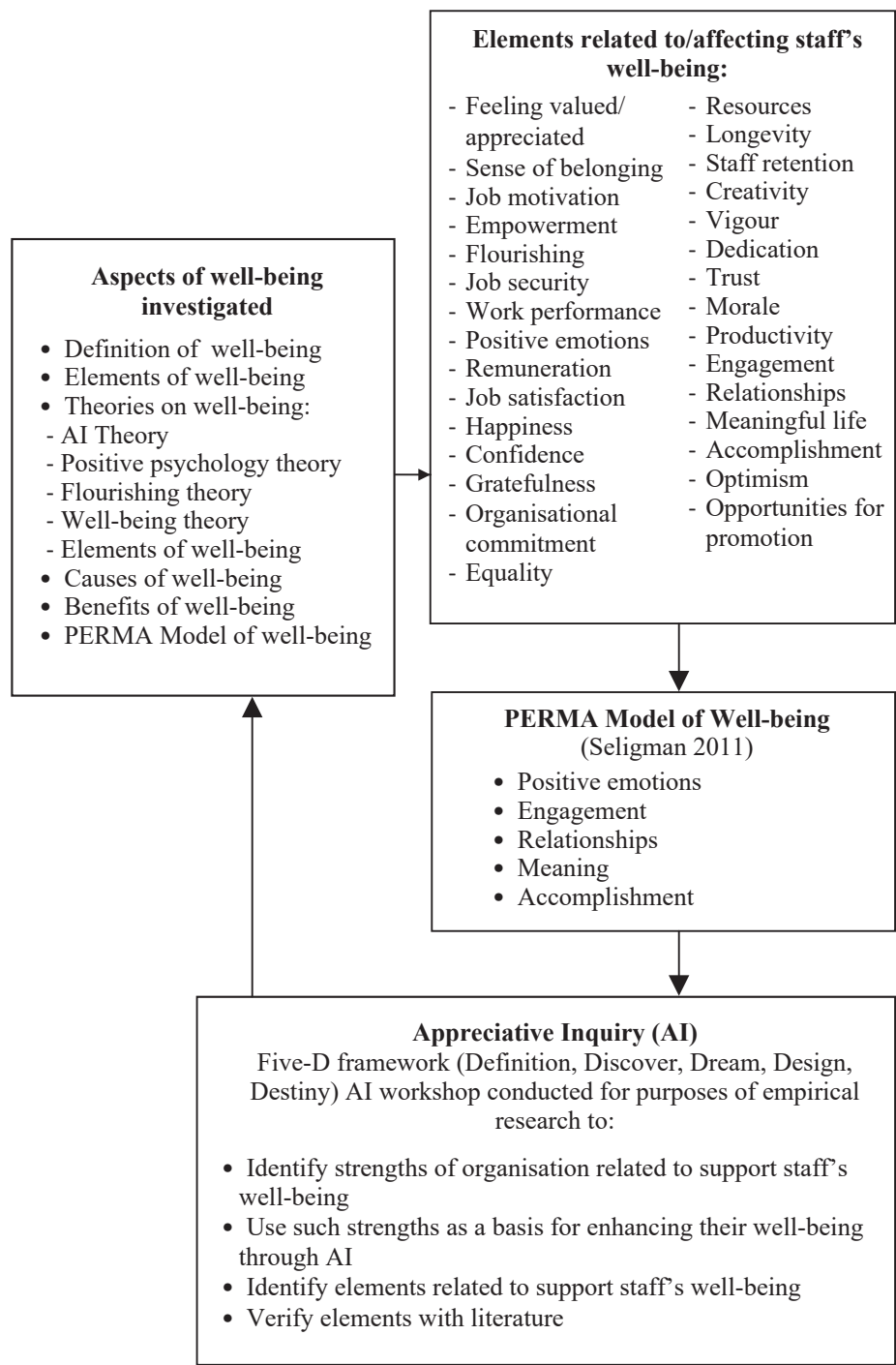- Verify elements with literature

Figure 2. The job demands-resources model of burnout. Reprinted from "The Job Demands-Resources Model of Burnout," by E. Demerouti, A. Bakker, F. Nachreiner, and W. Schaufeli, 2001, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), p. 502. Copyright 2001 by the American Psychological Association.
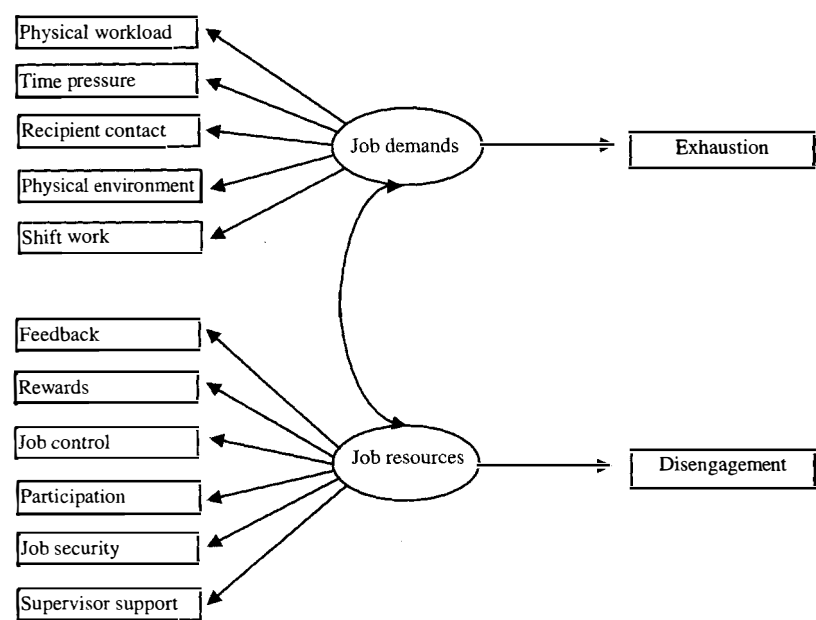
Figure 3. PATH model. Reprinted from "The path to a healthy workplace: A critical review linking healthy workplace practices, employee well-being, and organizational improvements," by M. Grawitch, M. Gottschalk, and D. Munz, 2006, *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *58*(3), p. 133. Copyright 2006 by the American Psychological Association.

Employee Well-Being
- Physical Health
- Mental Health
- Stress
- Motivation
- Commitment
- Job Satisfaction
- Morale
- Climate

Healthy Workplace Practices
- Work-Life Balance
- Employee Growth & Development
- Health & Safety
- Recognition
- Employee Involvement

Organizational Improvements
- Competitive Advantage
- Performance/Productivity
- Absenteeism
- Turnover
- Accident/Injury Rates
- Cost Savings
- Hiring Selectivity
- Product/Service Quality
- Customer Service/Satisfaction

Figure 4. Adding empowerment to the HERO Model. Reprinted from "Employee Empowerment and Engagement," by M. Salanova and S. Llorens, 2014, in A. Day, E. Kelloway, and J. Hurrell Jr., *Workplace Well-being: How to build psychologically healthy workplaces*, p. 131. Copyright 2014 by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Healthy organizational resources and practices

- Job resources: task and social resources (Structural empowerment)
- Healthy practices

Healthy employees

- (Psychological empowerment)
- Efficacy beliefs
- Positive emotions
- Resilience
- Engagement

Healthy organizational outcomes

- Organizational commitment
- High performance
- Excellent results
- Customer loyalty/satisfaction
- Corporative social responsibility

Figure 5. Practical Questions for Managers in Designing High-Performance Work Systems Leading to Total Worker Health. Reprinted from "Designing Healthy Workplaces," by C. Louglin and D. Mercer, 2014, in A. Day, E. Kelloway, and J. Hurrell Jr., *Workplace Well-being: How to build psychologically healthy workplaces*, pp. 316-317. Copyright 2014 by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

1. *Do you really have an HPWS in your organization? Ask yourself these questions*: Do your employees know their role in the company's big picture? Is their work made as interesting as possible? Do they have the autonomy and resources they need to get their jobs done? Are their wages and job security solid? Do you reg-ularly give them feedback on how they are doing? Do people work together or fight against each other? This last question is particularly important. In a recent government study we did with construction workers across Ontario, interper-sonal conflict at work was not only associated with poorer psychological and physical health but also with increased accidents on the job! Whereas respectful conflict based on ideas or the work at hand can fuel productivity, a hostile work climate is detrimental not only to productivity but to health. Demand better from your people. Be proactive and ask the right questions before a crisis occurs.

2. *Measure everyone on a "triple bottom line"* (i.e., economic, environmental, and social): And yes, that includes your top economic producer. In fact, if she/he is falling short socially, this person may actually be hurting your overall economic bottom line. Researchers have seen firm productivity increase by 30% after firing supposed economic superstars (because damage previously being done to other employees and their own productivity had gone unnoticed). Demand better for your organization on all three measures of accountability; reward behavior that contributes to the bottom line on each measure and acts to the detriment of none.

3. *Redefine leadership*: Individuals who focus on their own ends to the exclusion of others can appear quite "leader-like" (confident, self-assured). Failing to take others into account significantly reduces the complexity of decisions. However, entitlement and narcissism are not leadership. Leadership is taking a group where it needs to go. By definition, it is inherently concerned with others. As numerous scandals involving leaders' abuses of power and position illustrate, behavior at this level has a particular impact on people's health and well-being. While dysfunctional leadership may emanate from certain dispositions in particular leaders (e.g., arrogance, self-aggrandizement), it requires a culture lacking in internal controls to thrive. For example, beware of leaders who put other people and/or their ideas down simply to elevate themselves (people can make themselves appear more intelligent/competent simply by being negative). Don't be fooled and do not allow this kind of toxicity to take hold. People can control themselves; about 65% of nastiness in organizations is directed at subor-dinates, about 35% at peers, and less than 1% is focused upward! Demand better from your managers. The reputation of the organization and the well-being of its members are on the line.

Figure 6. Summary of Change Process for Creating Healthy Workplaces. Reprinted from "Culture, Communication, and Making Workplaces Healthier," by D. Dejoy and L. Della, 2014, in *A. Day, E. Kelloway, and J. Hurrell Jr., Workplace Well-being: How to build psychologically healthy workplaces*, p. 182. Copyright 2014 by John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Change process	Focal tasks	Communication priorities
Phase I	Assess organizational culture	Evaluate possible nonverbal messages sent by planned managerial actions to ensure they support the change
	Put mechanisms and structures in place to make changes possible	Create a steering group composed of key change agents/employees and collaboratively develop important talking points about change
	Reach out to employees and gain perspectives	
	Develop a comprehensive health policy	
Phase II	Create a unified data system to identify problems and track results	Actively communicate and solicit feedback from employees about change
	Identify problems, symptoms of problems and prioritize needs	Use insight from research to understand characteristics of audiences
		Plan formal communication scripts and dissemination methods
Phase III	Implement and evaluate multiple integrated interventions focused on creating a healthy workplace	Disseminate sense-giving messages (using scripts and methods identified in Phase II)
		Provide situations that foster sense-making reactions among employees

Figure 7. A Systems Approach to Job Stress. Reprinted from "A systematic review of the job-stress intervention evaluation literature, 1990-2005," by A. LaMontagne et al., 2007, *International Journal of Occupational and Environmental Health*, *13*(3), p. 269. Copyright 2007 by Taylor & Francis Online.

Intervention Level — Definition & Description	Effectiveness	Intervention Targets	Examples	Systems Integration
1° — Primary • **Preventive, proactive** • <u>Goal</u>: reducing potential risk factors or altering the nature of the stressor before workers experience stress-related symptoms or disease	+++	• Stressors at their source; organisation of work; working conditions	• Job redesign, work-load reduction, improved communication, conflict management skills development	
2° — Secondary • **Ameliorative** • <u>Goal</u>: To help equip workers with knowledge, skills, and resources to cope with stressful conditions	++	• Employee responses to stressors (perceived stress or strain)	• Cognitive behavioral therapy, coping classes, anger management	
3° — Tertiary • **Reactive** • <u>Goal</u>: To treat, compensate, and rehabilitate workers with enduring stress-related symptoms or disease	+•	• Short-term and enduring adverse health effects of job	WC system, Return-to-work programs, occupational therapy, medical intervention stress	

Figure 8. Interaction levels and recognition practices. Reprinted from "An analysis of employee recognition: Perspectives on human resources practices," by J.-P. Brun and N. Dugas, 2008, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *19*(4), p. 726. Copyright 2008 by Taylor & Francis Online.

PRACTICES

Interaction Levels / Recognition Practices	Existential Recognition (Person/Group)	Recognition of Work Practice (Work Process)	Recognition of Job Dedication (Work Process)	Recognition of Results (Product, Result)
Horizontal	• Social gatherings (create ties) • Consultation among peers • Support in addressing personal needs • Information on topics of interest • Recognition ceremony among co-workers when someone leaves	• Peer feedback on professional skills • Problem-solving groups • Highlighting contributions, innovative thinking, and creativity at team meetings • Mutual congratulations	• Praise for effort (person, team) • Personalized letters acknowledging a co-worker's courage and perseverance • Encouragement from peers to keep up effort and collective engagement • Support among units	• Party among peers to celebrate a success • Giving someone a gift to mark a major career milestone • Informal congratulations between two employees when goals have been achieved
Vertical	• Management accessibility and visibility • Management accountability • Participation in development • Access to professional development • Going to bat for employees • Giving greater latitude in decision making • Authorizing flexible schedules	• Assignments to special projects • Authorizing employees to attend conferences • Career support • Employees' positive support for supervisor • Valuing project leaders • Congratulating an employee in front of peers	• Taking into account the quantity and difficulty of work when evaluating results • Organizing leisure activities after a hectic period • Employee thanking a manager for spending time with him/her	• Performance evaluation meetings • Saluting a job well done in meetings • Personalized letter to an employee who secured a contract for the company • Posting team successes on departmental bulletin board • Awarding plaques • Manager publicly congratulating/thanking employees for their role in a project's success • Establishing an honour roll
Organizational	• Personalized letters for life event (birthdays, etc.) • Orientation meetings for new employees • Access to less tedious jobs • Employee suggestion programme • Informing and consulting with staff • Clarifying compensation standards • Incorporating human issues into management decision-making • Offering professional services to laid-off employees	• Professional practices awards • Coaching and mentoring programmes • Mobility programmes • Innovation support and recognition programmes • Teamwork recognition ceremonies	• Recognizing overtime • Recognizing years of service • Finding time for office social activities • Allowing people time off to relax	• Incentive bonuses • Notes to staff or newsletters highlighting successes • Awards of excellence, teamwork awards • Discretionary recognition budget per unit or department • Personalized congratulation messages for noteworthy achievements • Recognition weeks
External (services)	• Weighing the opinions of clients/consultants • Personalized contact • Providing consultants with information • Greeting suppliers warmly • Remembering clients' personal details	• Verbal thanks from clients for the quality of service • Meetings to evaluate consultant's work • Offering consultants major contracts at par with their professional qualifications	• Letters of recommendation for consultants, praising their energy and enthusiasm • Giving suppliers positive feedback • Client congratulating an employee for doing a good job in difficult circumstances	• Expressing satisfaction with consultant's work • Awarding subsequent contract at a higher rate • Gift from client (bottle of wine)
Social (community)	• Volunteer work • Respecting the culture and identity of specific groups in the community • Community esteem for employee or company	• Company publicly thanking a community organization for its work	• Recognizing work of seniors and pensioners • Letter of recognition from the community commending a group of employees for their engagement	• Awarding grants to organizations based on merit • Recognition ceremonies • Media coverage of positive results of company-community co-operation

Figure 9. Forms of developmental relationships: When to use them, and potential problems. Reprinted from "Developmental Relationships," by C. McCauley and C. Douglas, 1998, in C. McCauley, R. Moxley, and E. Van Velsor, *The Center for Creative Leadership: Handbook of leadership development*, p. 182. Copyright 1998 by Jossey-Bass.

Form	When to Use It	Potential Problems
One-on-one mentoring	Senior managers have time, experience, and expertise to share with junior managers	Lack of integration with other management development strategies in organization
	Junior managers need exposure to perspectives and job demands of senior managers	Senior managers may not have skills or motivation to teach others
		Potential for role conflict between boss and mentor
		May narrow opportunities for other developmental relationships
		May cause resentment for managers who have not been asked to participate
Peer coaching	Individuals need familiarity with issues and perspectives in other functions or parts of the organization	Coaching needs of the targeted managers may not complement each other
	Individuals need coaching to get up to speed in a business knowledge or technical area	Organizational climate may not promote open communication between colleagues
	Improved cross-group communication is desired	Managers may feel resentful at being asked to coach and assist other managers
	Peers going through similar experiences need opportunities to learn from and support each other	Managers may not have the time or motivation to participate
Executive coaching	High-level executive has no peers or boss who can serve as coach	Experience and skills of coach may not meet needs of executive
	Need expertise of professional skilled in behavioral change strategies	May be too expensive
	Want a concentrated period of coaching on a particular skill	May undermine others' confidence in executive if coaching not kept confidential
Coaching in groups	Potential coaches are in short supply	Some managers may need more individualized developmental attention
	Anticipate that peers can learn and benefit from each other	Potential coaches may lack skills, time, or motivation to mentor group
	Increased cohesion among group members is desired	Requires a fair amount of time and planning to be effective
		Potential for conflict between group coach and supervisors of participants

Figure 10. Faculty mentoring continuum. Reprinted from "What Goes Around Comes Around: Improving Faculty Retention Through More Effective Mentoring," by J. Dunham-Taylor et al., 2008, *Journal of Professional Nursing*, *24*(6), p. 340. Copyright 2008 by Elsevier Inc.
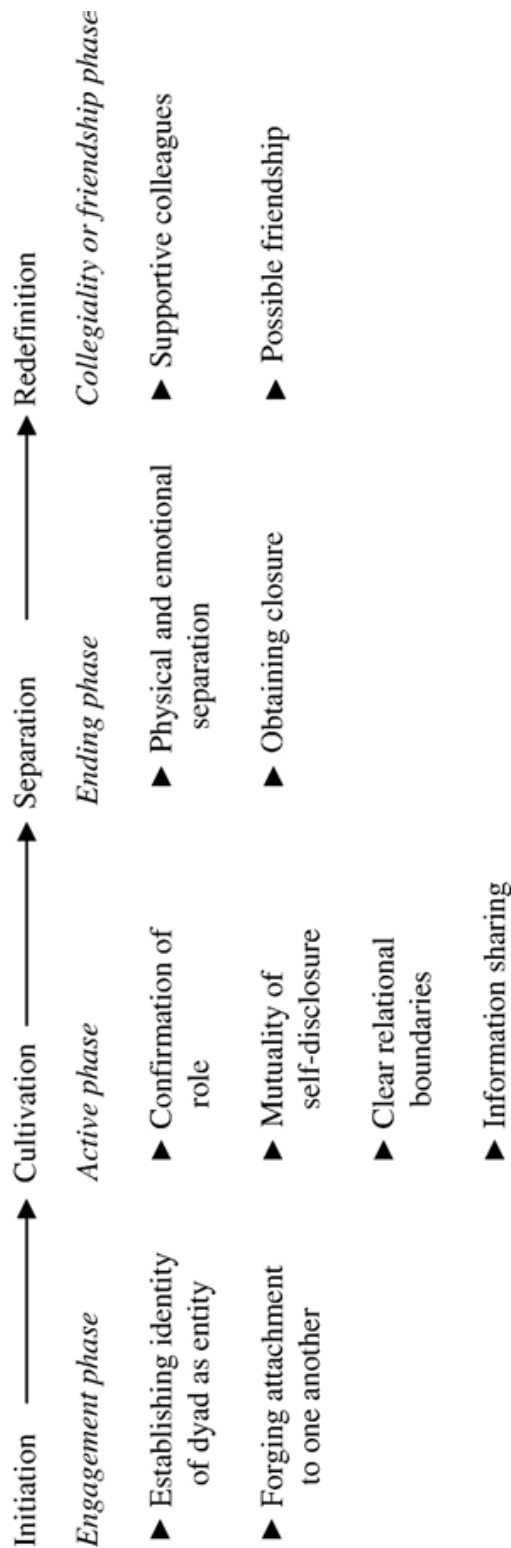
Figure 11. Practical implications of our findings for academics, general staff and students. Reprinted from "Is it time well spent? The relationship between time management behaviours, perceived effectiveness and work-related morale and distress in a university context," by H. Kearns and M. Gardiner, 2007, *Higher Education Research & Development*, *26*(2), p. 245. Copyright 2007 by Taylor & Francis Online.

	Academics	General staff	Students
Essential Having a clear purpose	Spend time deciding on the nature of your academic career: • What is important in your job and in your life? • What are you trying to achieve? • Is your priority teaching, research or administration? • Do your actions reflect your purpose? • Where do family/friends and health fit in?	Spend time deciding on the type of career you want and what you want to get out of it: • What is important in your job and in your life? • What aspects do you want more of? • What aspects do you want less of? • How does you current job help you get these things?	Spend time deciding on the type and nature of study you are undertaking: • Where will it take you? • Do you enjoy it? • Are you motivated? • Are you doing it for the right reasons? • Does it fit realistically into your life at present (e.g. other commitments)?
Very useful Planning and prioritizing	Set out a list of goals for the future (e.g. 2 years) and work backwards: • What do you hope to achieve in the next 6 months? • What do you hope to achieve in the next month/week/day? • Make a list • Prioritize • Write times in your diary	Develop a 'work and career' plan: • What are the steps necessary to get there? • Put time lines on them • Make a list • Prioritize • Write times in your diary • What do you *need* to achieve in next month/week/day?	Develop a plan showing how much time you have available for work, study, family, etc.: • Map out your study commitments • Decide when you can study • Set deadlines • Write times in your diary • Identify the most important topics and assignments
Somewhat useful Avoid interruptions and distractions	Try these strategies: • Set consultation times and stick to them • Use a 'do not disturb' sign • Use a different office when you are trying to write	Try these strategies: • Only read and answer emails at specific times of day • Let your phone go to voice mail, so you can get concentrated work done • Don't say 'yes' to anything—say 'I'll get back to you'	Try these strategies: • Study in a quiet location • Study at set times • Don't study at 11 o'clock at night • Turn off mobile phone (well, at least for high-priority study!)
May be helpful Being organized	Try these tools: • Use an in-tray • Develop a filing system • Develop an organizational system	Try these tools: • Use an in-tray • Develop a filing system • Develop an organizational system	Try these tools: • Organize readings • Set up study systems