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

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

Keywords: organisational happiness; organisational well-being; construct validity.

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Biographical notes: Georg Dutschke holds his PhD degree in Marketing & Management from the University of Seville, Spain. He is a Professor and Researcher in Portuguese and Spanish universities, also conducting consulting and interim management projects. He has research papers, books and articles published in Portugal and abroad. In the past, he has held managerial positions, having been director and manager in companies such as Sara Lee Processed Meat, Johnson & Johnson, Warner Brothers and Johnson Wax. The main areas of knowledge are organisational happiness, corporate social responsibility and strategic marketing.

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1 Introduction

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

The hedonic approach defines well-being as the constant look for happiness or pleasure (Ryan and Deci, 2001), being the positive affect a central component of happiness (Kahneman et al., 1999). The positive affect reflects the pleasant engagement with the ambiance, as be enthusiastic, alert, active (Watson et al., 1988), and several authors have work on it to operationalise happiness (Nix et al., 1999; Ryff et al., 2004; Steptoe et al., 2005).

Ryan and Deci (2001) defined the eudemonic approach of well-being as "living a complete human life looking for the realisation of valued human potentials", a concept much focused on one's life and in the processes of living it well.

Peiró et al. (2014) considered that both, hedonic and eudemonic elements, are part of the well-being structure, and are, naturally, related. Also, most of the instruments used to measure the subjective well-being consider, only, one component (affective or cognitive), not allowing to test psychometric properties. In these instruments, respondents are asked to rate their levels of positive and negative affect over a period, or, to judge their overall life quality. However, a measure the overall "subjective happiness" is still lacking. A consensual instrument, allowing to measure if one is happy or unhappy. Diener (1994) considered that such an instrument would reflect a broader vision of one's well-being. Also, Diener et al. (2017), Ford et al. (2015), Howell et al. (2016), Jena and Pradhan (2017), Judge et al. (2017), Mohanty (2014), and Weidman et al. (2017) considered that would be much relevant to identify the factors that professionals feel need to be happy in an organisation, in accordance with the actual Positive Psychology literature related with the well-being at work. This research aims to solve this research gap by identifying the factors promoting organisational happiness. Furthermore, it aims to propose a measure of organisational happiness.

2 Theoretical framework

The scientific interest in positive organisations is very close to the evolution of research on happiness, as the work strongly contributes to the quality of life (Bakker et al., 2012; Moccia, 2016; Xanthopoulou et al., 2012). Fisher (2010) and Warr (2007) considered that work has a contribution to one's well-being or happiness and that unemployment causes a significant reduction in the well-being (Clark et al., 2008).

The number of studies using positive constructs in organisations is increasing with a relevant impact on management (Rodrígues-Muñoz and Sanz-Vergel, 2013). Among others, main constructs used are the work engagement (Bakker and Leiter, 2010), job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015), workflow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), positive emotions at work (Vacharkulksemsuk and Fredrickson, 2013) and work enjoyment (Bakker, 2008). Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) referred that these constructs have in common positive intellectual evaluations (judgments and attitudes) and positive affective experiences (feelings, moods and emotions). Andrews and Withey (1976); Blanch et al. (2010) and Diener (2000) considered that happiness, subjective well-being or psychological well-being, consists of valuation judgments, satisfactory, pleasant and positive emotional reactions. If, in his widest sense, 'happiness' is an umbrella term for all that is good, 'happiness at work' would be a multidimensional concept, including transient moods and emotions, relatively

stable attitudes, highly stable individual dispositions, all, at the individual level (Fisher, 2010). This concept of happiness at work still needs to be evaluated, since there is no consensus on the literature.

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

With the positive psychology evolution, welfare work has started to be evaluated by instruments not directly related with the work as, among others, the "Satisfaction with Life Scale" (Diener, 1994; Diener et al., 1985), the "Oxford Happiness Questionnaire" (Hills and Argyle, 2002), the "Quality of Life Enjoyment and Life Satisfaction Questionnaire" (Endicott et al., 1993), the Psychological Well-being Scales (Ryff and Keyes, 1995; Van Dierendonck, 2004), the World Health Organisation Quality of Life Assessment Instrument, WHOQOL-100 (De Vries and Van Heck, 1997) or the Happy Planet Index (HPI) from the New Economics Foundation.

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

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

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

The happiness concept is being framed in the broader context of relations between "Myself and the Others", providing more evidence on how culture may have an influence on the emotions and attitudes (Uchida et al., 2004). De Leersnyder et al. (2014) developed a study across different cultural contexts (USA, Belgium and South Korea) with results showing that individuals' emotional fit is different among regions and related to the level of relational well-being. Reasons for happiness at work may also be depending on the national culture. There is not much evidence on this, but, Hofstede's (1991) research on national culture is an excellent point of reference. This may justify the need to develop new research, replicating existing instruments or proposing new ones, with the aim to identify organisational happiness factors in different regions and cultures (Uchida and Oishi, 2016). Rego and Cunha (2009) emphasised that employee happiness may have different origins in different cultures and the individualism/collectivism orientations may not operate, the same way, in different cultural and organisational contexts. So, it is relevant to develop new research aiming to identify how to promote the happiest and more productive professionals. As referred by Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) there is a strong relationship between subjective well-being and work performance.

3 Methods

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

3.1 Study 1. Qualitative

3.1.1 Participants

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

3.1.2 Design and procedure

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

To analyse the answers, a content analysis was conducted as suggested by Berelson (1952). The process was: (1) data collection; (2) data storage; (3) coding; (4) indexing system refinement; (5) code relationship and (6) identify categories. To improve the analysis, Atlas Ti V6.0 software was used. This software combines friendly use with a major ability to encoding and draws conclusions (Miles and Huberman, 1994). As proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) the process was: (1) citations evaluation, (2) highlight the words of each response, (3) encoding, (4) code interpretation and (5) category codification. For the encoding process, a list with the initially based code (Miles and Huberman, 1994) was elaborated to be used in the interactive process of analysis.

The code facilitates the identification of occurrence patterns, bias control and alternative or opposite directions and consistency level. After identifying the codes, the next step consisted of evaluating the relation, frequency of occurrence and the number of relations with other codes. This allowed establishing the importance and strength of each code.

3.1.3 Results

In total 1710 references were categorised. After analysing each and all mention, 38 components where identified: (1) I have a very good work ambiance (2) My colleagues are engaged with the organisation (3) There is a good teamwork spirit (4) There is humour (5) The communication is easy (6) I have the tools that I need to develop my work (7) I consider my colleagues as friends (8) I am recognised for my merit (9) I am respected as an individual due to the work developed (10) The organisation shows confidence in my work (11) The organisation is fair and honest (12) The organisation allows me to develop as an individual and professional (13) The organisation allows a continuous learning (14) The organisation allows having new challenges (15) I have autonomy and responsibility (16) I may contribute for the organisation strategy (17) The organisation allows me to be entrepreneur (18) I have time to share opinions allowing me to have better decisions (19) The organisation allows job rotation (20) My salary is good and fair (21) The organisation allows me to do what I like to do (professionally) (22) I feel that the organisation needs me (23) The organisation has work and new projects (24) The organisation has well-established processes (25) The organisation allows me to have a stable job (26) The organisation is innovative and promotes innovation (27) All employees know and share the organisation vision (28) Top management communicates clearly the organisation objectives (29) Leaders promote employees wellbeing (30) I am involved with organisation values (31) Top management leadership is true and inspiring (32) I have all the support from management (33) I look for excellency in my performance (34) I work to achieve my objectives so that organisation my achieve global ones (35) The organisation have clear objectives (36) I have a good balance between professional end personal life (37) The organisation allows to fulfil my mission has individual (38) The organisation cares about social responsibility.

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

3.2 Study 2. Quantitative

3.2.1 Participants

The questionnaire developed in Study 1 was sent to active professionals in Portugal and Spain, by using APG database (Portugal) and Sevilla University database (Spain), during February/April 2019. At the end 1954 validate answers were received. Respondents are approximately 25% Portuguese / 75% Spanish, 48% male / 52% female and 30% directors. This sample structure is adequate for the active professional reality in Portugal

and Spain. Following Green et al. (2016) recommendation, this sample was randomly split into two sub-samples of 953 and 1001 professionals, respectively, to conduct exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis.

3.2.2 Statistical analysis

The main statistical tools applied in this research were the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), using the software *R* (The R Core Team, 2014) and the packages lavaan, psy, psych, sem, e1071. The input in EFA was the raw data and parameter estimation was done with the help of the package psych. In CFA, the input was the covariance matrix and the package used was lavaan.

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

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

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

4 Results

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

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

Item	*M*	*SD*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*	*Shapiro-Wilk Test*		
					W	*df*	*P*
1	3.854	1.052	–0.786	0.052	0.867	2373	0.000
2	3.667	1.000	–0.537	–0.154	0.883	2373	0.000
3	3.518	1.131	–0.458	–0.516	0.902	2373	0.000
4	3.782	1.060	–0.683	–0.104	0.882	2373	0.000
5	3.447	1.172	–0.364	–0.740	0.911	2373	0.000
6	3.732	1.052	–0.696	–0.049	0.886	2373	0.000
7	3.298	1.127	–0.279	–0.636	0.912	2373	0.000
8	3.535	1.182	–0.528	–0.560	0.903	2373	0.000
9	3.780	1.071	–0.790	0.115	0.875	2373	0.000
10	3.846	1.024	–0.805	0.218	0.869	2373	0.000
11	3.442	1.216	–0.442	–0.718	0.908	2373	0.000
12	3.602	1.183	–0.576	–0.558	0.898	2373	0.000
13	3.697	1.162	–0.700	–0.291	0.893	2373	0.000
14	3.611	1.193	–0.564	–0.591	0.898	2373	0.000
15	4.047	1.000	–1.011	0.567	0.846	2373	0.000
16	3.435	1.245	–0.421	–0.833	0.903	2373	0.000
17	3.742	1.170	–0.722	–0.350	0.889	2373	0.000
18	3.385	1.164	–0.397	–0.650	0.913	2373	0.000
19	2.977	1.256	–0.047	–1.008	0.912	2373	0.000
20	3.101	1.240	–0.162	–0.943	0.909	2373	0.000
21	3.634	1.151	–0.600	–0.436	0.897	2373	0.000
22	3.550	1.174	–0.493	–0.639	0.901	2373	0.000
23	3.772	1.065	–0.677	–0.156	0.878	2373	0.000
24	3.412	1.155	–0.378	–0.639	0.914	2373	0.000
25	3.364	1.188	–0.404	–0.628	0.906	2373	0.000
26	3.522	1.193	–0.459	–0.705	0.905	2373	0.000
27	3.213	1.219	–0.192	–0.902	0.917	2373	0.000
28	3.518	1.283	–0.565	–0.746	0.895	2373	0.000
29	3.442	1.230	–0.456	–0.739	0.907	2373	0.000
30	3.602	1.196	–0.568	–0.578	0.898	2373	0.000
31	3.366	1.363	–0.399	–1.056	0.897	2373	0.000
32	3.509	1.249	–0.517	–0.735	0.899	2373	0.000
33	4.161	0.868	–1.077	1.233	0.815	2373	0.000
34	4.196	0.863	–1.132	1.425	0.801	2373	0.000
35	3.598	1.190	–0.563	–0.555	0.891	2373	0.000
36	3.524	1.118	–0.513	–0.408	0.900	2373	0.000
37	3.591	1.112	–0.520	–0.448	0.902	2373	0.000
38	3.550	1.204	–0.558	–0.588	0.898	2373	0.000

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

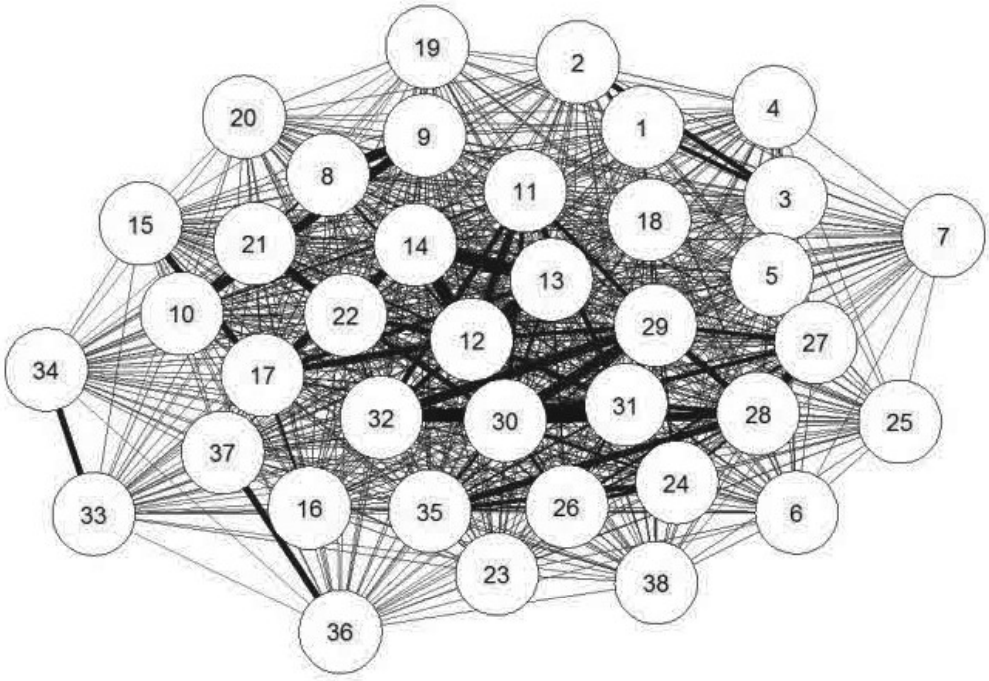
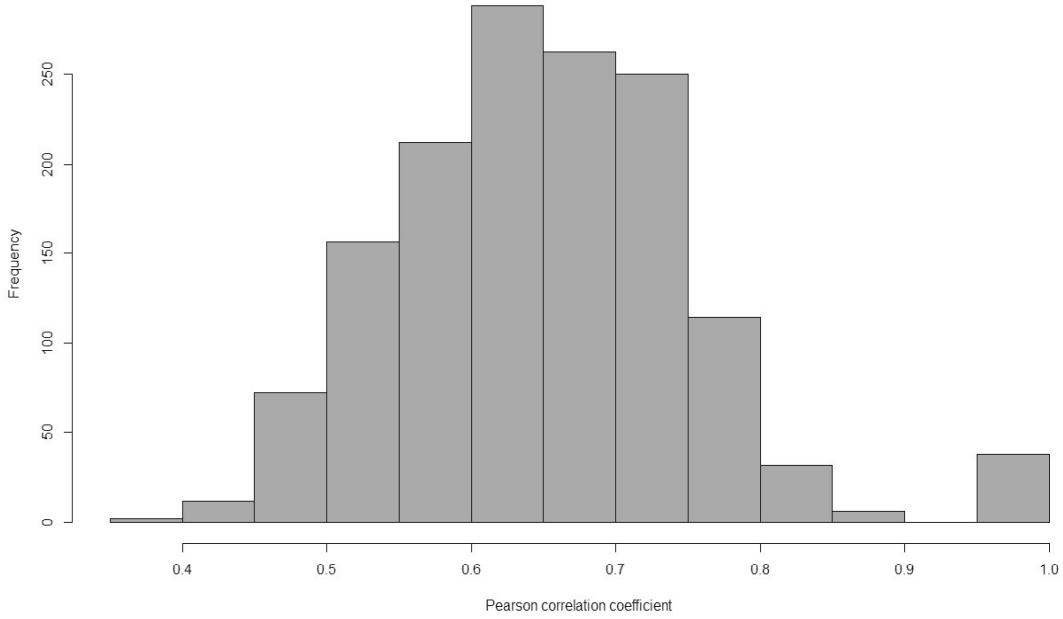


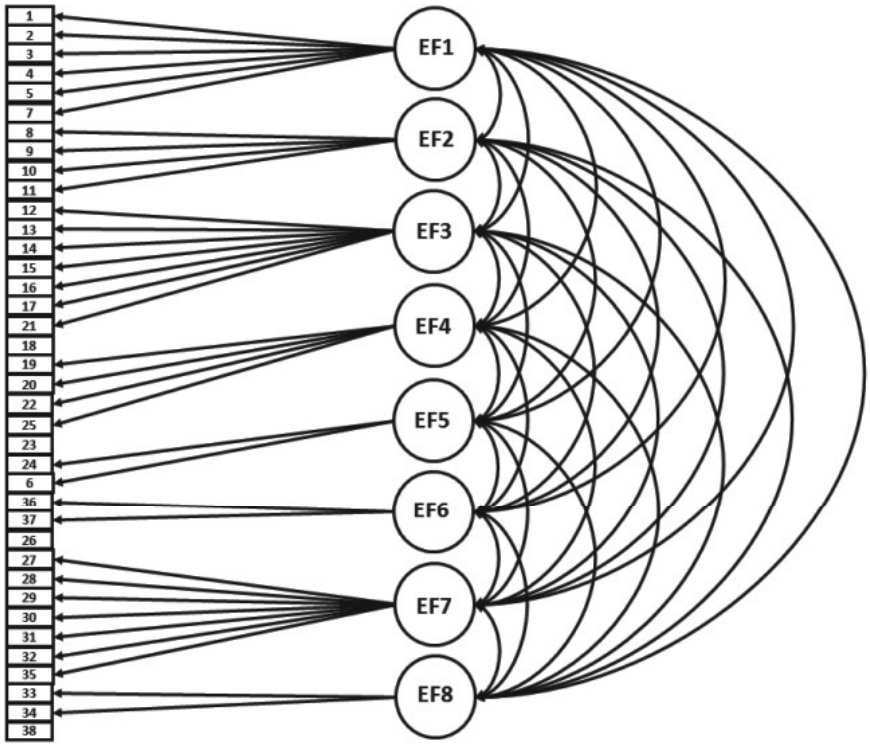
Figure 2 Histogram of the Pearson's correlation coefficient



4.1 Exploratory factor analysis

In the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) the eigenvalues of the correlation matrix were analysed, by applying a screen plot and a parallel analysis, with oblimin rotation and principal components extraction. The number of factors suggested by Kaiser's criteria on the eigenvalues was 3, decreasing sharply, after the first component. The parallel analysis indicates the possible existence of 8 factors (Figure 1A, in appendix), although there is not a large decrease after five factors. Consequently, the EFA assessment with eight factors was assessed (see Figure 3).

Figure 3 Results of the exploratory factor analysis

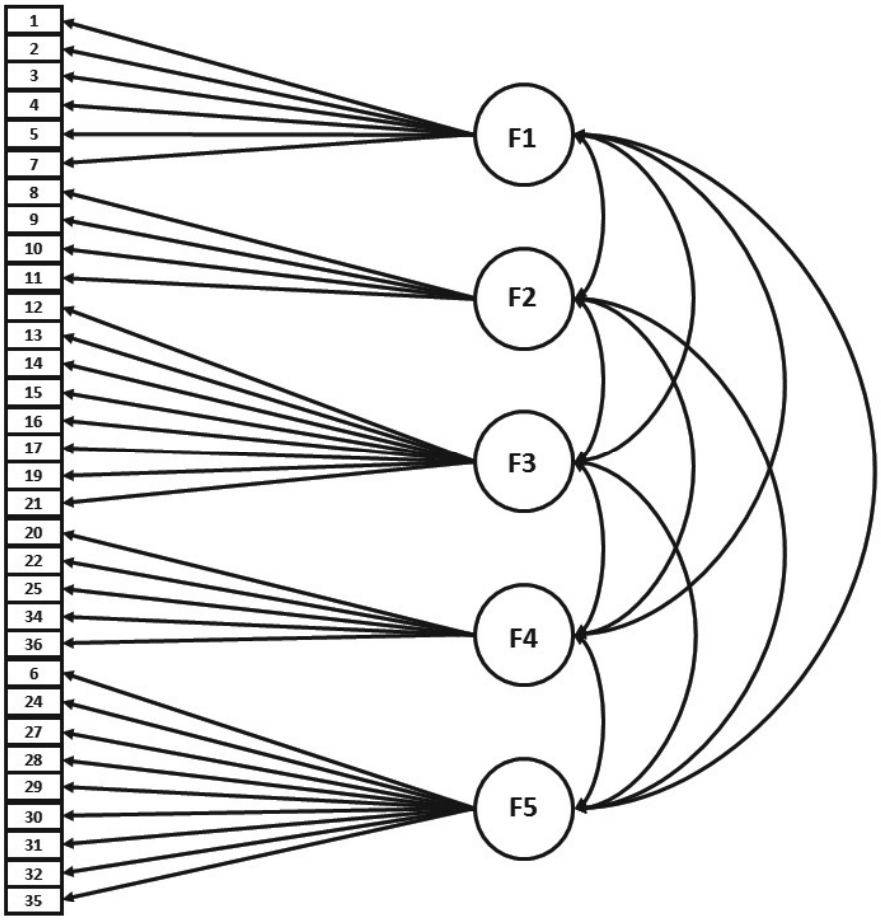


After analysing the EFA results, the paths with low loadings were eliminated (cut-off 0.3) and collapsed the factors with a low theoretical explanation or a low number of components (only 2 items). The components with no connecting factor were rearranged in the remaining factors, as more plausible. With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

4.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

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

Figure 4 Schematics of the first order factor model



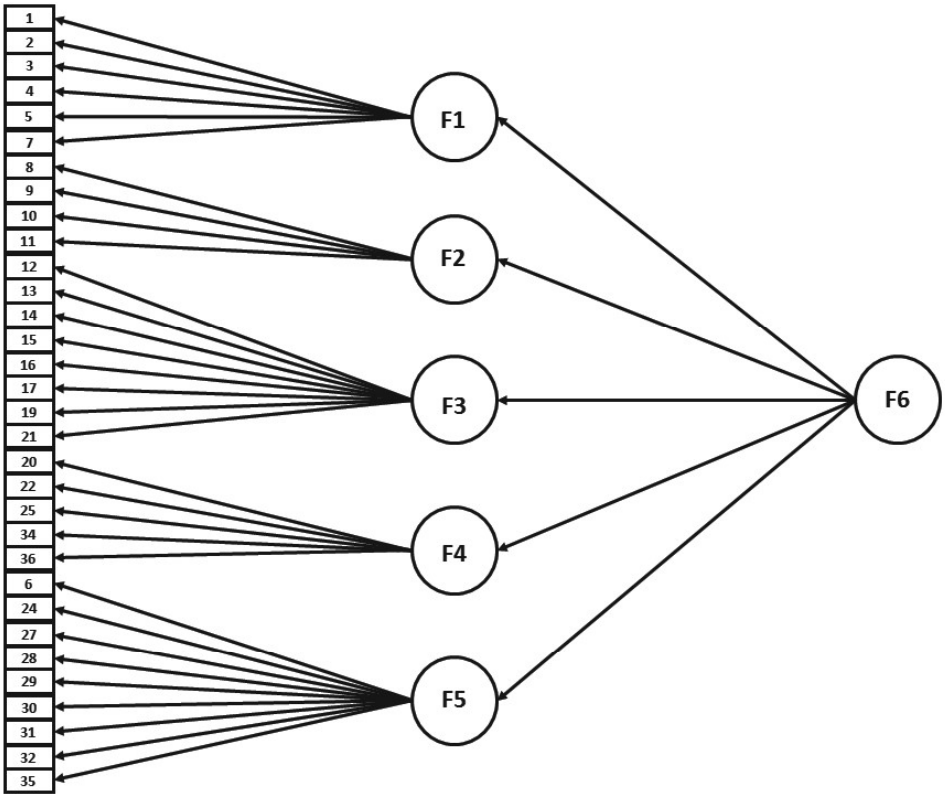
This model has 87 free parameters, 32 variances, 23 covariances and 32 paths. The model fit is: χ^2 (441, N = 1001) = 3,693.888 (p<0.001); root-mean-square error of approximation RMSEA = 0.061, 95% CI [0.060, 0.063]; Standardised Root Mean Square Residual SRMR=0.028; Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.954;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

After assessing these statistics and measuring the correlation coefficients between factors (see Table 2), a second-order CFA was tested, in which the five factors, connected with the components indicators, are explained by a single second-order factor (Figure 5 and Tables A1 and A2 in appendix). This model has 88 free parameters, 38 variance, 13 covariance and 37 paths.

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

	*F*2	*F*3	*F*4	*F*5
*F*1	0.881	0.848	0.867	0.873
*F*2		0.953	0.948	0.935
*F*3			0.958	0.95
*F*4				0.943

Figure 5 Schematics of the second order factor model



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

4.3 The scores of the sample

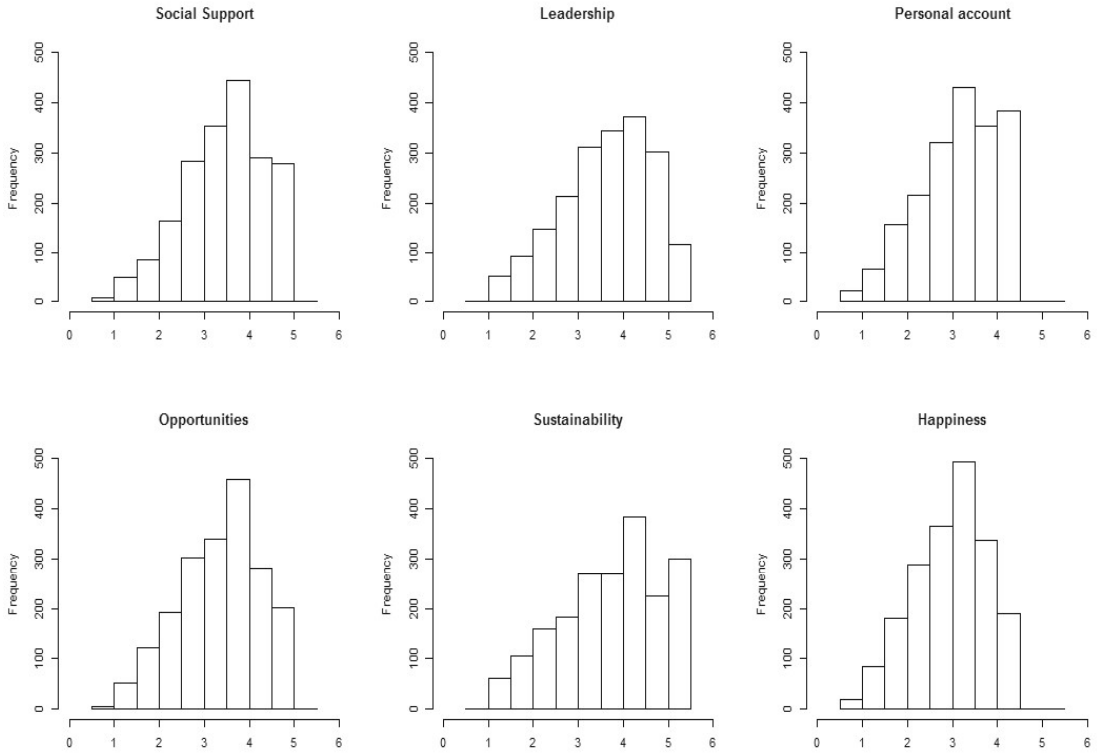
From the analysis, all loadings were significant (p<0.001). Also, the internal validity of each factor, by Cronbach's α, was 0.9315, 0.9316, 0.9520, 0.8586 and 0.9644, for factors one to five.

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

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

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

Figure 6 Histograms of the sample scores in each of the five first order factors and in the second order factor (organisational happiness)



4 Discussion

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

F1 workplace relationships

C1 – I have a very good work ambiance

C2 – My colleagues are engaged with the organisation

C3 – There is a good teamwork spirit

C4 – There is humour

C5 – The communication is easy

C7 – I consider my colleagues as friends

F2 acknowledgment and respect

C8 – I am recognised for my merit

C9 – I am respected as an individual due to the work developed

C10 – The organisation shows confidence in my work

C11 – The organisation is fair and honest

F3 continuous learning and personal development

C12 – The organisation allows me to develop as an individual and professional

C13 – The organisation allows a continuous learning

C14 – The organisation allows having new challenges

C15 – I have autonomy and responsibility

C16 – I may contribute to the organisation strategy

C17 – The organisation allows me to be an entrepreneur

C21 – The organisation allows me to do what I like to do (professionally)

F4 sustainability and job/family balance

C19 – The organisation allows job rotation

C20 – My salary is good and fair

C22 – I feel that the organisation needs me (I feel useful)

C25 – The organisation allows me to have a stable job

C34 – I work to achieve my objectives so that the organisation may achieve global ones

C36 – I have a good balance between professional and personal life

F5 leadership

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

C24 – The organisation has well-established processes

C27 – All employees know and share the organisation vision

C28 – Management communicates clearly the organisation objectives

C29 – Leaders promote employees wellbeing

C30 – I am involved with organisation values

C31 – Top management leadership is true and inspiring

C32 – I have all the support from management

C35 – The organisation have clear objectives

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

F1 workplace relationship

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

In this research, the first group of components related to this factor is: "there is a good teamwork spirit" (C3); "my colleagues are engaged with the organisation" (C2) and "I consider my colleagues as friends" (C7). Rego et al. (2009) identified the degree, to which accurate relationships in the organisation are characterised by friendship, team spirit, and mutual concern. The expression "personal involvement with the team" is not recent. Hemphill (1949) considered "personal involvement with the team" as the degree to which an employee feels responsibility and satisfaction with the organisation, according to his expectations. However, the term is being progressively replaced by the study of "group cohesion", originating a discussion on what, in the social support, reflects an orientation for the collective. Rego and Cunha (2009) considered that attitudes as loyalty, team commitment, tenure intentions, and organisational citizenship behaviours, contribute to a more collectivist orientation in the organisation. These authors have also found, by relating the collectivist/individualist orientation with well-being, that collectivistic individuals demonstrate higher affective well-being, and that this relation is moderated by employees' perceptions of friendship in the organisations. Higher affective well-being levels tend to be experienced by collectivists feeling when working in a friendly organisational context. Rego and Cunha (2009) emphasised that employee happiness may have different origins in different cultures and that individualism/collectivism orientations do not operate the same way in different cultural and organisational contexts. Parise and Rollag (2010) researched on friendship at work, by testing several hypotheses in a competitive management simulation, involving 42 teams. Results show that the existence of, in work friendship relationships, is associated with a higher group performance.

One may consider that, conceptually, these factors of perceived happiness (Team Spirit, Involvement with the Team, Friendship Relationships) are forms of "social support" and "co-worker support". Social support, in the context of organisational psychology, is being used to designate interactions between workers and between workers and respective supervisors (Luchman and González-Moralez, 2013; Karasek and Theorell, 1990). Social support may be considered as an individual difference that contributes to the quality of a person's social environment (Sarason et al., 1986). Thoits (1985) referred the Co-Worker Support as a job component that describes workers'

perceptions of instrumental help (e.g., information and feedback) and emotional assistance (e.g., showing sympathy and understanding). Reis (1984) stated that good health and good relationships are more likely to be found in competent people.

The perception of supporting colleagues emerges when, at the workplace, exists a network of interaction and communication, allowing workers to help each other and promote positive affect. This ambiance, very reach in social capital (Karasek and Theorell, 1990), facilitates the task accomplishment, by mobilising social ties, in order to obtain coworkers, help, and advice. It is in this context that the components "I have a very good work ambiance" (C1) and "the communication is easy (C5), should be considered. Still exist a research gap on the study of organisational or interpersonal communication and its contribution to well-being. Gable et al. (2004) referred that sharing personal positive events is associated with the increase of the daily positive affect and well-being. In our research, the component "there is humour" (C4) represents this positive communication in the organisation, being considered, by respondents, as important for them. Research looking for relations between humour and well-being in the organisation are scarce, but recent work from Tews et al. (2013) clearly support this relation.

F2 Acknowledgment and respect

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

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

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

The component "Justice" (C11) expresses the employee's desire of having a trustworthy leader. This is consistent with available research, in the sense that organisational justice appears to be an important predictor of work attitudes and behaviour (Cropanzano et al., 2001).

F3 continuous learning and personal development

The need for learning and personal development, from an organisational perspective, means the opportunity for an employee to have continuous learning and develop tasks that may contribute to his personal and professional growth. Both are important components of a healthy organisation (Wilson et al., 2004). There are relevant researches supporting the relation between lifelong learning & personal development on organisational well-being, as reducing job insecurity, increasing employability (Luthans et al., 2007b), a higher perception of a more intrinsically and rewarding job (Ryan and Deci, 2000) and the increase of meaningfulness (Wrzesniewski, 2003). Also, allows

professionals to develop senses of job competence, self-efficacy, autonomy, feelings of enthusiasm and comfort (Luthans et al., 2007a). Rego and Cunha (2009) conducted a study where it is visible that the perception of opportunities for learning and personal development is a predictor of five affective well-being dimensions: pleasure, comfort, placidity, enthusiasm and vigour. It is also demonstrated that this relation is moderated by the work-family conciliation perception.

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

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

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

The fourth component in this factor is "Autonomy" (C15). The importance of autonomy for well-being is relatively well studied. This relation is mostly mediated by factors as performance-avoidance objectives (Heidemeier and Wiese, 2014), the existence of a quality competitive ambiance and the organisational commitment (Gelens, et al., 2015; Park and Searcy, 2014).

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

Finally, respondents considered they would be happy in the organisation if they could "do what they like" (what I like / free choice) (C21). The way a society deals with

freedom have a high influence on individuals' happiness. According to World Values Survey (WVS) (Inglehart et al., 2008) and European Values Survey from 1981 to 2007, the feeling of free choice and one's life control, have strong importance on explaining the change in social well-being over the time. This association seems to be universal (Welzel and Inglehart, 2010).

F4 sustainability and job/family balance

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

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

Material wealth is also associated with components of well-being. It is strongly related to the cognitive component of subjective well-being but is a weaker predictor of emotional well-being (Diener et al., 2010a). Tay and Diener (2011), across a sample of 123 countries, have evaluated the relation between needs fulfilment and subjective well-being, including life evaluation, positive feelings, and negative feelings. The authors conclude that this relation was omnipresent in all the studied regions, but while life valuation is more connected to basic needs satisfaction, positive feelings are more related to social needs and concerns.

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

The components "I feel that the organisation needs me" (C22) and "I work to achieve my objectives so that organisation may achieve global ones" (C34) may be interpreted as a "pro-social" and altruistic attitudes, a concern for balance, with the organisation and own job sustainability. Studies demonstrate the positive relationship between physical and psychological well-being with an altruistic behaviour (Fredrickson et al., 2008) and a

negative relation with the operational hedonic and social anxiety (Alden et al., 2008). The motivation for autonomous help originates benefits and the satisfaction of personal needs (Weinstein and Ryan, 2010).

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

F5 leadership

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

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

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

Having support from the hierarchy is highly valued by respondents, as a leadership characteristic related to wellbeing at work. That justifies the components: "I have all the

support from management" (C32), "I have the tools that I need to develop my work" (C6), "The organisation has well-established processes" (C24), "The organisation has clear objectives" (C35). The same relation was previously validated by Gilbreath and Benson (2004) when referring that leader support is related to employee well-being and low stress.

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

5 Conclusions

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

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

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

5.1 Limitations and further research

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

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

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Appendix A

Figure A1 Scree plot of the parallel analysis, indicating a large decrease in the eigenvalues after the first factor and a slow decrease afterwards. The optimal value, where the lines are crossed was 8 factors

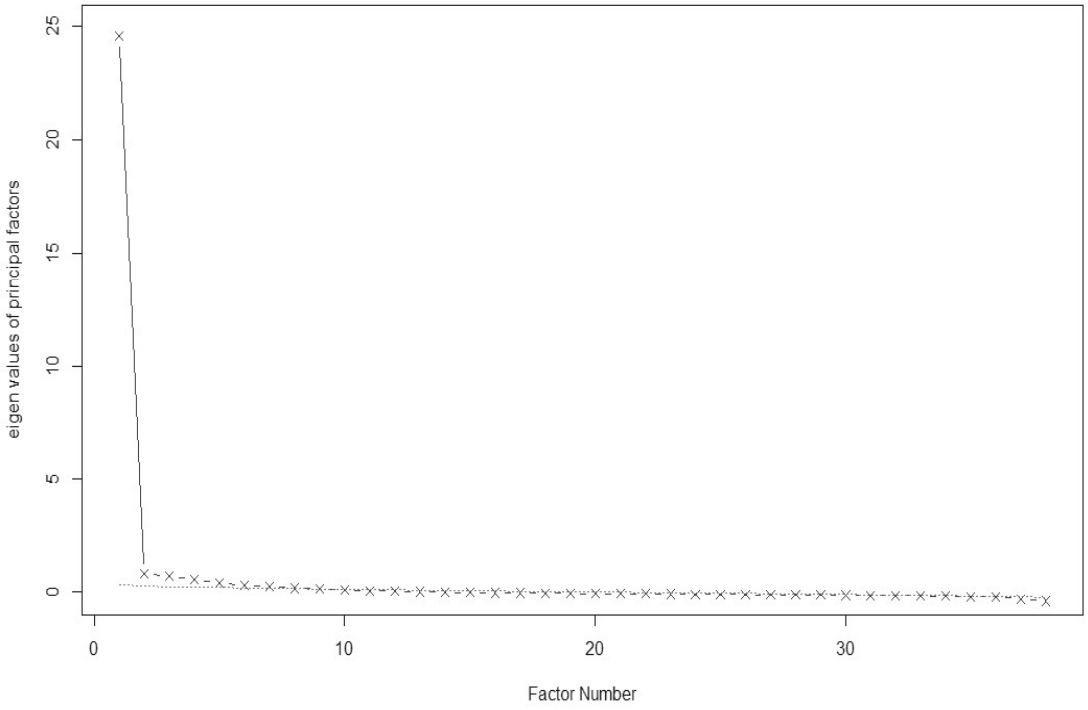


Table A1 Unstandardised loadings of the second order CFA, between left factor and right item (factor) and its standard error. Loadings without SE were fixed at value 1

Items/factors		*Estimate*	*SE*
F1	PO1	1.00	
F1	PO2	0.94	0.02
F1	PO3	1.12	0.02
F1	PO4	0.96	0.02
F1	PO5	1.08	0.02
F1	PO7	0.91	0.02
F2	PO8	1.00	
F2	PO9	0.9	0.01
F2	PO10	0.86	0.02
F2	PO11	1.07	0.02
F3	PO19	1.00	
F3	PO12	1.22	0.03
F3	PO17	1.17	0.03
F3	PO15	0.91	0.03
F3	PO14	1.20	0.03

Table A1 Unstandardised loadings of the second order CFA, between left factor and right item (factor) and its standard error. Loadings without SE were fixed at value 1 (continued)

Items/factors		*Estimate*	*SE*
F3	PO13	1.15	0.03
F3	PO16	1.17	0.03
F3	PO21	1.10	0.03
F4	PO20	1.00	
F4	PO22	1.16	0.03
F4	PO34	0.63	0.02
F4	PO36	0.79	0.03
F4	PO25	0.96	0.03
F5	PO28	1.00	
F5	PO31	1.09	0.02
F5	PO27	0.94	0.02
F5	PO29	1.01	0.02
F5	PO35	0.90	0.02
F5	PO30	0.98	0.02
F5	PO32	1.00	0.02
F5	PO24	0.88	0.02
F5	PO6	0.7	0.02
F6	F1	1.00	
F6	F2	1.21	0.03
F6	F3	1.06	0.03
F6	F4	1.09	0.03
F6	F5	1.33	0.03

Table A2 Unstandardised (co)variances of the second order CFA between left item (factor) and right item (factor) and its standard error

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

Table A2 Unstandardised (co)variances of the second order CFA between left item (factor) and right item (factor) and its standard error (continued)

Items/factors		*Estimate*	*SE*
PO1	PO1	0.27	0.01
PO2	PO2	0.27	0.01
PO3	PO3	0.24	0.01
PO4	PO4	0.36	0.01
PO5	PO5	0.41	0.02
PO7	PO7	0.58	0.02
PO8	PO8	0.37	0.01
PO9	PO9	0.30	0.01
PO10	PO10	0.29	0.01
PO11	PO11	0.29	0.01
PO19	PO19	0.80	0.03
PO12	PO12	0.24	0.01
PO17	PO17	0.31	0.01
PO15	PO15	0.35	0.01
PO14	PO14	0.30	0.01
PO13	PO13	0.32	0.01
PO16	PO16	0.48	0.02
PO21	PO21	0.38	0.01
PO20	PO20	0.7	0.02
PO22	PO22	0.27	0.01
PO34	PO34	0.41	0.01
PO36	PO36	0.73	0.02
PO25	PO25	0.65	0.02
PO28	PO28	0.40	0.01
PO31	PO31	0.38	0.01
PO27	PO27	0.40	0.01
PO29	PO29	0.26	0.01
PO35	PO35	0.40	0.01
PO30	PO30	0.24	0.01
PO32	PO32	0.33	0.01
PO24	PO24	0.37	0.01
PO6	PO6	0.50	0.02
F1	F1	0.17	0.01
F2	F2	0.05	0.01
F3	F3	0.04	0.00
F4	F4	0.04	0.01
F5	F5	0.07	0.01
F6	F6	0.66	0.03