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The Two Towers

Social relevance and solid methods in applied positive psychology in the workplace

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Abstract

Die Bewegung der positiven Psychologie, die mit dem Antritt von Martin Seligman als APA-Präsident 1998 neue Sichtweisen und Ideen in die Psychologie gebracht hat, beeinflusste in den letzten Jahren die Arbeits- und Organisationspsychologie durch ihren Fokus auf das subjektive Wohlbefinden. In der Arbeit soll ein zeitgemäßer Ansatz zur positiven Psychologie in der Arbeitswelt vorgestellt werden. Hierzu werden zwei Säulen - Methoden und soziale Relevanz – vorgeschlagen, die zum einen die möglichen Schwierigkeiten von Konstrukten der positiven Psychologie in Kulturvergleichen aufgreifen, sowie eine praxisnahe Ergebnisdarstellung propagieren. Andererseits greifen sie aber auch die Kritik auf, dass die positive Psychologie eine mögliche Hintertür zur Optimierung von Humankapital darstellen könnte. In drei Studien wird der vorgeschlagene Ansatz zur positiven Psychologie umgesetzt, wobei die Studien einen unterschiedlichen Schwerpunkt auf eine der jeweiligen Säulen setzen, und zugleich versuchen, beide Säulen in der Umsetzung zu integrieren. In der ersten Studie geht es um die Entwicklung eines Komposit-Fragebogens zur Erfassung von psychologischem Kapital, dessen theoretische Faktorstruktur sich in zwei deutschen Stichproben finden lässt und der durch eine nicht-berufsbezogene Item-Formulierung ein breiteres Einsatzgebiet erlaubt als der bisherige Standard- Fragebogen zur Erfassung von psychologischen Kapital, dem Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ). In der zweiten Studie werden Hebammen, eine Berufsgruppe, die sich vor allem in Deutschland derzeit unter großem politischen Druck befindet, zu ihrem subjektiven Wohlbefinden befragt, wobei hier mögliche Zusammenhänge mit beruflichen Anforderungen und Ressourcen, sowie Resilienz und der Bedeutung der Arbeit im Fokus stehen. In der letzten Studie werden Menschen mit Autismus zu aufgetretenen Barrieren in Berufsbewerbungen und -alltag in autismusspezifischer und nicht-spezifischer Anstellung interviewt. Weiterhin wurden Arbeits- und Lebenszufriedenheit und generelle Selbstwirksamkeit erhoben und zwischen den unterschiedlichen Gruppen von Menschen mit Autismus verglichen. Die Arbeit endet mit

einem finalen Kapitel, das mögliche generelle methodische Limitationen der Studien bespricht, gefolgt von praktischen und theoretischen Implikationen eines zeitgemäßen Ansatzes der positiven Psychologie in der Arbeitswelt, welcher die Integration von Methoden und sozialer Relevanz beinhaltet.

Abstract

When Martin Seligman became APA president in 1998, the Positive Psychology movement gave new perspectives and ideas to the discipline of psychology. In the past several years, the movement's focus on subjective well-being has also influenced the field of work and organizational psychology. This dissertation aims to introduce a contemporary approach to Positive Psychology in the work place. In order to accomplish this, two pillars are proposed: solid methods and social relevance. These address the possible problems inherent in constructs of Positive Psychology with regards to cultural comparisons, and also advocate a practical approach to presenting results. Furthermore, these two pillars address the criticism that Positive Psychology might be a possible backdoor used to 'optimize' human capital. Three studies apply this proposed approach at Positive Psychology, with the individual studies focusing more on one of the two pillars, while at the same time attempting to implement both. The first study is devoted to developing a composite questionnaire for the ascertainment of psychological capital, the theoretical factorial structure of which can be found in two German samples and which allows for a more broad application by formulating items without occupational reference, unlike the standard questionnaire for the assessment of psychological capital, the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ). The second study surveys midwives, an occupational group currently under much political pressure especially in Germany, about their subjective well-being. The focus here is on a possible connection between occupational demands and resources as well as resilience and meaning of work. The third and final study set out to interview individuals with autism regarding occurred barriers in the process of job applications as well as everyday work. Both individuals in autismspecific as well as non-autism specific employment were interviewed. Job and life satisfaction as well as general self-efficacy were also surveyed and compared among the different groups of individuals with autism. This dissertation ends with a final chapter discussing possible general methodological limitations of the studies, followed by the practical and theoretical

implications of a contemporary approach to Positive Psychology in the work place that includes the integration of methods and social relevance.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Changes in the world of work

Contemporary work is undergoing dramatic and rapid changes (Blustein, 2006; Blustein, 2008) or as Hameln (2002) pointed out – we have entered the age of revolutions in business concepts. Due to technological developments, change in the 21st century is no longer additive and linear; it is discontinuous, abrupt and non-linear. A company that misses a critical development may never catch up again, even if it is a respected brand making them as vulnerable as small start-ups (Cascio, 2010). While economic and societal change as well as instability in the "current times" have always been a topic (e.g., Daffern, 1960; LaPierre, 1958; Margulies & Wallace, 1973), there are some distinct differences to past times in this new world of work in the 21st century: The Internet, an aging population, globalization, and increasing diversity.

Maybe the most important factor of this change is the rise of the Internet (Friedman, 2006, 2009). This development led to a so called flat earth where work can be done from any place leading to global collaborations (Cascio, 2007) and changing possibilities for creativity and networking in areas such as research and development, software development or retail (Hof, 2005, June 20). This development revolutionized the rules of the working world as well as education (Cascio, 2010) – especially in the distinct contrast between areas with and without access to this new flat earth and its need for a supply of people with specific skills.

While the Internet led to a flat world, its workforce demographics changed rapidly. Due to low fertility rates, the developed western countries are expecting fewer younger and more older workers, thus leading to a need for skilled workers with the retirement of the baby boomer generation (Bloom, Canning, & Fink, 2010; Dychtwald, Erickson, & Morison, 2006; Lutz, Sanderson, & Scherbov, 2008). The flipside of this development are countries like China and India with a high fertility rate combined with a limited access to higher education and contemporary work skills (Cascio, 2010), leading to a low percentage of employable

people in high skill jobs combined with a seemingly inexhaustible possible lower-wage workforce for low skill jobs (Coy & Ewing, 2007).

While the manufacturing sector offshored most of its jobs to developing countries many former so-called white-collar jobs (e.g. bookkeepers, computer programmers, and designers) are now vulnerable to be offshored as well. According to Bardhan & Kroll (2003) the jobs with the following attributes are most likely to be targeted for offshoring:

- No face-to-face customer-servicing requirement
- High information content
- Work process is telecommutable and Internet enabled
- High wage differential with similar occupation in destination country
- Low setup barriers
- Low social networking requirement

This global movement of jobs results in an intense global competition of young workers as old structures of the classic white-collar workforce in industrialized countries are fading. At the same time higher education becomes more and more important to secure a sustained earning power (Cascio, 2010).

While the offshoring of jobs is one important aspect, it is also imperative to note that the jobs remaining in the industrialized countries are in need of high-skilled workers. Due to the high number of retirements by the baby-boomers there is a possible shortage of skilled workers (Dychtwald et al., 2006). To fill this shortage these countries need to utilize the abilities and talents of a diverse workforce (Barak, 2013). This changes the demographic features of most work organizations in Western countries from fairly homogeneous – Caucasian and male workforce - in the 20th century (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998) to an (much

needed) inclusion of marginalized and disadvantaged groups, especially women, people of color, sexual minorities and people with disabilities (Fassinger, 2008).

It is clear that the change in workforce demographics itself lead to two important changes: The offshoring of jobs and the increasing diversity in the developed countries.

Agreeing with Cascio and Aguinis (2008) on important research directions for a contemporary industrial and organizational psychology such as globalization, work intensification, and increasing diversity - this work will put a focus on the possible benefits of positive psychology in the workplace towards these challenges.

Positive psychology and work

Positive psychology in the workplace – sparked by the movement of positive psychology in the broader field of psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) – is an umbrella term for a wide range of other umbrella terms (Mills, Fleck, & Kozikowski, 2013) such as Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) or Positive Organizational Scholarship (POS). As the neoclassical economic approach is no longer sufficient to create sustainable sources for a distinctive advantage (Kraaijenbrink, Spender, & Groen, 2010) by "just fixing" things or accumulating traditional resources, including economical or intellectual capital (Luthans, Youssef-Morgan, & Avolio, 2015), a more dynamic and idiosyncratic approach that can respond to rapid changes and build sustainable resources is needed (Barreto, 2010; Teece, 2009). Positive psychology in the workplace became of special interest because of its possibility for a sustainable edge leading to an advantage in this competition by refocusing on what is right and on building strengths thus creating sustainable resources (Luthans & Youssef, 2007).

In a first step, I will define the umbrella terms of positive psychology in the workplace followed by a discussion of the roots and history of this movement.

Definitions of the terms of positive psychology in the workplace

Positive organizational scholarship. POS is a conceptual framework for integrating positive psychology research into organizations (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012b). It is defined as

The study of that which is positive, flourishing, and life giving in organizations. Positive refers to the elevating processes and outcomes in organizations. Organizational refers to the interpersonal and structural dynamics activated in and through organizations, specifically taking into account the context in which positive phenomena occur. Scholarship refers to the scientific, theoretically derived, and rigorous investigation of that which is positive on organizational settings (Cameron & Caza, 2003, p. 731).

Its umbrella covers a wide area of domains and phenomena that occur in organizational contexts such as positive relationships, positive human resource practices, positive leadership and change (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012a), and is even expanding to sustainability (Hoffman & Haigh, 2012) and economic models (Godfrey, 2012). Luthans & Youssef (2007) state that its focus is on the macro-level – the organization itself.

Positive organizational behavior. While POS concentrates on an organizational point of view POB is setting its spotlight on the behavior of individuals (Luthans, 2002a, 2002b) and is defined as

the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace (Luthans, 2002b, p.59).

For a construct to be included in POB it must be positive, must have a theoretical foundation, and valid measures (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). The classical construct associated with POB is psychological capital (PsyCap) – a g-factor construct including hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, &

Avolio, 2006). While Luthans & Youssef (2007) see the focus of POS on the macro-level, they state that POB is focusing on the micro-level – the individuals in organizations.

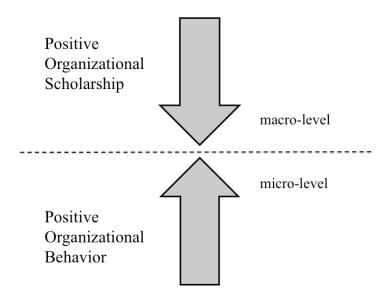


Figure 1.1. Proposed model by Luthans & Youssef (2007) for the relationship between POS and POB.

While POS and POB could be named as the main components of positive psychology in the workplace, there are more concepts that are worth discussing to differentiate this field of psychology to become a more holistic picture.

Positive occupational health psychology. Positive occupational health psychology (POHP) takes the classical approach of occupational health psychology - which concerns itself with the application of psychology to improve the quality of work life, and to protect and improve the safety, health, and well-being of workers (Leka & Houdmont, 2010) - and integrates a positive oriented wellness approach (Bakker & Derks, 2010). It is defined as

the study and application of optimal functioning in the workplace. It promotes occupational health and flourishing, and examines how positive phenomena (context, personal resources) can be used to protect against occupational risks (Bakker & Derks, 2010, p. 201).

POHB has overlapping parts with POB in the use of constructs such as PsyCap and engagement (Bakker & Derks, 2010; Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009) but goes beyond with approaches to job crafting and job design with the focus on health and well-being of the worker (Bakker & Derks, 2010).

Positive occupational psychology. Lastly, positive occupational psychology (POP) is a new concept entering the field. So far, there is no clear definition to it. It has a partial overlap with POB and POHP. It overlaps with POB insofar that it focusses on positive psychological capacities of the individual and their effects on the performance of the individual at the workplace but goes beyond the state-only approach of POB (Luthans, 2002a, 2002b) and includes workplaces outside of organizations, e.g. self-employed individuals. It overlaps with POHB due to its focus on health and well-being of the working individual. Further, it goes beyond the two other concepts by a positive approach to classical occupational psychology topics such as design of work environments and job analysis, personnel selection and assessment, motivation and career development (Chmiel, 2011; Ulich, 2011).

Combining all these terms, I propose the following model to integrate the relationships of them:

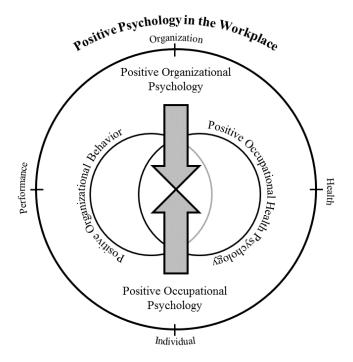


Figure 1.2. An integrated model of the terms used in positive psychology at the workplace

Now that we have a common understanding of the terms under the umbrella of positive psychology in the workplace – the next step is to understand the roots and emergence of the movement and its differences to other fields of psychology.

The roots and emergence of positive psychology in the workplace

The agenda of the positive psychology movement was to shift the emphasis from a deficit, disorder, and languishing oriented psychology that emerged after World War II (Linley, 2009) towards a strength, and flourishing oriented psychology (Diener, 2009b; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In this context, the psychology of the workplace stands out. While negative phenomena had been part of work and organizational psychology, especially stress, injustice or alienation (Weber, 1997), they were not dominant in this field – in fact, organizational decline was not introduced in research until 1980 (Whetten, 1980).

There is a history of interest in positive variables and constructs in work and organizational psychology: A close relationship to the humanistic psychology and motivational theories (Allport, 1955; Maslow, 1965, 1968), the approach to change and development (Bennis, 1963, 1969), positive and prosocial concepts, e.g. organizational citizenship behavior (Batson, 1994; Organ, 1988), interest in job satisfaction (e.g., Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), and well-being in the workplace (e.g., Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979). Yet even with these approaches the dominating outcomes, variables of interest were often profitability, economical efficiency (Ghoshal, 2005) and problem solving (Davis & Marquis, 2005).

The positive psychology movement and its momentum in the early 21st century (e.g., Fredrickson, 2001; Lopez & Snyder, 2002; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Sheldon & King, 2001) had a clear impact on work and organizational psychology. This spark of new thoughts led to an interest in new variables, e.g. compassion and forgiveness (Cameron & Caza, 2002), thriving (Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005), and flourishing (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005), areas such POS (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003) or POB (Luthans, 2002a, 2002b), an interest in well-being at work (e.g., Day, Kelloway, & Hurrell Jr, 2014; Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003; Van Veldhoven & Peccei, 2014). Thus we can rightfully say that a new field diverged from classical and mainstream research in this field of psychology influenced by the general field of positive psychology (Meyers, van Woerkom, & Bakker, 2013; Mills et al., 2013; Rusk & Waters, 2013).

As this movement in work and organizational (mostly) psychology does not seek "the positive" for its own sake but to improve efficiency – e.g. with a "270% return on investment" (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007, p.18) for a PsyCap intervention - and a competitive and sustainable resource (Luthans & Youssef, 2007) the criticism was not far behind.

Criticism of positive psychology at the workplace

The criticism of positive psychology can be subdivided into three main directions a) the ignorance of negative emotions (Ehrenreich, 2009; Hackman, 2009), b) the adoption of an elitist viewpoint and emotional capitalism (Ehrenreich, 2010; Fineman, 2006; Illouz, 2007), and c) the construction of an optimized human (Warren, 2010).

The first criticism states the point that positive psychology in the workplace ignores the impact of negative emotions and celebrates Pollyannaishness during hard times and problems (Ehrenreich, 2009; Hackman, 2009). Harsh as this criticism is, it is easily refuted as positive outcomes and the development of a positive identity under hard conditions or trauma is part of the positive psychology at work research. Therefore, a part of the research focusses on the investigation of positive processes and outcomes in negative phenomena. (Cameron & Lavine, 2006; Powley & Cameron, 2006; Weikc, 2006). Furthermore, King, Eells, & Burton (2004) see the importance of negative events to achieve what they call maturity and Luthans et al. (2004) see resilience, a construct that can only flourish by exposure to stress and challenging events, as part of their psychological capital.

The second criticism is that positive psychology in the workplace is favoring a corporatist worldview by being profit-oriented, enforcing unequal employment (Ehrenreich, 2010; Fineman, 2006) and emotional capitalism, which is defined as

a broad, sweeping movement in which affect is made an essential aspect of economic behavior and in which emotional life – especially that of the middle classes – follows the logic of economic relations and exchange (Illouz, 2007, p.5).

In a short conclusion, the core of this criticism is the question "Positive for whom?". But exactly this question is the weakness of this criticism as the aim of the positive psychology in the workplace is a benefit for workers, managers and organizations (Donaldson & Dollwet, 2013; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008), across classes (Cameron et al., 2003; Fletcher,

1998) and across different cultures (Diener, 2009a; Veenhoven, 1996, 2005). One could argue that the advantage might be higher for the corporation vs. the worker or that managers might benefit more than the workers but this would lead to a non-answerable argument because it would be impossible and fruitless to compare the return on investment with the rise of subjective or psychological well-being.

The third criticism sees - in harsh words - a "tyranny of wellness in the therapeutic organization" (Warren, 2010, p.318) or the construction of a sick person versus an optimized human being. This is maybe the gravest criticism as it accuses the movement of positive psychology in the workplace to open a new category of "the optimized human" beyond the classical clinical view of a sick and a healthy person in the disguise of being positive (Illouz, 2007; Warren, 2010). This argument is not an easy one to refute. Its strength is to remind us as researchers and practitioners in the field of positive psychology that this movement should not be about the optimization of humans (especially not on a top down order) and that its core should be research of social relevance to the benefit of our fellow human beings. Given the possibility of abuse, the criticism of the field may not be to our liking but is a necessary reminder to stay alert.

A contemporary approach to positive psychology in the workplace

A contemporary approach to positive psychology in the workplace should be aware of new developments in the field as well as in adjacent fields such as methodological and economic developments, and the zeitgeist of the society. It must also be aware of and keep in mind the critical objections discussed above. The combination of these different puzzle pieces is important to minimize the researcher-practitioner gap, strengthen the results of the research, and to value the individuals' benefit over the return on investment. For this approach, I argue that a contemporary approach must stand on two solid pillars – methods and social relevance.

The rest of this introduction will spotlight these two pillars and their relevance to the upcoming studies.

The first pillar: Methods

During the last years, the field of psychology has seen debates on methodological approaches – from articles on important topics such a training of young academics (Aiken, West, & Millsap, 2008; Kline, 2009), calls for advancement in planning and reporting of studies (e.g., Aguinis & Edwards, 2014; Aguinis, Pierce, Bosco, & Muslin, 2009; Aguinis & Vandenberg, 2014; Aguinis et al., 2010; Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010; Brutus, Aguinis, & Wassmer, 2013) to broader discussions on the relevance of the classical frequentist approach (Andraszewicz et al., 2014; Cumming, 2013; Dienes, 2011; Kline, 2013; John Kruschke, Aguinis, & Joo, 2012). While these are important steps, the advances seem to disseminate slowly into the field given the methodological comfort zones of researchers (Aguinis et al., 2009), the strong belief in statistical myths and urban legends (Lance & Vandenberg, 2009) or the complication of programming statistical analysis such as Bayesian analysis, even given tutorials (John Kruschke, 2010; Lee & Wagenmakers, 2014). Given these barriers I would like to propose three simple steps that are easy to implement and should improve the quality of papers: a) the inclusion of a data analysis section in the method section, b) the evaluation of measurement models using confirmatory factor analysis when importing scales from a different culture, and c) the use of a customer friendly reporting of the results. I included my suggestions into the studies in the upcoming chapters.

Inclusion of a data analysis section. The inclusion of a data analysis section as a subsection of the method section establishes transparency. While this idea is supported by some authors (Hancock & Mueller, 2010; Kline, 2009), it is too often missing in peer-reviewed papers, leading to an incomplete understanding of the appropriateness of data analyses or any check of prerequisites. While one could assume that prerequisites were tested

in peer-reviews, assumptions are a slippery ground for scientific conclusion while rigorous reporting should lead to a solid one, i.e. for the decision to make use of robust estimation in confirmatory factor analysis to adjust for non-normal distributions of the variables (Finney & DiStefano, 2013). In addition to transparency, this section can be used to transport information and decisions on techniques that are not standard or widely known in the field (Kline, 2009). I used the data analysis section exactly this way in chapter 4 to inform on our decisions regarding the Bayesian data analysis and to introduce concepts used in this type of data analysis for the reader.

Evaluation of measurement models. The evaluation of measurement models using i.e. confirmatory factor analysis is crucial, especially when we are importing scales from a different culture setting because we are making the critical assumption that the scale is measuring the same construct (Chen, 2008). This is an important step in the field of psychology, since researchers cannot assume that a construct measured by a scale does this automatically with the same normative understanding of its origin culture. While some are seemingly stable across different cultures, i.e. well-being and optimism (for an overview, see Pedrotti, Edwards, & Lopez, 2009) others are unstable, at least in their factorial structure. A good example for this instability is the Values in Action (VIA) and the Structured Interview (VIA-IS, Peterson & Seligman, 2004) with its 6-factor structure in the original version used in the United States. While a similar factorial structure could be found in the German version of the VIA-IS (Ruch et al., 2010), this is not the case in cross-cultural comparisons where researchers found not a single consistent factor structure across different populations. They found very different solutions - from a single-factor solution in an Indian adaptation in Hindi to a different five-factor structure in an Indian adaptation in English (Choubisa & Singh, 2011; Singh & Choubisa, 2010).

Another construct used in different cultures is PsyCap (Luthans et al., 2004) with mixed results regarding the factorial structure of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ, Dawkins, Martin, Scott, & Sanderson, 2013). Ignoring different cultural backgrounds and differences in corporate cultures resulting in problems with item wordings of the PCQ (e.g. "I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.") the scale is often used without the report of any confirmatory factor analysis (e.g., Dadras, Smakotin, & Moser, 2015).

Customer friendly reporting. In this last topic I agree with Aguinis et al. (2010) in a call for customer-centric reporting with a practical impact in mind. This approach is a call to address the ongoing concerns of a science-practitioner gap. An important step is the reporting and discussion of effect sizes compared to statistical significance in case of large samples when even small effects become statistically significant. Further it is important to put the results into context (Cortina & Landis, 2009) discussing if the results are big enough to matter or how they matter for that field of practice. For this reason, researchers should consult practitioners from the field to make results more accessible to this target audience, even using special reports with relatable key results and community websites and blogs beyond the paper.

I firmly believe that a solid foundation of methods, and thus our first pillar, is of special importance for a contemporary approach to positive psychology in the workplace. It is important for the interpretation and validity of the results as well as symbolizing a clear line between scientific research and the huge amount of self-help and layperson books in this field.

The second pillar: Social relevance

Social relevance should be a second pillar of a contemporary approach to positive psychology in the workplace given the changes in the workplace of our time. Stress and job intensification (Bhagat, Segovis, & Nelson, 2012) as well as precarious employment (Kalleberg, 2009; Quinlan, Mayhew, & Bohle, 2001; Vosko, Zukewich, & Cranford, 2003)

are on the rise globally. While the classical fields of psychology in the workplace, e.g. performance and leadership are important, I believe that it is time to focus on social questions of inclusion and diversity using positive psychology as a possible approach to this topic. The inclusion of marginalized and disadvantaged groups, especially women, people of color, sexual minorities and people with disabilities (Fassinger, 2008) is an important topic of social relevance in our time because is not as advanced as one may believe or as it should be.

I believe that this second pillar of our contemporary approach to positive psychology in the workplace is as important as the first one. It tries to integrate the criticism by Warren (Warren, 2010) and Ilouz (2007) from above thus setting a focus on topics where positive psychology can be of support and help for target groups to build resources in face of hard times or to overcome barriers. With that goal in mind, I am hoping to present you, the reader, the studies of this work in the three upcoming chapters that are rooted in the positive psychology in the workplace movement, resting on the two pillars of our contemporary approach.

The upcoming chapters

The following chapters consist of three studies. The study in chapter 2 builds on our recommendations for the evaluation of measurement models. It takes into account the mixed results regarding the factorial structure of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (Dawkins et al., 2013) and focus on constructing a German and corporate culture- and context-free version of a compound scale measuring PsyCap.

With regards to social relevance, we focused our research in chapter 3 on an occupational group almost entirely consisting of women – midwives. This occupational group is - aside from understaffing, inadequate income, shift-work, insufficient time for women and for completing their duties (Ball, Curtis, & Kirkham, 2002; Glass, 2009; Knezevic et al., 2011) - under a special kind of stress in Germany. They faced a 56% increase in 2010 and

another 15% increase in 2012 in the costs for professional indemnity, while the mean working hours went up as well (Albrecht, Loos, Sander, & Schliwen, 2012). As the protest by midwives is ongoing we wanted to explore how resilience and meaning of work have an influence on the subjective well-being of these (almost mostly) women.

Chapter 4 is also devoted to social relevance: we set our spotlight on possible barriers in the job application process as well as in the job itself for individuals with autism. Our approach in this chapter is based on the theory of neurodiversity, which considers autism a regular variant of the human brain (Armstrong, 2013; Jaarsma & Welin, 2012; Kapp, Gillespie-Lynch, Sherman, & Hutman, 2013). We decided to approach this topic on the grounds of this theoretical basis, as it is a point of view of respect and highly compatible with the "spirit" of positive psychology.

The inclusion of people with disabilities is an important research angle, since, as compared to gender and race, there are only a few articles focusing on this target group (c.f., Coletta & Bruyère, 2011). Although most working-aged people with disabilities express a desire to work and join the workforce (Bruyere, Erickson, & VanLooy, 2004), unemployment in this group is at a high rate (Yelln & Trupin, 2003) as well as chances of involuntary job loss, part-time, and part-year employment (Fassinger, 2008; Yelln & Trupin, 2003). Different disabilities have a severe influence on the employment rate, e.g. 70% of blind or visually impaired people (Yelln & Trupin, 2003) and 55% of individuals with Asperger's Syndrome (Lorenz & Heinitz, 2014) face unemployment.

Returning to the first pillar and our recommendation for customer-friendly reporting, we consulted practitioners from the field to make our results of the studies in chapters 3 and 4 more accessible to target audiences for applied research. Instead of merely publishing the paper, we made sure to prepare special reports in a comprehensible manner, including

community websites, community-specific publications, and blogs. In doing so, we will be more able to reach the individuals involved in the field.

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Chapter 2

Measuring Psychological Capital: Construction and validation of the Compound PsyCap Scale (CPC-12)*

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Abstract

With the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) being the standard measure to assess psychological capital (PsyCap) in the context of organizations, this paper targets to broaden this domain-specific approach by introducing a measure with universal claim. Two studies were conducted to create and validate a German self-report scale (CPC-12) measuring PsyCap. We performed confirmatory factor analyses and correlations with other positive psychological constructs on the data of two German samples ($N_1 = 321$; $N_2 = 202$). The twelve-item CPC-12 exhibits the anticipated factorial structure with a very good model fit and associations to other constructs concur with previous findings with other measures of PsyCap.

Keywords: psychological capital; positive psychology; well-being; hope; optimism; resilience; self-efficacy

Measuring Psychological Capital: Construction and validation of the Compound PsyCap Scale (CPC-12)

Psychological Capital

Psychological capital (PsyCap) draws from the significant body of research that

Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) have stimulated, following the positive psychology
movement. In shifting the focus of psychological research from human deficits like mental
illnesses to human assets, strengths were scientifically studied and have been found to allow
individuals, groups or even organizations to thrive and prosper (Seligman &

Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Extending this seminal work to the work place, Luthans (2002)
identified psychological constructs (i.e. self-efficacy, hope, optimism, happiness, and
resilience), which met the criteria of being positive, based on theory and research, and statelike open to development, change and management for performance improvement. All six
constructs combined were labeled positive organizational behavior (Luthans, 2002). Luthans
and Youssef (2004) bundled four of these states (hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy)
into the higher-order construct "positive psychological capital (PsyCap)". This construct was
developed to provide practitioners with a new framework to build and maintain sustainable
competitive advantages through human resources (Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

PsyCap as a whole is defined as "a core psychological factor of positivity in general, and POB criteria meeting states in particular, that go beyond human and social capital to gain a competitive advantage through investment/development of 'who you are'"(Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Li, 2005, p. 253), its parts as follows: (a) Hope refers to an individual's motivation to succeed at a specific task in a set context and the way or means by which that task may be accomplished (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008). (b) Optimism refers to an individual's expectancy of positive outcomes (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 2001). (c)

Resilience refers to the ability of an individual to bounce back from adversity, uncertainty, risk or failure, and adapt to changing and stressful life demands (Masten & Reed, 2002; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). (d) Self-efficacy refers to an individual's confidence in their ability to mobilize their motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action to achieve high levels of performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

PsyCap can be distinguished from other forms of people-related capital, specifically human (an individual's stock of knowledge, skills and abilities that can be increased by experience and/or investment in education and training; Becker, 1993) and social capital (the aggregate of the actual or potential resources that are connected to the possession of a durable network of relationships; Bourdieu, 2011; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst, 2014). It influences a variety of outcomes at the individual level of particular importance for organizations and even beyond the work place (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011), previous research however focused heavily on a domain-specific measure settled in the context of work. PsyCap is shown to be associated with desirable employee attitudes, such as staying intentions (Avey et al., 2011), job satisfaction and commitment (Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008). Employees high in PsyCap are found to be more empowered, which subsequently leads to less turnover intentions (Luthans, Norman, et al., 2008), and the reduction of absenteeism (Avey, Patera, & West, 2006). Furthermore, individuals high in PsyCap perform better than those low in PsyCap since they can draw upon more resources to pursue goals (Hobfoll, 2002; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). Most importantly, PsyCap is shown to be developable through training interventions (Luthans, Avey, et al., 2008), which makes it a useful and tangible construct actually able to influence individuals and even whole organizations in a positive way.

Besides these work place-specific benefits, studies found evidence linking PsyCap to an improved psychological and physical well-being by reduction of stress (Baron, Franklin, & Hmieleski, 2013). Because of the reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1993), PsyCap enhances the latter. Due to the fact that PsyCap consists of more general constructs (hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience) the question at hand is – Is PsyCap merely a domain specific construct with effects solely in work-related areas or is it a much broader construct influencing many possible areas of life?

Measuring Psychological Capital

The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ; Luthans & Youssef, 2004) is widely recognized as the standard scale measuring PsyCap (Dawkins, Martin, Scott, & Sanderson, 2013). It was developed as a compound measure consisting of (modified) items from published scales for hope (Snyder et al., 1996), optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1985), resilience (Wagnild & Young, 1993), and self-efficacy (Parker, 1998). Predominantly, the PCQ was used in employee, manager and student samples (Dawkins et al., 2013), and its items are closely tied to the work place (i.e. "I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy."). One can thus state that the PCQ is a domain-specific measure.

Since PsyCap is shown to be linked to outcomes of general importance for individuals (Baron et al., 2013), this study aims to design and validate a universal measure for the construct. Such a non-domain-specific measure could expedite research on PsyCap for constructs in other domains, i.e. sports and education. Therefore, we conducted two different studies. Study 1 drew from the item pool of published and proven measures for the four different PsyCap-components to create a compound measure, which is deployable in a wide range of applications (including the work place). For testing convergent and discriminant validity, we additionally surveyed the existing PCQ and a measure for occupational self-efficacy. We hypothesized a strong but not perfect positive association between the PCQ and our newly created measure (Compound Psychological Capital Scale – 12; CPC-12), a higher correlation between general self-efficacy and the CPC-12 and a smaller one between

occupational self-efficacy and the CPC-12 compared to the PCQ due to the domain specific traits of the PCQ. In study 2, we re-tested the factorial structure. Furthermore, to test the external validity of the CPC-12 we selected several important positive psychological constructs using preexisting literature on PsyCap expecting to see the effects of PsyCap beyond the work place (Avey et al., 2011) without a domain specific measurement.

Positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA)

The relationship between PA and PsyCap becomes obvious upon reviewing the literature relating PA to three major components of PsyCap: resiliency, self-efficacy and optimism. These studies found that people high in PA show more effective problem resolving skills, more mature coping efforts, experience less conflict at the office (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005) and furthermore that positive emotions enhance resilience in the face of adversity (Tugade, Fredrickson, & Feldman Barrett, 2004). People who show more PA are also more optimistic and more likely to maintain a positive outlook during times of adversity (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Additionally, they are found to be high in personal competence and self-esteem and report higher self-efficacy (Jundt & Hinsz, 2001; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Lyubomirsky, Tkach, & DiMatteo, 2006). Little, Gooty, and Nelson (2007) also reported significant positive correlations between all four components of PsyCap and PA (*r*=.28 - .68).

There is evidently a remarkable overlap between PA and PsyCap. One study even found that the predictive power of PsyCap on work performance, motivation and job satisfaction becomes insignificant once one accounts for PA (Little et al., 2007). Nonetheless the same study also pointed out that none of the PA-items loaded with the PsyCap constructs, meaning that besides the overlap, they are still clearly distinct constructs. For these reasons we expect a strong correlation between CPC-12 and PA. Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) state that NA and PA "regularly show moderate inverse relations across individuals, justifying the use

of such negative states as the inverse of PA" (p. 822), thus we expect a moderate or high negative correlation between NA and PsyCap. This makes sense if you bear in mind the negative effects that PsyCap has on states like stress and anxiety (Baron et al., 2013).

Job satisfaction

There is a clear relationship between job satisfaction and PsyCap. Studies indicate that people high in PsyCap also report higher job satisfaction (Avey et al., 2011; Luthans et al., 2007; Newman et al., 2014). Luthans et al. (2007) report a positive correlation of r = .39, whereas the meta-analysis of Avey et al. (2011) reports an even higher correlation of r = .50 - .57. One explanation for this relationship is given by Avey et al. (2011) who state: "Given the general expectancy of success derived from optimism and the belief in personal abilities derived from efficacy, those high in PsyCap report being more satisfied with their job." (p. 132). In addition Luthans et al. (2007) declare that employees who are hopeful and efficacious are more satisfied with their jobs due to better performance. They are confident to persist, accept challenges and put effort into achieving their goals (efficacy). Furthermore they identify subgoals and pathways to achieve them and are able to foresee and overcome obstacles by pursuing a variety of pathways (hope). We therefore expect the CPC-12 to positively correlate with job satisfaction in about the same range as stated above.

Satisfaction with life

Previous studies on PsyCap concentrated on work-related outcomes, i.e. job satisfaction (Newman et al., 2014). Nonetheless work and non-work life influence each other (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007) and there is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Rojas, 2007). Ford et al. (2007) name time-based pressure as one major reason for this mutual interaction. If you have to work extra hours in the office you will have less time to enjoy time with family or friends, which can leave you unsatisfied and vice versa. Newman et al. (2014) also stated in their meta-analysis that besides predicting

higher levels of work-family conflict, low PsyCap predicts less meaning of life, things that should result in a decrease in life satisfaction. Lastly it has been reported that life satisfaction is positively related to optimism and self-esteem (Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996), posing another connection to PsyCap. For these reasons, we expect a moderate to high positive correlation between the CPC-12 and life satisfaction.

Subjective well-being

Since well-being is measured in many studies as a compound construct consisting of positive and negative affect, life satisfaction and job satisfaction (Judge & Klinger, 2008; Pavot, 2008), PsyCap, as expected, positively relates to well-being (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009; Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010; Culbertson, Fullagar, & Mills, 2010; Dawkins et al., 2013). Avey et al. (2010) furthermore show that PsyCap can lead to psychological well-being over time. We therefore expect a high positive correlation between subjective well-being and the CPC-12.

Perceived Social Support

In their study "Very Happy People" Diener and Seligman stated that satisfying social relationships are central to human happiness, so much so that happiness cannot occur without them (Diener & Seligman, 2002). Findings from Karademas (2006) support those claims as he reports a direct positive relationship between social support and life satisfaction as well as an indirect one through optimism. Optimistic people seem to positively appraise future events. To maintain such beliefs optimists rely on a "positive evaluation of the social context and its 'ability' to provide the necessary support" (Karademas, 2006, p. 1287) . Social support has furthermore not only been found to increase optimism (Karademas, 2006; Symister & Friend, 2003) but also to be associated with self-esteem (Symister & Friend, 2003). Positive correlations between social support and optimism have been found to be moderate (r = .29 - .41), similar to the moderate positive ones with self-esteem (r = .44) (Karademas, 2006;

Symister & Friend, 2003). High levels of social support have also been found to reduce mortality and to result in positive health outcomes, due to social support functioning as an "exceptionally important stress resilience factor" (Ozbay, Fitterling, Charney, & Southwick, 2008, p. 306). We expect a small to moderate positive correlation between perceived social support and the CPC-12 situated at the lower edge of the range stated above.

Meaning of Work

When looking at meaning, its importance not only in the field of work, but for life in general (Seligman, Parks, & Steen, 2004), becomes clear. It is not just a positive influence on organizational performance or employee engagement (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). Having meaning in life is also of great importance for living a "full life" (Seligman et al., 2004), which is very desirable for many. Again there is a positive relationship with PsyCap as Coutu (2002) reported a strong relationship between meaning-making and resilience. She stated that one of the things distinguishing resilient people from less resilient people is their ability to create significance and meaning in their hardships and their lives in general. In addition, she reported the effective use of constructing meaning in resilience trainings for businesspeople. Resilient people are more likely to see themselves not as victims in adversity, but rather to recognize the lesson and learning opportunity in their hardship. They are therefore able to create meaning in difficult situations in life and at work (Coutu, 2002). The fact that a sense of self-worth and efficacy are found to be two important pillars in the search for meaning (Baumeister, 1991) and the finding that lower levels of PsyCap seem to result in lower levels of meaning of life (Newman et al., 2014) underline the positive relationship between meaning of work and PsyCap. We expect a moderate positive correlation between the CPC-12 and meaning of work.

Engagement

Engagement is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Vigor is a very similar construct to resilience as Bakker et al. (2008) describe vigorous people as mentally resilient, willing to put great effort into their work and to show persistence in the face of adversity. Resilience is not the only personal resource that has been found to reciprocally influence work engagement (Bakker, Gierveld, & Van Rijswijk, 2006; Bakker et al., 2008). Self-efficacy as well as optimism have been found to be equally connected to engagement (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007, 2009). These personal resources show moderate positive correlations with work engagement (r = .29 - .54) (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009). Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) explain the relationship by suggesting that people high in self-efficacy, optimism and resilience are "confident about their capabilities and optimistic about their future, and thus may identify or even create more aspects of their environment that facilitate goal attainment. This capability leads to goal confrontation and consequently to work engagement" (p. 137). It also has been explicitly stated that people high in PsyCap are more committed to their jobs (Avey et al., 2011) as the organizations they work for fulfill their needs for accomplishment and efficacy, thus leading to them being more "likely to embed themselves and be enthusiastic about their work (engagement)" (p. 132). We therefore expect a solid moderate positive correlation between engagement and the CPC-12 in about a similar range as stated above.

Gratitude

The close relationship of gratitude and PsyCap was demonstrated in a study by Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio (2006), in which they discussed a range of possible constructs to be included into PsyCap. They regard gratitude as a promising aspirant for inclusion describing it as "the extra mile willingly traveled by those with high PsyCap" (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2006, p. 4). They find that gratitude prevents people from having negative

labels and thoughts about their fellow men, thus decreasing the positivity in those relationships, which would in turn lead to a lower level of PsyCap. They state that being grateful helps us to maintain a positive outlook on life and positively reinforce each other. Maintaining a positive view on life resembles parts of optimism and hope, and this is reflected in other studies, which found positive relationships between gratitude and optimism (Emmons & McCullough, 2003; McCullough, Emmons, & Tsang, 2002; Rash, Matsuba, & Prkachin, 2011), hope (McCullough et al., 2002) and life satisfaction and happiness (Rash et al., 2011). McCullough et al. (2002) report moderate positive correlations between gratitude and optimism (r = .28 - .58) as well as for gratitude and the two factors of hope (r = .18 - .67). Considering the connection of gratitude to some of the PsyCap components and its actual consideration as a component itself we expect a moderate positive correlation of gratitude with the CPC-12.

Personality

A proactive personality is desirable at an individual level predicting life satisfaction (Cunningham & De La Rosa, 2008), but also from an organization's perspective as it is for example positively related to job performance (Crant, 1995). It means for a person to have an enhanced ability and desire to control the surrounding environment in an active, self-determined way and these control tendencies facilitate effective coping with occupational stressors (Cunningham & De La Rosa, 2008), thus showing similarities to resilience.

Optimism also seems closely related to proactive attitude. Schmitz and Schwarzer (1999) identify optimistic expectancy as the quintessence of the construct and describe proactive people as considering life to be full of opportunities. They furthermore associate proactive attitude with Bandura's self-efficacy, deeming the two to be very similar constructs (Schmitz & Schwarzer, 1999). We therefore expect a moderate to high positive correlation between proactive attitude and the CPC-12.

The "Big Five" personality traits extraversion (r = .36) and conscientiousness (r = .39) reportedly show the strongest relationship with PsyCap. The correlation of agreeableness with PsyCap (r = .06) is unremarkable, whereas openness (r = -.1) and neuroticism (r = -.12) show marginal negative correlations (Dawkins et al., 2013; Luthans et al., 2007). The positive correlation with extraversion seems logical as it has also been found to be positively related to positive affect, life satisfaction and happiness (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

Looking at some of the PsyCap components respectively, one study testing the relationship of resilience with personality traits found a strong positive correlation with extraversion (r = .61) and conscientiousness (r = .45) as well as a strong negative correlation with neuroticism (r = -.65). The correlation with agreeableness was unremarkable, but there was a small positive correlation with openness (r = .20) (Campbell-Sills, Cohan, & Stein, 2006). The strong negative relationship with neuroticism measures up to one's expectations. Neurotic people are vulnerable to emotional distress and susceptible to negative emotions and poor coping (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Campbell-Sills et al. (2006) explain the strong positive relationships to extraversion as likely reflecting "the benefits of positive affective style, capacity for interpersonal closeness, and high levels of social interaction and activity" (p. 594). They furthermore explicate that the positive relationship with resilience can be fully explained by the tendency of conscientious people to use task-oriented coping. Taking all these findings together we expect a similar pattern of correlations between the "Big Five" and the CPC-12, moderate positive correlations with extraversion and conscientiousness, a moderate negative correlation with neuroticism, a small correlation with openness and no correlation with agreeableness.

Study 1

Methods

Participants and Procedure

Study 1 consisted of a total of 334 participants. Thirteen people were excluded from the analysis (six due to implausible or missing job description e.g. "xxx", seven due to implausible tenure). The remaining 321 participants averaged 34.89 years (SD = 12.78), 60% were women and 76.6% were employees, 8.4% were self-employed and 13.7% temporary workers. Participants worked on average 33.79 hours a week (SD = 13.39) and had been employed for half a month to 43 years (Memployment = 7.91 years, SD = 9.72). 48% of the participants were in possession of a university degree and another 25% graduated with the general qualification for university entrance. Participants were recruited by publishing the link to the survey in several online social media groups. The survey was conducted in German. All participants were volunteers, no compensation was supplied.

Materials

All scales were surveyed using a 6-point response format ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 6 = "strongly agree" in order to minimize potential effects of different response formats on the new scale.

Hope. Hope was evaluated using the six item short version of the State Hope Scale (SHS, Snyder et al., 1996). The German version of this scale was derived by translating the original version of the State Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1996) into German (including a retranslation for verification purposes) according to the guidelines for cross-cultural adaptation proposed by Guillemin, Bombardier and Beaton (1993).

Optimism. Optimism was evaluated using two different scales. (a) The affective valence of the orientation towards the future-questionnaire (Affektive Valenz der

Zukunftsorientierung, AFF, Brandtstädter & Wentura, 1994) with five items including one inverted item. Cronbach's α of the AFF was .82. (b) The revised German version of the Life Orientation Test (LOT-R, Glaesmer, Hoyer, Klotsche, & Herzberg, 2008) with ten items (four filler items and three items respectively tapping the subscales optimism and pessimism; (see also Herzberg, Glaesmer, & Hoyer, 2006).

Resilience. Resilience was assessed using the German thirteen item short version of the Resilience Scale (RS-13, Leppert, Koch, Brähler, & Strauß, 2008).

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was evaluated using two different measures. (a) The German General Self Efficacy Scale (GSE, Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1999) with ten items. (b) The German ten item short version of the Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (OSE, Schyns & von Collani, 2002).

Psychological Capital. PsyCap was surveyed using the German version of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (Luthans et al., 2007) with 24 items. Six items each measured the four subscales hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy.

Construction of Compound-Psychological-Capital-Scale. The five selected scales (SHS, AFF, LOT-R, RS-13, and GSE) constitute the pool of items from which the Compound-Psychological-Capital questionnaire (CPC-12) was developed. All four constructs (i.e., hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy) should have equal weight; hence, the best three items of each construct in terms of content and face validity were taken into account. Furthermore, following the concept of rational construction (Moosbrugger & Kelava, 2007), only those items were included which met our claim of universality and are therefore not solely relevant to the workplace. All scales for the item pool were included in this study in their full length to be able to control their correlations comparing PCQ and CPC-12.

Data analysis

The fit of all tested structural equation models was examined using the criteria proposed by Hu and Bentler (1999). Beyond χ^2 significance testing these criteria comprise a standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) ≤ 0.08 in combination with at least one of the following fit indices: a root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) ≤ 0.06 , a lower bound of the 90% confidence interval of the RMSEA ≤ 0.06 , a comparative fit index (CFI) ≥ 0.95 , or a Tucker-Lewis-index (TLI) ≥ 0.95 . The Satorra-Bentler adjusted χ^2 was calculated to adjust for non-normal distributions of the variables (Finney & DiStefano, 2013). The confirmatory factor analyses were conducted using the "lavaan" package (Rosseel, 2012) of R statistical software (R Core Team, 2014). Due to forced choice in the standardized questionnaires there was no missing data.

Results

Table 2.1 presents descriptive statistics, Cronbach's α and the correlation matrix for the study variables. The strong but not perfect positive relationship (r = .70, p < .001) between the PCQ and the newly created CPC-12 alludes to the measurement of a similar but not identical construct. As hypothesized the correlation between CPC-12 and general self-efficacy is higher compared to the PCQ, while the correlation between CPC-12 and occupational self-efficacy is lower compared to the PCQ.

Table 2.2 exhibits measurement models for all selected scales, including the PCQ measure for PsyCap. To examine the expected factorial structure of the PCQ, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). We began by fitting this model with the six items for each facet (i.e., hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy) and then fit each of the four

dimensions to the higher-order PsyCap. The estimates of model fit (SRMR = .062, RMSEA = .061, CFI = .841) are not acceptable according to Hu and Bentler (1999).

To confirm the expected higher-order factor of PsyCap in the CPC-12, we conducted a CFA on the data analogous to the one above. We began by fitting this model with three items for each facet (i.e., hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy) and then fit each of the four dimensions to the higher-order PsyCap. Results indicated the following estimates of model fit: SRMR = .046, RMSEA = .042, CFI = .962. The model seems to be a very good fit with all three indices meeting the cutoff criteria by Hu and Bentler (1999).

Furthermore, each of the factor loadings was significant on their respective latent factor at p < .01 (Figure 2.1). The confirmatory factor analysis in Study 1 supports the proposed higher-order factor structure for the newly created PsyCap measure CPC-12.

Study 2

Methods

Participants and Procedure

Sample 2 consisted of a total of 202 participants (82.7% employees, 9.4% self-employed, and 7.9% temporary workers) between 18-72 years ($M_{age} = 37.79$, SD = 13.10). 72.3% were female. Participants worked on average 35.74 hours a week (SD = 11.18) and had been employed for one month to 45 years ($M_{employment} = 9.37$ years, SD = 9.74). 35.1% were in possession of a university degree and another 25.2% graduated with the general qualification for university entrance. Participants were recruited by publishing the link to the survey in several social media groups. The survey was conducted in German. All participants were volunteers, no compensation was supplied.

Materials

Psychological capital. PsyCap was measured with the CPC-12 (Study 1), using a 6-point response format ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 6 = "strongly agree".

Positive and negative affect. PA and NA were evaluated using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Participants responded with 20 items to the question asking how they felt "during the past two weeks" (1 = "very slightly or not at all" to 5 = "very much"). Ten items measured positive affect (e.g. excited, attentive) and ten items measured negative affect (e.g. guilty, afraid). The items were arranged randomly.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using three items (Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; Judge & Klinger, 2008). The first item measured general job satisfaction ("All things considered are you satisfied with your job?"), which participants were able to answer with "yes" or "no". The second item ("How satisfied are you with your job in general?") was rated using a 5-point scale from 1 = "very dissatisfied" to 5 = "very satisfied". The third item asked participants to rate the percentage of time they feel satisfied, unsatisfied or neutral with their job in general (e.g. "The percent of time I feel satisfied with my present job."). The analysis was conducted using the mean-score of the z-standardized items.

Scale (Schumacher, 2003), using a 5-point response format ranging from 1 = "strongly agree" to 5 = "strongly disagree". Participants rated five given statements (e.g. "I am satisfied with my life.").

Subjective well-being. The standardized z-scores of the four previously described scales were averaged to create subjective well-being. PA, NA and satisfaction with life were

included because Arthaud-Day, Rode, Mooney, and Near (2005) found the three-factor model of subjective well-being consisting of PA, NA and life satisfaction to be superior to any other two- or one-factor model and the best fit to their data. Job satisfaction was then included to add a domain-specific focal point on work (Judge & Klinger, 2008; Pavot, 2008) for the comparability to previous studies on well-being and PsyCap.

Perceived social support. A short version of the Perceived Support Questionnaire (Kliem et al., 2014) was used to measure perceived social support. Using a 5-point response format ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree" participants had the possibility to rate to what extent the six given statements (e.g. "There is someone very close to me whose help I can always count on.") fit their own lives.

Meaning of work. The Work and Meaning Inventory (Steger, Dik, & Duffy, 2012) was used to measure meaning of work. Using a 5-point response format ranging from 1 = "absolutely untrue" to 5 = "absolutely true" participants rated to what extent the ten given statements (e.g. "My work helps me make sense of the world around me.") applied to them.

Engagement. To measure engagement the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Balducci, Fraccaroli, & Schaufeli, 2010) was used. Given a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 7 = "always" participants were asked to rate nine presented statements (e.g. "I am immersed in my job.").

Gratitude. Gratitude was evaluated using the Gratitude-Questionnaire (McCullough et al., 2002). Given a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree" participants were asked to rate to what extent the six presented statements (e.g. "I have so much in life to be thankful for.") applied to them.

Proactive attitude. The Proactive Attitude Scale (Schmitz & Schwarzer, 1999) was used to measure proactive attitude. Using a 4-point response format ranging from 1 = "not at

all true" to 4 = "exactly true" participants rated to what extent the eight given statements (e.g. "I can choose my own actions.") applied to them.

"Big Five". The five personality traits extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness were assessed using the Big Five Inventory (BFI-S, Gerlitz & Schupp, 2005). Participants rated 15 statements (e.g. "I see myself as someone who is outgoing, sociable.") on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 = "does not apply to me at all" to 7 = "applies to me perfectly".

Data Analysis

The fit of all tested structural equation models was examined using the same criteria as presented in study 1 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). According to these indices the model for subjective well-being, which consisted of four independent constructs, showed an acceptable fit when tested for the unidimensional character of the compound variable using CFA (Satorra-Bentler- χ^2 (2, 202) = 4.172, p <.125, CFI = .957, SRMR = .035, RMSEA = .073, CI_{RMSEA} = .00 - .15).

The data analysis was run using the statistical software R (R Core Team, 2014). The confirmatory factor analyses were conducted using the "lavaan" package (Rosseel, 2012), other used packages were "Hmisc" (Harell, with contributions from Dupont and many others, 2015) and "pastecs" (Grosjean & Ibanez, 2014).

We used multiple imputation methods (Enders, 2010) to impute the three missing item responses prior to the statistical analysis. This maximizes power (Gottschall, West, & Enders, 2012) and produces accurate parameter estimates (Enders, 2013).

Results

Results of the CFA for the CPC-12 indicated the following estimates of model fit: Satorra-Bentler- χ^2 (50, 202) = 72.32, p <.021, CFI = .955, SRMR = .052, RMSEA = .047,

 $CI_{RMSEA} = .022 - .068$. All the indices can be deemed to be a good model fit according to Hu and Bentler (1999).

Table 2.3 presents descriptive statistics, Cronbach's α and bivariate correlations for the variables of study 2. All correlations are according to our hypotheses. Subjective well-being (r = .58), proactive attitude (r = .57) and positive affect (r = .54) showed the highest positive correlations, agreeableness showed no substantive correlation with the CPC-12, neuroticism and negative affect showed negative correlations.

Limitations

The following limitations should be kept in mind when interpreting the results. All participants were recruited online, which entails that findings may not generalize to people not using the internet or social networks. Although Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava and John (2004) agree that data from the internet is not free of methodological constraints, they do emphasize that samples using online recruitment are as diverse, adjusted, at least as good in quality as most traditional methods and "not as flawed as is commonly believed" (p. 102). The use of a nonprobability sample in this study raises further concerns about generalizability.

In addition, the scales for gratitude (α = .68) and proactive attitude (α = .67) lack reliability (smaller than .70). Results should therefore be considered with caution. The same caution should apply to the five personality traits as they also lack reliability. We found low merits for conscientiousness (α = .55), openness (α = .59) and agreeableness (α = .37), the latter being extremely low.

Discussion

Since its emergence in 2004, the construct of PsyCap is assessed using the PCQ as the standard measure in more than 14 countries and languages, along with slight alterations of the scale to match the target group's needs (Luthans, Youssef-Morgan, & Avolio, 2015). The

domain-specific measure itself is tied to the working world, although studies indicate associations with psychological constructs important for students, the unemployed, and retirees alike (Baron et al., 2013). Therefore, the aim of this study was to develop and validate a German compound measure for PsyCap, with the general claim of being applicable to all domains of life.

According to our results, the CPC-12 fits the proposed model of PsyCap very well. The four subscales hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy are identifiable as subcomponents of the overall measure while the higher-order factor can incrementally explain additional variance in the data. The moderate to high correlations to other work-related (MOW, job satisfaction and engagement; r = .28 - .40) and more general constructs of positive psychology (i.e. subjective well-being, proactive attitude, and gratitude; r = .22. - .58) are comparable to previous research on PsyCap and speak for the external validity of the CPC-12. The results indicate that PsyCap could in fact be a general construct and applicable to more areas than POB. By abstaining from items with work related connotations, the CPC-12 can be applied to many fields of interest, i.e. sports and education. Due to its correlations with work-related constructs being close compared to the PCQ, the CPC-12 is also an alternative in work-related research for areas where the item wordings of the PCQ might not be suitable, i.e. volunteering or small organizations. It is important to notice that while the CPC-12 is a short and economic way to measure PsyCap we recommend using the original scales we used for the item pool if a specific sub-facet is the key area of interest.

Future Directions

To achieve these desirable outcomes future research should address the implementation of interventions to increase PsyCap. Although PsyCap is open to development and has already been proven to be alterable through interventions (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006; Luthans, Norman, et al., 2008), organizations to date

still fail to increase their efforts to enhance this underemphasized positive core construct. We go even further and propose to not only implement PsyCap interventions at the work place, but at schools, universities, or even in families. These interventions can be done on the group-level or as tailored training interventions on the basis of individual scores. With the CPC-12 we provide a reliable tool to measure those individual PsyCap scores in many domains of life. To be able to reasonably interpret the scores the quality criterion of standardization of the CPC-12 will have to be addressed to create up-to-date norms and to define the population to which they apply. The generalizability of the CPC-12 should be re-evaluated using different samples in other life-domains.

All in all, PsyCap seems to be multifarious and connected to a wide variety of other positive psychological constructs. High correlations with well-being, life satisfaction or job satisfaction make a case for PsyCap to become a focus of prospective research in positive psychology. We believe that people high in PsyCap are more likely to lead flourishing lives and probably even more likely to build a flourishing society.

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Table 2.1.Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations for study 1

			D	Норе	Opti mism (AFF)	Opti mism (LOT-R)	Resili ence	Gener al Self-Efficacy	Occu pational Self- Efficacy	PsyC ap (PCQ)	PsyC ap (CPC-12)
	Норе	.25	.04	.84							
(AFF)	Optimism	.83	.99	.49***	.82						
(LOT-R)	Optimism	.41	.04	.44***	.58***	.74					
	Resilience	.64	.91	.56***	.46***	.41***	.79				
Efficacy	General Self-	.22	.86	.55***	.42***	.35***	.70***	.88			
Self-Effic	Occupational cacy	.29	.93	.56***	.47***	.39***	.56***	.67***	.85		
(PCQ)	PsyCap	.51	.03	.61***	.56***	.55***	.59***	.55***	.77***	.92	
(CPC-12)	PsyCap)	.44	.99	.79***	.65***	.53***	.80***	.82***	.71***	.70***	.82

Notes: Cronbach's α is displayed diagonal; AFF = Affektive Valenz der Zukunftsorientierung (Affective valence of the future orientation), LOT-R = Life Orientation Test – Revised, PsyCap = Psychological Capital, PCQ = Psychological Capital Questionnaire, CPC-12 = Compound Psychological Capital Scale.; p-scores: *<.05, **<.01, ***<.001.

Table 2.2. *Measurement models for study 1 using MLM estimator*

	N factors	X ²	df	p	SRMR	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	RMSEA 90%-CI
PsyCap (PCQ)	4+g	549.04	248	<.001	.062	.823	.841	.061	.055068
PsyCap (CPC	C- 4+g	77.727	50	.007	.046	.950	.962	.042	.024058

Notes: PsyCap = Psychological Capital, PCQ = Psychological Capital Questionnaire, CPC-12 = Compound Psychological Capital Scale.

Table 2.3.Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations for study 2

	M	SD	PsyCap (CPC-12)	SWB^a	PA	NA^b	JSa	LS	PSS	MoW	Eng	Grat	ProA	Con	Extr	Neur	Open	Agree
PsyCap (CPC-12)	4.54	0.50	.81															
SWB^a	O^a	0.68^{a}	.58***	-														
PA	3.40	0.60	.54***	.64***	.86													
NA	4.22	0.62	25***	68***	16*	.64												
JS^a	0^a	0.81^{a}	.40***	.70***	.30***	33***	.72											
LS	3.74	0.63	.39***	.71***	.29***	38***	.27***	.74										
PSS	4.42	1.3	.22**	.41***	.14	35***	.18*	.47***	.87									
MoW	3.64	0.76	.28***	.50***	.38***	25***	.43***	.30***	.16*	.91								
Eng	4.77	0.65	.39***	.60***	.51***	24***	.52***	.38***	.21**	.70***	.95							
Grat	5.88	0.8	.27***	.43***	.26***	23***	.22**	.46***	.45***	.30***	.33***	.68						
ProA	3.07	0.39	.57***	.54***	.39***	35***	.30***	.46***	.48***	.41***	.48***	.48***	.67					
Con	5.48	0.89	.29***	.34***	.29***	27***	.17*	.19**	.17*	.24***	.37***	.16*	.35***	.55				
Extr	5.12	1.11	.24***	.22**	.18*	20*	.05	.17*	.30***	.22**	.31***	.25***	.34***	.18*	.70			
Neur	3.96	1.21	49***	35***	20**	.34***	17*	24***	20**	17*	23***	16*	37***	12	19**	.70		
Open	5.19	1.04	.20**	.21**	.24***	13	.10	.10	.18**	.32***	.33***	.25***	.30***	.19**	.37***	08	.59	
Agree	5.34	0.88	.04	.14*	.02	13	.07	.18**	.23**	.17*	.17*	.24***	.19**	.18*	.02	.06	.11	.37

Notes: Cronbach's α s are displayed diagonal; CPC-12 = Compound Psychological Capital Scale, SWB^a = aubjective well-being, PA = positive affect, NA = negative affect, JS^a = job satisfaction, LS = satisfaction with life, PSS = perceived social support, MoW = meaning of work, Eng = engagement, Grat = gratitude, ProA = proactive attitude, Con = conscientiousness, Extr = extraversion, Neur = meuroticism, Open = openness, Agree = agreeableness; p-scores: * <.05, **<.01, ***<.001. *a standardized z-scores

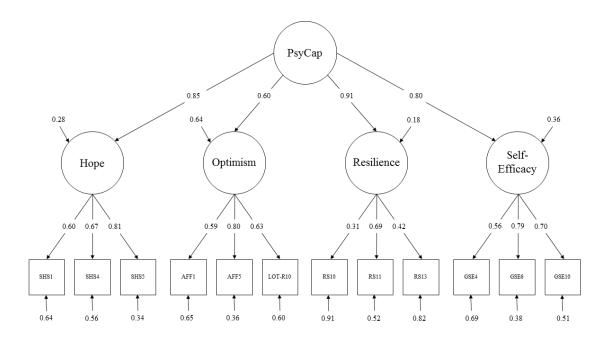


Figure 2.1. Four (plus g-) factor measurement model for Psychological Capital. Abbreviated items refer to Appendix.

Appendix

CPC-12 Scale (German)

- Sollte ich mich in einer Zwickmühle befinden, würden mir viele Auswege einfallen.
 (SHS1)^a
- 2. Im Moment betrachte ich mich als recht erfolgreich. (SHS4)^a
- 3. Mir fallen viele Strategien ein, um meine derzeitigen Ziele zu erreichen. (SHS5)^a
- 4. Ich freue mich auf das Leben, das noch vor mir liegt. (AFF1)^b
- 5. Die Zukunft wird für mich viel Gutes mit sich bringen. (AFF5)^b
- Alles in allem erwarte ich, dass mir mehr gute als schlechte Dinge widerfahren.
 (LOT-R10)^c
- Ich kann mich auch überwinden, Dinge zu tun, die ich eigentlich nicht machen will.
 (RS10)^d
- 8. Wenn ich in einer schwierigen Situation bin, finde ich gewöhnlich einen Weg heraus. $(RS11)^d$
- 9. Ich kann es akzeptieren, wenn mich nicht alle Leute mögen. (RS13)^d
- 10. In unerwarteten Situationen weiß ich immer, wie ich mich verhalten soll. (GSE4)^e
- 11. Wenn ein Problem auftaucht, kann ich es aus eigener Kraft meistern. (GSE10)^e
- 12. Schwierigkeiten sehe ich gelassen entgegen, weil ich mich immer auf meine Fähigkeiten verlassen kann. (GSE6)^e

CPC-12 Scale (English)

- 1. If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it.^a
- 2. Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful.^a
- 3. I can think of many ways to reach my current goals.^a
- 4. I am looking forward to the life ahead of me.^b
- 5. The future holds a lot of good in store for me.^b
- 6. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.^c
- 7. Sometimes I make myself do things whether I want to or not.^d
- 8. When I'm in a difficult situation, I can usually find my way out of it.d
- 9. It's okay if there are people who don't like me.d
- 10. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.^e
- 11. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.^e
- 12. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.^e

Notes: ^a State Hope Scale (SHS), ^b Affective Valence of the Orientation towards the Future-Questionnaire (AFF), ^c Life-Orientation-Test (LOT-R), ^d Resilience Scale (RS-13), ^e The General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE)

Chapter 3

Well-being and labor: Do resilience and meaning of work buffer the job demands of midwives?*

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Abstract

Working conditions are worsening for midwives in Germany, yet many remain in the profession and even report high job satisfaction. According to the Demand-Induced Strain Compensation model, high job demands and lack of job resources lead to reduced subjective well-being and sickness. However, personal resources could diminish this impact. The present study investigated the influence of resilience and meaning of work on the impact of cognitive, emotional and physical job demands and job resources on subjective well-being (composed of positive affect, negative affect, life satisfaction, and job satisfaction) of 550 midwives. For multiple regression analysis three models were created, each including job resources and job demands on qualitative equivalent dimensions. In all models, the results provide evidence for an effect of resilience and meaning of work on the subjective well-being. Further investigations of resilience of midwives and developing interventions to foster resilience are discussed.

Keywords: resilience, meaning of work, subjective well-being, midwives, job demands

Well-being and labor: Do resilience and meaning of work buffer the job demands of German midwives?

Introduction

Understaffing, inadequate income, shift-work, insufficient time for women and for completing their duties are just a few of the adversities midwives across Europe deal with on a daily basis (e.g. Ball, Curtis & Kirkham, 2002; Glass, 2009; Knezevic et al., 2011). In 2011, 61% of all midwives working in Germany were exclusively self-employed, earning around 7.50€per hour while the costs for professional indemnity saw a 56% increase in 2010 and another 15% increase in 2012, while the mean working hours went up as well (Albrecht, Loos, Sander, Schliwen, & Wolfschütz, 2012). High costs for professional indemnity seem to be an issue in Germany alone, although the Directive 2011/24/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 9 March 2011 on the application of patients' rights in cross-border healthcare requires that all health care professionals giving direct patient care while working in the EU have indemnity insurance for registration. Still many countries do have a different liability system compared to Germany: The claims do not come through to the individual practitioners but the social security fund will provide lifetime care, for example in cerebral palsy (e.g. the Netherlands).

Yet even though working conditions for midwives in Germany have worsened during the last decade, there still are women and men who would not even consider any job other than attending to families before, during and after birth (Kirkham, Morgan, & Davies, 2006).

Midwives in other European countries report similar obstacles and working conditions (Büscher, Sivertsen & White, 2009), but in general report fewer self-employed midwives than Germany, e.g. according to the survey of the Ordre de sages-femmes (2010) the percentage of self-employed midwives in France was 15%.

Why then are most European midwives still happy with their profession? The present study examines resilience and meaning of work as possible moderator variables on the

connection of German midwives job demands and resources in order to shed light on this question.

The Demand-Induced Strain Compensation (DISC) Model (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003) offers the opportunity of conceptualizing occupational stress of midwives. In the DISC Model, job demands, job resources and their outcomes subjective well-being (SWB) and health represent a multidimensional construct consisting of cognitive, emotional and physical dimensions (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003). According to the 'Triple-Match Principle' (TMP), only when job demands, job resources and the outcomes counteract on the same qualitative dimension, can job resources buffer the impact of job demands on well-being and health (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003, 2006; de Jonge, Demerouti, & Dormann, 2014). When job demands and job resources are balanced, well-being and health ensue (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003; Van de Ven, 2011). People aim for subjective well-being (SWB) as one of the most important goals in their lives (e.g. Diener, Sapyta, & Suh, 1998; Tay et al., 2015). SWB is not only associated with but can also lead to health and longevity (e.g. Diener, 2013; Diener & Chan, 2011; Xu & Roberts, 2010), positively influence social relationships (Diener, 2013; Tay & Diener, 2011) and increase work-related productivity and success (Erdogan, Bauer, Truxillo, & Mansfield, 2012).

An important resource to counteract work related stress is resilience (Erdogan et al., 2012; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Resilience as a multi-definitional construct (Heffron & Boniwell, 2011) is the personal ability to adapt well to adversity without any significant consequences on mental or physical well-being (Seery, Holman, & Silver, 2010). Bouncing back from negative emotional experiences not only moderates the impairments through stress (Tugade, Fredrickson, & Barrett, 2004; Wagnild & Young, 1993), but also leads to growth through adversity (McAllister & McKinnon, 2009; Richardson, 2002; Seery et al., 2010). Resilience might play a key role in the struggle with workplace adversity of health care professionals and midwives, as resilient individuals show more effective stress responses,

better recovery from self-depletion and have strategies to prevent future stress (e.g. Grafton, Gillespie, & Henderson, 2010; Hunter & Warren, 2014; Jackson, Firtko, & Edenborough, 2007; Lightsey, 2006; Richardson, 2002). Resilience can buffer the effects of workplace adversity on further outcomes, i.e. life satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1993) and well-being (e.g. Cummins & Wooden, 2014; Jackson et al., 2007; Souri & Hasanirad, 2011).

Individuals who experience their work as meaningful also report greater well-being (Arnold, Kelloway, McKee, Turner, & Barling, 2007; Steger, Dik, & Duffy, 2012) and job satisfaction (e.g. Steger et al., 2012). Still there is no agreement yet on what meaning of work (MOW) includes, hence there is no overall definition (Steger et al., 2012). Rosso, Dekas, and Wrzesniewski (2010) define meaningful work as work that has not only meaning for the people, but is also important and appreciated (meaningfulness). People search for psychological meaningfulness of their work, establish a meaning of life through work and seek to contribute something to the community or serve a greater good through their work (Steger et al., 2012). Living a calling (a perfect fit of an individual with his or her career) makes work ultimately meaningful and leads to global life satisfaction and job satisfaction (Duffy, Allan, Autin, & Douglass, 2014; Duffy & Dik, 2013; Hagmaier & Abele, 2014; Peterson, Park, Hall, & Seligman, 2009).

This study examines hypotheses regarding the influence of resilience and MOW as well as the impact of job demands and job resources on SWB. Following the '*Triple-Match Principle*' (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003, 2006; de Jonge et. al., 2014) three models of qualitative corresponding job resources and job demands – a cognitive (a), an emotional (b) and a physical model (c) - were created for testing the following hypotheses:

- (1) Resilience is positively related to the subjective well-being.
- (2) MOW is positively related to the subjective well-being.
- (3) Possessing job resources is positively related to the subjective well-being.

- (4) Perceived job demands are negatively related to the subjective well-being.
- (5) Job resources reduce the impact of job demands on subjective well-being.
- (6) Resilience reduces the impact of job demands on subjective well-being.
- (7) MOW reduces the impact of job demands on subjective well-being.

Methods

Participants and Procedure

All in all, 580 German midwives participated in this study. Thirty participants were excluded from the data set (one due to implausible response behavior with lack of variance in answers, 29 because of non-employment status), so that 550 midwives (women = 545, men = 2, other = 1, not specified = 2) between ages 19-65 (M_{age} = 38.87, SD_{age} = 11.02) were included in the analysis. Most midwives had achieved general qualification for university (64.7%), 19.5% had a secondary certificate, 12.7% had received a vocational diploma and 2.2% obtained their general qualification for university via second-chance education. 515 (93.6%) finished their apprenticeship, 51 (9.3%) had a Bachelor's degree, 21 (3.8%) received a polytechnic degree, 34 (6.2%) earned a university degree and 17 (3.1%) obtained any other vocational degree (e.g. alternative practitioner). 352 midwives worked full-time (64.0%), 172 (31.1%) worked part-time, 27 (4.9%) worked any minor employment, five (0.9%) worked irregularly and 17 (0.9%) worked during maternity-leave.

To guarantee access to midwives all over Germany, participants were recruited via internet. In detail, group administrators of German midwife groups in social networks were addressed to publish the link to the survey. Also midwives, birth centers, midwife organizations (i.e. Deutscher Hebammenverband, DHV; Bund freiberuflicher Hebammen Deutschlands e.V., BfHD e.V.; and Deutscher Fachverband für Hausgeburtshilfe, DFH) and executive midwives of several labor wards in Germany were contacted directly via email. The survey was administered in German. Participation was voluntary including informed consent, no compensation was supplied.

Assessments and Measures

Control variable. Due to the negative correlation between working hours and SWB (Spector et al., 2004; Hughes & Parkes, 2007, van Wanrooy et al., 2011) working hours per week were used as control variable in all models.

Job Demands and Job Resources. Job demands and job resources were evaluated using the Demands Induced Strain Questionnaire 1.1. German version (DISQ, Dormann et al., 2004). As this version of the DISQ only differed in one item from the DISQ 2.1. English version (de Jonge et al., 2009), this item was translated using the standard back-translation method (Geisinger, 1994) and the questionnaire was adapted to the target group of German midwives.

Cognitive, emotional, and physical job demands and job resources were measured via 32 items, to which the participants responded with a 5-point scale from $1 = 'not \ or \ very$ rarely' to $5 = 'very \ often \ or \ always'$ (e.g. 'Midwife X will have to make complex decisions at work'). Cronbach's alpha of the job demands scale was $\alpha = .90$ ($\alpha_{cog.} = .69$, $\alpha_{emo.} = .82$, $\alpha_{phy.} = .90$) and for the job resources scale was $\alpha = .85$ ($\alpha_{cog.} = .63$, $\alpha_{emo.} = .78$, $\alpha_{phy.} = .79$). The analysis was conducted using the standardized mean score of the DISQ.

Resilience. Resilience was evaluated using the Resilienzskala 13 (RS-13, Leppert, Koch, Brähler, & Strauß, 2008). Participants responded to 13 items with a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = `no, I do not agree' to 7 = `yes, I fully agree' (e.g. 'When facing a trying situation, I tend to find a solution.'). According to Pangallo, Zibarras, Lewis, & Flaxman (2014) the scale operationalized resilience on the higher order themes of adaptability and hardiness. The analysis was conducted using the standardized mean score of the RS-13 ($\alpha = .84$).

Meaning of Work. Meaning of work was evaluated via the Work and Meaning Inventory (WAMI, Harzer & Steger, 2012). Participants responded to ten items with a 5-point

scale ranging from 1 = 'absolutely untrue' to 5 = 'absolutely true' (e.g. 'I understand how my work contributes to my life's meaning. '). The analysis was conducted using the standardized mean score of the WAMI ($\alpha = .83$).

Subjective Well-Being. SWB was composed of the four factors positive affect, negative affect, life satisfaction, and job satisfaction to include a specific domain focus on work (Judge & Klinger, 2008; Pavot, 2008). The standardized *z*-scores of these scales were averaged to the SWB scale.

Positive and Negative Affect. Positive and negative affect was evaluated with the German version of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS, Krohne, Egloff, Kohlmann, & Tausch, 1996). Participants were asked to review how they felt during the last weeks in general using ten positive and ten negative adjectives with a 5-point scale from 1 = `very slightly or not at all'' to 5 = `extremely' (e.g. 'active'). The analysis was conducted using the standardized mean score of the PANAS ($\alpha_{\text{neg}} = .84$, $\alpha_{\text{pos}} = .86$).

Life Satisfaction. Life Satisfaction was evaluated using the German version of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWL-Scale, Glaesmer, Grande, Braehler, & Roth, 2011). Participants completed five items with a 7-point scale from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree' (e.g. 'In most ways my life is close to my ideal. '). The analysis was conducted using the standardized mean score of the SWL-Scale ($\alpha = .88$).

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured with three items (Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; Judge & Klinger, 2008). This scale consisted of one item asking participants to rate the percentage of time they are satisfied, unsatisfied or neutral with their job in general (e.g. 'The percent of time I feel satisfied with my present job... '), one item measuring their general job satisfaction ('All things considered are you satisfied with your job? ') which participants either answered with 'yes' or 'no' and a third item ('How satisfied are you with your job in general? ') rating the job satisfaction using a 5-point scale from 1 = 'very

dissatisfied to 5 = 'very satisfied'. The analysis was conducted using the mean-score of the z-standardized items ($\alpha = .77$).

Data analysis

We ran our data analysis using R (R Core Team, 2013) and the R-packages 'lavaan' (Rosseel, 2012), 'psych' (Revelle, 2015), 'boot' (Canty & Ripley, 2015; Davison & Hinkley, 1997), 'Hmisc' (Harrell, with contributions from Dupont and many others, 2015), 'QuantPsyc' (Fletcher, 2012), 'car' (Fox & Weisberg, 2012), and 'gvlma' (Peña & Slate, 2014).

The data was checked for the necessary prerequisites to conduct multiple regression analysis. While the variance inflation factor over all models and variables was good with scores between 1.08 – 1.52 (Eid, Gollwitzer, & Schmitt, 2010; p. 687; O'brien, 2007), homoscedasticity was not given and in addition the data was skewed (for both test statistic see Peña & Slate, 2006), thus the significance of the effects was bootstrapped with 10000 replications (Davison & Hinkley, 1997).

As SWB consisted of four independently measured constructs, we tested for the unidimensionality of the compound variable using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The Satorra-Bentler adjusted χ^2 was calculated to adjust for non-normal distributions of the variables (Finney & DiStefano, 2013). The fit was inspected using the criteria proposed by Hu and Bentler (1999). According to these indices the model for well-being showed a good fit (Satorra-Bentler- χ^2 (2, 550) = 23.5, p <.001, CFI = .986, SRMR = .018, RMSEA = .061, CI_{RMSEA} = .014-.114).

Results

Table 3.1 offers a general overview over the bivariate correlations, M and SD of all variables used in this study.

The models composed of cognitive, emotional or physical job demands and the respective job resources, resilience, meaning of work, and work hours as predictors of SWB

were tested using multiple regression analysis. For a complete overview of the results of these models see Table 3.2.

The results of the cognitive model are in favor of hypotheses 1a-4a and 6a and inconsistent with hypotheses 5a and 7a. The results of the emotional model are in favor of hypotheses 1b-4b and inconsistent with hypotheses 5b-7b. The results of the physical model are in favor of hypotheses 1c-3c and inconsistent with hypotheses 4c-7c.

Over all three models resilience ($\beta_c = 0.465$ - $\beta_p = 0.481$) and meaning of work ($\beta_e = 0.224$ - $\beta_c = 0.258$) show the greatest effect on well-being of midwives. While cognitive, emotional and physical job resources have a marginal to small statistically significant effect on well-being ($\beta_p = 0.063$ - $\beta_e = 0.113$), the interactions between the job demands and job resources ($\beta_p = 0.002$ - $\beta_c = 0.052$) have no effect.

Limitations

The results of this study should be interpreted with the following limitations in mind. First, the midwives were recruited and participated online. Therefore the study might have only reached certain midwives and lack generalizability. According to Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava and John (2004), however, the online recruitment should only be of marginal effect to the results. Second, the results of this study might only apply to midwives working in Germany because of specific health care regulations and the health care system (e.g. high costs for professional indemnity and high rate of self-employed miwifes). Testing the three models in a different country might lead to different results. Third, Cronbach's alpha of cognitive job demands ($\alpha_{cog} = .69$) and job resources ($\alpha_{cog} = .63$) is smaller than .70 and should therefore only be interpreted cautiously.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine whether resilience and MOW influence the impact of job demands and job resources on the SWB of midwives. Resilience, MOW and possessing fitting job resources are positively associated with the SWB of midwives in all

tested models. These results support main effects of previous research (e.g. Arnold et al., 2007; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Bakker, van Veldhoven, & Xanthopoulou, 2010; Cummins & Wooden, 2014; Jackson et al., 2007; Souri & Hasanirad, 2011; Steger et al., 2012). Furthermore, work hours show a statistically significant negative influence on SWB as predicted by results of past studies (Hughes & Parkes, 2007; Kleiner, Schunck, & Schömann, 2015; Rotenberg et al., 2008; Spector et al., 2004; van Wanrooy et al., 2011). Cognitive and emotional job demands show statistically significant negative effects on SWB, while physical job demands show no influence. Since previous studies tested the DISC-Model in nurses (e.g. de Jonge, Dormann, & van den Tooren, 2008) further investigation of the DISC-Model among midwives and therefore the impact of job demands on SWB is needed for fostering these results. Only in the cognitive model the interaction between MOW and job demands shows a statistically significant but negative influence on well-being. Those results might be originated in increased bureaucracy and documentation of the work processes as this involves a conflict of their work values and the core of their occupation - being with the women and families (Finlay & Sandall, 2009; Phillips, 2009; Shen, Cox, & McBride, 2004). According to Phillips (2009, p. 2), 'for many midwives being 'with the institution' was more likely than being 'with the woman' '.

Further the results of the present study do not support de Jonge and Dormann's (2006) assumption of the 'Triple-Match Principle' (TMP) and therefore do not support the 'buffer hypothesis'. The interactions between job demands and job resources on qualitative same dimensions do not lead to SWB. Daniels and de Jonge (2010) reported that 79% of all DISC-Model studies showed evidence in support of the TMP. So some, but not all studies investigating the key assumptions of the DISC-Model showed support of the TMP for all job resources and job demands, i.e. Van de Ven, de Jonge and Vlerick (2014) found no statistically significant interaction effects supporting the TMP among employees in the technology sector. However, as the TMP is considered a probabilistic principle (de Jonge et

al., 2008), Van de Ven (2011) does not examine missing evidence for the TMP in some studies to be counterevidence to the DISC-Model. Additionally, interaction effects between job demands and job resources are harder to find than main effects of job demands and job resources (van den Tooren, 2010), especially in homogenous samples (de Jonge & Kompier, 1997).

Future Directions.

Theoretical Implications. As the present data does not sufficiently support the TMP, another theoretical framework comes to mind: Following the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2001) the midwives in the present study might have been resilient because they reported SWB. Longitudinal studies with a representative sample of midwives in different career stages, a diverse range of clinical roles and different working conditions (Hunter & Warren, 2013) are needed to show the direction of SWB and resilience. Results from such studies could also show the development of resilience by attending students or newly qualified midwives over time.

Moreover, resilience might be more important for SWB of some professions than others. Further investigation of the resilience of professions in healthcare and other fields is needed to rank the resilience of the present sample and judge its importance for other professions. Resilience as a dynamic concept consisting of personal and environmental influences (e.g. Rutter, 2012) shows that external as well as internal factors influence SWB (Biggio & Cortese, 2013). Whether it is in fact internal or external factors that influence SWB to a greater extent needs further investigation.

The effect of resilient midwives on the women and families they work with might al become a focus of future studies. Also future studies should analyze resilience in European countries with different healthcare systems and thereby different working conditions (e.g. percentage of self-employed midwives).

Practical Implications. MOW can be developed using job crafting (e.g.

Albrecht, 2015). While job crafting employees actively change their job designs to gain more meaning and receive positive outcomes, i.e. resilience (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2013; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), it requires organizational and supervisory support (Albrecht, 2015) as well as transformational and empowering leaders (Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Since 60% of midwives in Germany are self-employed (Albrecht et al., 2012), these prerequisites become moot for the majority of the midwife workforce. Another possible way of enhancing meaning of work could be by building personal resources, i.e. psychological capital (e.g. Sweetman & Luthans, 2010; Albrecht, 2015) but this approach requires further evaluation.

Resilience on the other hand can be developed through work-based, educational programs (McAllister & McKinnon, 2009; McDonald, Jackson, Wilkes, & Vickers, 2012). Therefore resilience should be integrated into midwifery education and supervision (e.g. Hunter & Warren, 2013; Rodwell & Munro, 2013). As resilient midwives can function as a source of resilience for their colleagues (Hunter & Warren, 2013; McDonald et al., 2012), buddy systems or mentoring programs should be provided especially in 'critical moments', i.e. the first year of practice, after traumatic clinical events, when being subject of complaint or investigation (Hunter & Warren, 2013; Hodges, Keeley, & Troyan, 2008). Some studies attempted to establish interventions to promote resilience and career longevity for nurses and midwives (Grafton et al., 2010; Hunter & Warren, 2014; Jackson et al., 2007; McDonald, Jackson, Wilkes, & Vikers, 2013). A strong sense of professional identity (Hunter & Warren, 2013), protective self-management such as self-reflection, self-discovery (Hunter & Warren, 2013; McDonald et al., 2012), and self-care (Foureur et al., 2013; Grafton et al., 2010; Jackson et al., 2007) are individual factors that might foster resilience in midwives by social learning (Bandura, 1977; McDonald et al., 2012). There is currently little evidence however about the impact of these interventions (Hunter & Warren, 2014). Leppin et al. (2014) found

small to moderate effects of resilience trainings while stressing that they lack a formal structure and consistent theoretical basis. Before designing interventions to bolster resilience, we therefore need to define the construct of resilience more clearly and consistently to answer the question 'When is a midwife resilient?'.

Although organizational and political approaches and changes are urgently needed for fostering resilience in midwives (McDonald et al., 2012), the work of midwives will always include workplace adversities (Hunter & Warren, 2013). It is therefore important that midwives are able to manage their reactions to these circumstances.

Nevertheless a working environment that promotes resilience through facilitating work-life balance (Hunter & Warren, 2013; Jackson et al., 2007; McCann et al., 2013) and peer-support (Hodges et al., 2008; Hunter & Warren, 2013) is essential for building SWB and hope in workers who will then perform better and will rarely intend to leave their job (Erdogan et al., 2012). Building resilience can also potentially enhance the care midwives provide for women (Grafton et al., 2010; McAra-Couper et al., 2014). Hence, the SWB of midwives could lead to more SWB and health of families.

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Table 3.1.Summary of the bivariate correlations of all variables

Summary of the	c bivariaic	corretaine	nis oj ali vi	ariabics										
	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
(1) cog. JD.	4.18	.52	1											
(2) emo. JD.	3.39	.72	.59***	1										
(3) phy .JD.	3.42	.99	.51***	.52***	1									
(4) cog. JR.	3.47	.59	04	17***	18***	1								
(5) emo. JR.	3.27	.78	17***	28***	20***	.54***	1							
(6) phy. JR.	2.83	.89	31***	35***	53***	.49***	.49***	1						
(7) Res	5.54	.75	.08	.00	.06	.23***	.18***	$.11^{*}$	1					
(8) MOW	3.90	.57	05	10**	14**	.28***	.28***	.18***	.35***	1				
(9) PA	3.37	.64	.03	05	.04	.17***	.24***	$.09^{*}$.57***	.42***	1			
(10) NA (r)	1.91	.63	07	24***	10 [*]	.15***	.17***	.14***	.44***	.18***	.43***	1		
(11) LS	5.04	1.16	02	14**	04	.17***	.20***	$.10^{*}$.43***	.30***	.46***	.39***	1	
(12) JS	0.00^{a}	.83	11**	30***	20***	.34***	.32***	.26***	.24***	.40***	.36***	.43***	.39***	1
(13) SWB	0.00^{a}	.75	06	24***	10**	.28***	.31***	.20***	.56***	.44***	.75***	.75***	.75***	.73***

Note. cog. JD. = cognitive job demands, emo. JD. = emotional job demands, phy. JD. = physical job demands, cog JR = cognitive job resources, emo. JR. = emotional job resources, phy. JR. = physical job resources, Res = resilience, MOW = meaning of work, PA = positive affect, NA (r) = negative affect reversed, LS = life satisfaction, JS = job satisfaction, SWB = subjective well-being. ^a= standardized z-scores, *p < .05 *** p < .01 **** p < .001.

Table 3.2. *Results of bootstrapped multiple regression models on subjective well-being*

		bootstrapped		bootstrapp	ed 95% CI					
	b	SE	β	2,5%	97,5%					
Cognitive model (R ²										
Res	0.347	0.034	0.465	0.626	0.762					
MOW	0.192	0.035	0.258	0.316	0.453					
cog. JR	0.074	0.034	0.099	0.083	0.214					
cog. JD	-0.035	0.032	-0.047	-0.135	-0.007					
Workhours	-0.093	0.043	-0.104	-0.259	-0.089					
cog. JD*cog. JR	0.004	0.033	0.006	-0.055	0.072					
cog. JD*Res	0.039	0.037	0.052	0.006	0.150					
cog. JD*MOW	-0.053	0.034	-0.070	-0.173	-0.037					
Emotional model (R	$a^2 = .448$)									
Res	0.355	0.035	0.476	0.641	0.778					
MOW	0.167	0.036	0.224	0.266	0.406					
emo. JR	0.085	0.035	0.113	0.100	0.238					
emo. JD	-0.135	0.033	-0.181	-0.336	-0.204					
Workhours	-0.066	0.043	-0.074	-0.205	-0.038					
emo. JD*emo. JR	0.006	0.032	0.008	-0.050	0.074					
emo. JD*Res	0.020	0.035	0.027	-0.028	0.109					
emo. JD*MOW	0.008	0.035	0.011	-0.052	0.085					
Physical model (R ² =	Physical model $(R^2 = .407)$									
Res	0.359	0.035	0.481	0.649	0.786					
MOW	0.188	0.035	0.252	0.309	0.446					
phy. JR	0.047	0.038	0.063	0.019	0.170					
phy. JD	-0.034	0.039	-0.045	-0.144	0.008					
Workhours	-0.088	0.043	-0.098	-0.250	-0.080					
phy. JD*phy. JR	0.002	0.031	0.002	-0.057	0.063					
phy. JD*Res	0.041	0.034	0.054	-0.149	0.014					
phy. JD*MOW	0.009	0.034	-0.011	-0.086	0.052					

Note. MOW = Meaning of Work, Res = resilience, cog. = cognitive, emo. = emotional, phy. = physical, JD = Job Demands, JR = job resources, CI = confidence interval.

Chapter 4

Job barriers and autism: Comparing job-related barriers and possible solutions in and outside of autism-specific employment.*

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to identify expected and occurred barriers preventing individuals with autism from entering the job market and staying in the job as well as to identify the solutions to overcome these barriers. Moreover, possible effects of an autism-specific employment on general and occupational self-efficacy as well as life and job satisfaction were examined. Sixty six employed individuals with autism – 17 of them with autism-specific employment - participated in an online survey. Results showed a variety of possible barriers. Individuals in autism-specific employment named formality problems most frequently while individuals in non-autism-specific employment mentioned social problems most. In terms of solutions, both groups used self-solutions as much as external help, but a more specific categorization of their responses showed important differences. Additionally, self-efficacies were higher in participants in autism-specific employment while comparisons regarding life or job satisfaction showed no differences. Possible implications of the results are discussed with regard to problem solving behavior and the use of strengths.

Keywords: autism; life satisfaction; self-efficacy, job, employment, job satisfaction

Job barriers and autism: Comparing job-related barriers and possible solutions in and outside of autism-specific employment.

Introduction

Autism, from its first mention in the 1940s (Asperger, 1944; Kanner, 1943), has since become a condition arousing interest not only in researchers and the public media but in employers as well. Companies in the IT sector such as "specialisterne" in Denmark, "Passwerk" in Belgium or "auticon" in Germany specifically employ individuals with autism. However, as the Secretary General of the United Nations Ban Ki-moon pointed out recently, the overall majority of individuals with autism is still unemployed (Ban, 2015).

Autism

According to the fifth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-V), individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder (autism) show repetitive behavioral patterns and impairment in communication skills from early childhood on (American Psychological Association, 2013). The distinction between Autism Spectrum Disorder, Asperger's Syndrome and Pervasive Developmental Disorder not otherwise specified in the previous editions has thus been replaced by an umbrella category that includes all three forms while differentiating by severity within the category. For the sake of non-discriminating language, we will use the term "Autism Spectrum Condition" and refer to people concerned as individuals with autism throughout the remainder of this manuscript.

Prevalence for Autism Spectrum Condition varies, but it is currently best estimated at 74 out of 10.000 children (French, Bertone, Hyde, & Fombonne, 2013). There is a positive correlation with the prevalence and publication year of the study, which might stem from changes in the availability of diagnosis and services, or changes of criteria for diagnosis rather than from an actual increase in cases of Autism Spectrum Condition (French et al., 2013). Regardless, the importance of its related issues, like employment, rises with the prevalence.

Autism Spectrum Condition and employment

There is no all-embracing statistic as to how many individuals with autism are currently employed. So far, studies have usually assessed employment only in specific groups (Howlin, Alcock, & Burkin, 2005; Wehman et al., 2014), not permitting a broad generalization. An employment rate of one third has been found for young adults in the United States (Standifer, 2011) and for adults in the United Kingdom (Howlin, Goode, Hutton, & Rutter, 2004). The United Nations recently specified an employment rate of 20% (Ban, 2015).

A possible explanation for the low employment rate could be barriers during job search, job application or employment. Based on the outcome of their interviews, Müller, Schuler, Burton, and Yates (2003) identified such barriers in the categories of the application process (résumés, phone contact, interviews), the adaptation to new job routines, communication and social interaction.

Research on reasons for the low employment rates of individuals with autism has been limited up to now. To our knowledge, no study has been conducted that takes into consideration the expectations of individuals with autism, potentially preventing them from initiating the process of seeking employment, or the ways they overcame the barriers they encountered. Knowing these barriers and possible solutions could help start processes to reduce such barriers and initiate trainings to strengthen individuals with autism. This could help them get into the job and retain it.

A chance to overcome possible barriers or results of overcoming them could be constructs from the field of positive psychology. The concept of positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) and the strengths approach (Clifton & Harter, 2003) stress the importance of focusing on the positive capabilities of individuals rather than trying to erase weaknesses. Based on these theories we inquired how the individuals with autism

overcame the barriers they faced in order to identify important resources that can be used for practical application, i.e. to create a basis for potential interventions both at the workplace and in support programs. With the help of these findings and the results of the positive constructs we measured, we hope to both encourage employers and support workers to pave the way for the employment of individuals with autism.

Several forms of employment for individuals with autism have been established. Frequently mentioned are competitive employment (regular job without support, non-autism-specific employment), supported employment (competitive employment with support by the employer or an agency, autism-specific employment) and sheltered workshops (long-term placement for individuals with disabilities; see Capo, 2001 for an overview).

We sought to qualitatively compare the reports given by individuals in autism-specific employment with individuals with autism working in non-autism-specific employment. We saw this as a first step towards identifying barriers and solutions that could be quantitatively assessed in future research. In addition, our aim was to examine positive implications employment could have for individuals with autism in a supported competitive environment.

Self-efficacy

In research on people's behavior towards overcoming job barriers (e.g. Pinquart, Juang, & Silbereisen, 2003) as well as raising their life satisfaction (Weber, Ruch, Littman-Ovadia, Lavy, & Gai, 2013), one concept has been focused on: self-efficacy. It is a construct of social cognitive theory defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 94). Thus it is action-related and focuses on the future.

In neurotypical adults – those who show no divergence in neurological development viz. without autism (Attwood) - positive correlations have been found between self-efficacy

and work-related outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001), health outcomes (Holden, 1992) and subjective well-being (Magaletta & Oliver, 1999).

We assume that an autism-specific employment creates a more supportive environment than a non-autism-specific employment. As a result, this support may lead to higher self-efficacy because such employees are supported to experience mastery and receive verbal persuasion which are important sources of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Our hypotheses are:

- 1. Individuals with autism in autism-specific employment have a higher general self-efficacy than individuals with autism in non-autism-specific employment.
- 2. Individuals with autism in autism-specific employment have a higher occupational self-efficacy than individuals with autism in non-autism-specific employment.

Life and Job Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is a concept closely associated with subjective well-being (Diener, 1984). As opposed to the emotional components of subjective well-being, life satisfaction "should be viewed as a global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his own chosen criteria" (Shin & Johnson, 1978 p. 478).

Overall job satisfaction, as a measure of work-related subjective well-being, evaluates one's job affectively (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011). It has been closely related to one's overall satisfaction with life and job performance (Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994). To our knowledge no study on the relation between employment and life satisfaction or job satisfaction in individuals with autism has been conducted up to this point.

We assume that an autism-specific employment creates a better person-organization and person-environment fit than a non-autism-specific employment. As a result, this fit may lead to a higher life and job satisfaction (Jiang & Jiang, 2015; Judge, 1994; Kristof - Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). Supported employments have previously been found beneficial for individuals with autism, relating to improvement in

cognitive skills even outside the work domain (García - Villamisar & Hughes, 2007) and in quality of life (Billstedt, Gillberg, & Gillberg, 2010; García-Villamisar, Wehman, & Navarro, 2002). Our hypotheses are:

- 3. Individuals with autism in autism-specific employment have a higher life satisfaction than individuals with autism in non-autism-specific employment.
- 4. Individuals with autism in autism-specific employment have a higher job satisfaction than individuals with autism in non-autism-specific employment.

Methods

Participants and procedure

Participants in this study were recruited through autism community forums and through internal communication of the survey in an autism-specific company. Selection criteria for this study were as follows: (1) a formal diagnosis of autism and a score of ≥6 on the Autism Spectrum Quotient Test with 10 items (AQ-10) (Allison, Auyeung, & Baron-Cohen, 2012) and (2) current employment. 16 participants had to be excluded because they did not meet these selection criteria (14 due to a missing diagnosis, one due to a score of <6 on the AQ-10 and one due to being unemployed). The AQ-10 was conducted in order to affirm the self-reported diagnosis of autism. Since formal diagnosis of autism was a necessary criterion for employment at the autism-specific company, no AQ-10 was tested in this group.

Participants in this study were 66 German individuals with autism (females: 36; males: 29; other: 1). The participants' age ranged from 22 to 55 (M_{age} = 35.96; SD_{age} = 10.22). All participants were employed and their mean for organizational tenure was 4.68 years (SD = 6.55 years). 49 of them were in non-autism-specific employment and 17 in autism-specific employment. An overview of the occupational fields of all participants can be found in Table 4.1. All participants in the autism-specific company were employed in a company in the field of IT, thus they were sorted into the category of natural sciences, geography and computer science.

The survey was administered in German. Participation in this study was completely voluntary including informed consent. All individuals participated via an online survey they could take at a time of their liking. They were informed that their data was obtained and analyzed anonymously and that they could interrupt or stop the survey at any time.

Qualitative measures

Materials. We created a qualitative questionnaire with a total of 28 open-formatted questions. We constructed these questions forming eight thematic blocks about topics that might influence the employment process of individuals with autism. Some of these topics had been introduced previously in interviews with students and adults with work experience with autism (Camarena & Sarigiani, 2009; Müller et al., 2003). Our thematic blocks addressed the topics of the general process of job-seeking, drafting applications, contact with employers, job demands, the workday, workplace equipment, work environment, support mechanisms, and other problems than those mentioned.

In each thematic block we asked individuals (1) what problems they expected regarding the particular topic, (2) which problems actually occurred and (3), if applicable, how they had solved these problems. Distinguishing the most important problems from the most frequent ones is fundamental for possible practical implications. Hence we asked participants to identify the three problems which seemed most important to them, naming the most crucial first. An English version of the questionnaire can be found in appendix A.

Data analysis. Responses were analyzed using inductive category formation in QCAmap by Mayring (2014). All responses were reviewed and broad categories and subcategories were formed. These categories were the same for the expected and occurred problems. Different categories for the solutions were created. Tables 4.2 and 4.3 give an overview of the complete category system including definitions of categories and corresponding examples. In a next step, all responses were coded independently by three raters, with the instruction to note problems with the coding for a review of the category

system. Ambiguous categories were subsequently defined more explicitly and new categories were formed in order to relieve the "other" category. After a second coding the system was reviewed again for possibly scarce definitions. One category was eliminated because it was used disproportionately little by all raters and there was consent as to how these responses could be coded instead. We measured the agreement between the three raters using the Fleiss' Kappa coefficient for three or more raters as proposed by von Eye (2006). Our agreement was κ = .96 for expected barriers, κ =.93 for occurred barriers and κ =.89 for solutions, resulting in a high mean agreement of κ _{mean}=.92 (SD=0.03). All coding results depict the coding decisions of the main rater.

Answers were rated as irrelevant / not codeable (1) when they were not comprehensible, e.g. contained only special characters like a question mark or an incomplete word sequence, and (2) when they did not contain a response to the question, e.g. did not contain a barrier or a solution, respectively. The irrelevant answers in expected barriers (4%), occurred barriers (2%) and solutions (17%) were excluded from further analysis.

Ouantitative measures

Demographics. We collected data regarding age, gender ("male", "female", and "other" in order to include individuals that did not see themselves in one of the dichotomous categories), current employment and the tenure in the current job. The current employment was encoded into fields of occupation in accordance with the "Classification of occupations" (Klassifikation der Berufe, Bundesagentur für Arbeit, 2011).

General self-efficacy. General self-efficacy was assessed using the General Self-efficacy Scale developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). The scale consists of 10 items (e.g. "I have no difficulties realizing my intentions and goals.") with a four-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 = "I completely disagree" to 4 = "I completely agree". Cronbach's α was .88.

Occupational self-efficacy. Occupational self-efficacy was measured using the Occupational Self-efficacy Scale (Schyns & von Collani, 2012). The scale consists of 8 items

(e.g. "I have a solution for every problem at my job.") with a four-point Likert-scale ranging from $1 = "I \ completely \ disagree"$ to $4 = "I \ completely \ agree"$. Cronbach's α was .89.

Life satisfaction. Life satisfaction was measured with a German translation of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The scale consists of 5 items (e.g. "I am satisfied with my life.") with a five-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 = "I completely disagree" to 4 = "I completely agree". Cronbach's α was .91.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured with a German translation of three items proposed by Judge et al. (1994). The items were as follows: (1) a yes-no response to the question "All things considered are you satisfied with your job?", (2) a five-stage rating question "How satisfied are you with your job in general?" ranging from 1 = "very" unsatisfied" to 5 = "very" satisfied", and (3) an item were the participants reported the percentage of time they were satisfied, dissatisfied or neutral regarding their job. Due to their different response formats the items were standardized before further analysis. Cronbach's α was .85.

Control Items. In addition to the questionnaires, participants completed the following control items:

- (1) My quality of life has improved since entering my current employment. (improvement item)
- (2) A job is important for my quality of life. (job importance item)
- (3) I can use and hone my strengths in my current employment. (strengths item) Participants assessed their agreement with these statements on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 = "I completely disagree" to 5 = "I completely agree". These items were used in order to further determine possible underlying mechanisms of our expected trends and thus indicate a way for possible future research.

Data analysis

Due to the small sample size we decided to use Bayesian data analysis for more reliable results (Dunson, 2000; Kruschke, Aguinis, & Joo, 2012; Lee & Song, 2004) and nonnormal variables (Schoot et al., 2014). In Bayesian analyses the data is combined with reasonable prior knowledge about the parameter in question, which results in robust estimations even in small samples when traditional frequentist approaches yield large standard errors and thus statistically less stable results. Furthermore, the parameter distribution is not limited to be necessarily normal. From the data and the prior information, a so called posterior distribution of the parameter is estimated through Monte Carlo Markov chain methods (Kruschke et al., 2012; Schoot et al., 2014; Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). We ran our data analysis using R (R Core Team, 2013) with the R-package "Bayesian First Aid" (Bååth, 2014) and WinBUGS (Lunn, Thomas, Best, & Spiegelhalter, 2000). The package uses an non-informative prior with a very broad t-distribution for the t-test analysis (Kruschke et al., 2012) and follows Barnard, McCulloch, and Meng (2000) using separate priors on σ_x , σ_y and ρ with a uniform prior on ρ . This use of an uninformative prior allows the estimation to closely mimic classical frequentist estimation as the prior does not influence the results while resulting in more intuitive and robust inferences on parameters (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). Group differences in answer frequencies of open questions were evaluated by Bayesian inference test using binomial distribution. The posterior distribution were inspected to find the percentage in favor a difference hypothesis. In Bayesian correlations and t-tests we report mean scores of parameters as well as the 95% high density interval (HDI) which reports the range of 95% of the posterior distribution (Kruschke et al., 2012). It is important to note, that HDIs are not exactly the same as common confidence intervals, as the latter incorporate information on the impreciseness of the parameter estimation whereas HDIs reflect the parameter distribution itself (Kruschke et al., 2012; Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). Due to forcedchoice in the questionnaires there was no missing data. For correlation analysis with gender, the participant in the category "other" was eliminated from the dataset due to lack of representativeness.

Results

Qualitative results

Expected barriers. Participants gave a total of 242 answers to the question which barriers they expected before entering the job market. For individuals in non-autism-specific employment, the most frequent problem fell into the category of social problems of communication (15%), followed by the formality problems of equipment and environment (12%), work routines (10%), application process (10%) and qualification (8%) (see Table 4.4). Participants with autism-specific employment pointed out the formality problem of qualification as the most frequent problem (23%), then the social problem of communication (11%), followed by the formality problems of equipment and environment (9%), work routine (9%), and cognitive job demand problems (9%) (see Table 4.5). The ratio of the general categories in both groups can be seen in Table 4.6. Individuals with autism-specific employment expected more formality problems and more job demand problems, but less social problems than individuals with no such specific employment. Job demand problems were the least frequent in individuals in non-autism-specific employment, but not in individuals with autism-specific employment.

Occurred barriers. Participants named 357 barriers they encountered. The formality problem of equipment and environment was the most common one for individuals without (16%, see Table 4.4) and with autism-specific employment (18%, see Table 4.5). However, while this was followed by the social problem of communication (15%) and the formality problem of work routine (13%) in non-autism-specific employment, the second and third most frequent problems for individuals in autism-specific employment were also formality problems, namely application processes (16%) and work routines (12%).

For individuals in non-autism-specific employment the expectations and the occurrence of problems showed the same ratio of general categories (see Table 4.6). Individuals with autism-specific employment, however, faced more formality problems and less job demands and social problems than expected. They also faced fewer problems than they expected (59%) compared to individuals in non-autism-specific employment (72%, see Table 4.7). In a Bayesian inference test 95.8% of the posterior distribution are in favor of the difference.

Solutions. Two hundred sixty three solutions were named in total. The most frequent solution was external help from the work environment in individuals in non-autism-specific employment (22%, see Table 4.4). Individuals working in autism-specific employment however named the self-solutions communication (23%) and acceptance (21%) as their most frequent approach to solving problems, even before using external help from the work environment (18%, see Table 4.5). The overall proportion between self-solutions and external help was balanced in both groups (see Table 4.6). Yet in sum, individuals in autism-specific employment solved a slightly higher proportion of occurred problems (61%) than individuals in non-autism-specific employment (55%, see Table 4.7). In a Bayesian inference test, 78.1% of the posterior distribution are in favor of the difference.

Rating. Participants in non-autism-specific jobs rated the social problems as most important to them (43%), followed by formality problems (30%) and job demand problems (27%). These general categories had the same order in the second priority participants rated (50%, 37% and 13%, respectively). Yet in the third priority, formality problems were named most frequently (70%), then job demand problems (20%) and then social problems (10%).

Participants in autism-specific employment, however, put higher emphasis on formality problems (60%) than on social problems (40%) in the first priority. In the second priority, this ratio changes to 48% / 52%. Job demand problems are only mentioned as a third priority and are the most frequently named (48%), before formality problems (28%) and social problems (24%).

Quantitative results

Results for mean values and standard deviation as well as all bivariate correlations can be found in Table 4.8.

Demographics. There was a correlation between gender and occupational self-efficacy (r = -.29, see Table 4.8) with males tending to have higher occupational self-efficacy than females. The same tendency was seen for gender and general self-efficacy (r = -.20).

Self-Efficacy. General self-efficacy was correlated with the employment group (r = .28), general self-efficacy being higher with individuals in autism-specific employment. Results of the Bayesian t-tests are presented in Table 4.9. The t-test showed a mean difference of .40 with an effect of d = .67 between the individuals in non-autism-specific employment (M = 2.0, SD = .50) and in autism-specific employment (M = 2.4, SD = 0.66).

There was a correlation between occupational self-efficacy and the employment group (r=.24) insofar as individuals with autism-specific employment tended to have higher occupational self-efficacy. The t-test showed a mean difference of .39 with an effect of d = .59 between the individuals in non-autism-specific employment (M=2.3, SD=.68) and in autism-specific employment (M=2.7, SD=.62). Thus, the data speaks in favor of hypotheses 1 and 2.

Life satisfaction and job satisfaction. Life satisfaction in individuals in non-autism-specific employment (M = 2.6, SD = 1.10) showed a mean difference of .19, with the 95% high density interval crossing 0, with an effect of d = .18 from life satisfaction in individuals in autism-specific employment (M = 2.8, SD = 0.95).

There was also no difference between means, d=.01, for individuals in non-autism-specific employment and in autism-specific employment regarding job satisfaction. The data does not speak in favor of hypotheses 3 and 4.

Control Items. Correlations of all control items with general self-efficacy, occupational self-efficacy, life satisfaction, job satisfaction and the other control items were moderate to strong. The strengths item, asking whether personal strengths are used in current employment, showed the highest correlations, namely with general self-efficacy (r = .45), occupational self-efficacy (r = .48), life satisfaction (r = .62) and job satisfaction (r = .81).

Limitations

The results of this study should be interpreted with the following limitations in mind. First, the participants were recruited and participated online. Therefore, the study may have only reached certain individuals and lack generalizability. According to Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, and John (2004), however, the online recruitment should only be of marginal effect to the results. Also, all participants were employed and thus can only indicate a reflection of the individuals with autism that successfully applied for a job. Individuals who did not succeed were not part of the study. More concerns about generalizability are warranted because this study used a nonprobability sample. Furthermore, participants were all of German-speaking descent, and were therefore relatively ethnically homogeneous. The participants in the non-autism-specific employment sample were not diagnosed by means of a singular diagnostic method. Instead, they were asked to provide information about their autism diagnosis. Due to the strong variation within the diagnostic process, we had to rely upon the participants' self-reported data of an existing diagnosis.

Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to identify barriers individuals with autism might have faced and solutions they might have used in the process of entering the job market. We thereby also sought to examine positive work-related variables that could be of importance in the employment process.

In the first step of our study we identified a wide range of barriers that individuals with autism expected and encountered. Some of them, like filling out job applications, job

search, communication and interaction with supervisors had also been reported by Müller et al. (2003). By contrast, we created a system of perceived barriers that is both more general and more specific through its structure of general categories and sub-categories.

The higher frequency of social problems in non-autism-specific employment and of formality problems in autism-specific employment suggests a difference in the nature of the barriers individuals with autism encounter when entering the job market. The two groups did not just differ in the number of certain problems that occurred but also in how they rated their importance. Individuals with non-autism-specific employment rated social problems as more important than formality problems while the contrary occurred with individuals with autism-specific employment. In that regard, the most frequent problems were also seen as the most important ones. However, even though individuals in autism-specific employment faced more job demand than social problems, they rated job demand problems as less important. This is relevant because it shows that in practice, social problems should not be neglected when they are less frequent.

Our findings suggest that individuals in different employment face qualitatively different barriers. Hagner and Cooney (2005) found that supervisors reported direct communication as an important strategy for successful employment of individuals with autism. The use of this strategy might have led to the small number of communication problems for individuals in autism-specific employment. At the same time, their skill set not matching their job content (formality problem – qualification) might hinder successful long-term employment (Mawhood & Howlin, 1999). Problems concerning work routines occurred in both groups and could be solved by introducing more structure in schedule and responsibilities (Hagner & Cooney, 2005). Many participants of both groups also named the equipment and work environment as problems, criticizing e.g. the noise level in open-plan offices. Since many individuals with autism have shown high sensitivity to sensory input like noise and light (Alcántara, Weisblatt, Moore, & Bolton, 2004; Rimland & Edelson, 1995;

Russo, Zecker, Trommer, Chen, & Kraus, 2009; Talay-Ongan & Wood, 2000) and participants in our study frequently reported such problems, a reduction of distracting stimuli by creating individual workspaces seems important and necessary. All of these findings present some form of adaptation to the needs of individuals with autism. Hence we endorse the idea of Mawhood and Howlin (1999) that a successful approach towards employment of individuals with autism is based on an appropriate work setting and understanding of their individual needs.

Regarding solutions, we found different patterns in our two study groups that might provide further ideas for this approach. Individuals in autism-specific employment tended to solve occurring problems less with resignation and more with acceptance, communication and practice or further qualification. This is interesting, because impairment in communication is a core symptom of Autism Spectrum Condition (American Psychological Association, 2013) and has been named as a cause of difficulties in the employment process (Hendricks, 2010; Müller et al., 2003). Yet for participants in autism-specific employment this reported weakness was not just attenuated but even transformed into a resource of problem solving behavior. Maybe this was facilitated by being surrounded by peers or supervisor's adjustment towards more direct communication (Hagner & Cooney, 2005).

Communication, as well as the self-solutions acceptance and practice/qualification, matches the description of active coping given by Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989), as opposed to avoidance coping (methods of resignation and denial). Avoidance coping has shown to be less effective than active coping (Montgomery & Rupp, 2005) and correlates with psychological strains (Jex, Bliese, Buzzell, & Primeau, 2001). Active coping, however, has shown relations with optimism (Nes & Segerstrom, 2006), hope (Danoff-Burg, Prelow, & Swenson, 2004; Geffken et al., 2006) and resilience (Dumont & Provost, 1999; Maddi, 1999; Smith et al., 2008; Steinhardt & Dolbier, 2008). Thus these constructs, too, seem to be important strengths for active problem solving. It is for further studies to examine how

individuals with autism could identify their strengths, how they might relate to their coping behavior and how they might even pave the way for more long-term and prevention-oriented solutions (Spychala, 2009).

The second part of our study focused on positive correlates of employment and the type of employment in individuals with autism. Concerning the relation of employment groups with general and occupational self-efficacy, our results showed small correlations and medium effects between autism-specific employment and general and occupational self-efficacy.

These differences in self-efficacies between individuals with and without autism-specific employment could have been found for several reasons. A possible explanation might be, that self-efficacy is an effect resulting from employment in an autism-specific company. Its system of on-the-job support might create a protected environment in which employees are fostered and experience mastery. It has been suggested that self-efficacy is influenced by past experiences of mastering a situation and external appraisal (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004; Luthans, Youssef-Morgan, & Avolio, 2015; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Thus individuals in autism-specific employment might have had more of these experiences and were more positively appraised by supervisors or job coaches, resulting in a higher general and occupational self-efficacy. It might be that it is related to mastering the demanding entry process in the autism-specific company.

Furthermore, one could hypothesize that job demands in the autism-specific company, located in the IT sector, were particularly high, thus attracting only individuals already seeing themselves as very self-efficient. At the same time the autism-specific company aims at employing individuals with autism based on their strengths while being a regular competitive business. When their selection procedures are highly demanding and based on testing for relevant strengths, it is possible that the selected employees are those with highest cognitive capacities and also highest self-efficacies.

Our finding of a correlation between occupational self-efficacy and gender could serve as another explanation for the group differences, since only males were in autism-specific employment. However, we argue that the occupational field of this group as well as the gender might be responsible for this finding because neurotypical males show higher task-specific self-efficacy in tasks involving IT and computers (Durndell & Haag, 2002; Vekiri & Chronaki, 2008). Further assessment could evaluate whether the nature of task's relation to occupational self-efficacy is influenced by gender.

In our comparison of qualitative and quantitative results we saw that self-efficacy could also be linked to coping behavior. Jex et al. (2001) found the correlation of self-efficacy to be negative with avoidance coping and positive with active coping, which is consistent with our results. It would be important to examine the direction of this possible effect in order to see whether self-efficacy is a strength encouraging active coping or the result of effective coping experiences. In conclusion, we can only speculate for possible causal connections from our correlations. Only experimental or longitudinal studies can test the underlying mechanisms.

However, even though our results indicated that participants in autism-specific employment showed higher general self-efficacy than those in non-autism-specific employment, it is still to note that general self-efficacy is more than one standard deviation below the mean of neurotypical adults (M = 29.59, SD = 5.29, N = 18,000, based on the dataset of Schwarzer, 2015 compared to M = 22.17, SD = 5.82 in our total sample). This is also consistent with the findings of Lorenz and Heinitz (2014), who found differences of more than one standard deviation for general and occupational self-efficacy between individuals with autism and neurotypical individuals.

Factors influencing self-efficacy may be within individuals' control or outside of it (Luthans et al., 2015). Resources such as knowledge or skills can be used when available or can otherwise be acquired. One could suggest that individuals with autism have lower self-

efficacy because they have fewer resources. One could also suggest that acquisition of resources can prove more difficult for them than for neurotypical individuals, due to a lack of embodied empathy (Minio-Paluello, Baron-Cohen, Avenanti, Walsh, & Aglioti, 2009), possibly indicating impaired vicarious learning. Hence, some resources may be less controllable for individuals with autism.

As stated earlier, mastery of past experiences and external appraisal are potential antecedents of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans et al., 2015; Wood & Bandura, 1989). We argue that individuals with autism face many difficulties in education and work life (Chown & Beavan, 2012; Müller et al., 2003) and lack positive experiences of mastery because these problems are rarely solved by supporting parties (see Gerhardt & Lainer, 2011, for an overview). Moreover, stigma and subsequent focus on weaknesses as well as a lack of external appraisal of individuals with autism might also lower their self-efficacy, as it does in other groups facing prejudices (Inzlicht, McKay, & Aronson, 2006; Kleim et al., 2008).

General self-efficacy's positive relation with job performance (Judge & Bono, 2001; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), health (Holden, 1992) and subjective well-being (Magaletta & Oliver, 1999) was mentioned earlier. Its connection to life satisfaction, job satisfaction and improvement of quality of life (improvement item) has been indicated in our study. Self-efficacy is also a factor introduced by Luthans et al. (2004) as one of four components of the positive psychological capital, a construct recently suggested to be crucial in employee well-being and satisfaction (Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010). It therefore seems of high importance to thoroughly investigate the discrepancy in self-efficacy between individuals with and without autism. Furthermore, it may even extend the search for possible unused strengths to the other components of positive psychological capital, namely optimism, hope and resilience (Luthans et al., 2004).

While our results showed moderate to strong correlations of life and job satisfaction with general and occupational self-efficacy, respectively, employment groups only differed in both self-efficacies, but not in satisfaction. We argue that this is due to the high amount of problems in both groups, leading to a similar level of satisfaction. At the same time, even though the employment groups reported different types of occurred problems (i.e. more social or formality problems), their life and job satisfaction did not differ. Thus, quality of barriers may not influence satisfaction measures. What might influence satisfaction measures is one's personal evaluation of whether a job is important for one's quality of life (job importance item). We found that participants who evaluated their job as important for their quality of life had higher life satisfaction but not job satisfaction. Emphasizing on a job when evaluating quality of life may sensitize individuals with autism and trigger demands towards their job. Further research is needed to address possible implications of this finding on the employment of individuals with autism.

In sum, our two groups of individuals without and with autism-specific employment showed differences in quality of occurred barriers, quality of coping strategies, levels of general and occupational self-efficacy, but not in life or job satisfaction. Based on these findings we proposed a more customized approach to successfully employ individuals with autism. Employment should be based on their needs and their resources, which might also help them in coping actively with potential problems. This focus on strengths instead of deficits is crucial to our approach of positive organizational psychology and could not only facilitate concrete problem solving but also enhance self-efficacy.

However, before designing practical applications, the next aim must be to investigate barriers and solutions quantitatively in order to assess their relations to coping strategies, self-efficacies and life and job satisfaction. We are positive that the present study is one step towards a better understanding of possible employment and well-being for individuals with autism.

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 Table 4.1

 Current employment of individuals with autism

Classification according to KldB 2010 code	N	%
Agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, and horticulture	1	1.5
Production of raw materials	3	4.5
Construction, architecture, surveying, and building technology	2	3
Natural sciences, geography and computer science	25	38
Transportation, logistics, protection and security	2	3
Commercial services, retail, sales and distribution, hotels and tourism	7	10.5
Business organization, accounting, law and administration	9	13.5
Health care, social affairs, and education	12	18
Humanities, social sciences, and economic sciences, media, art, culture and design	5	8

Note. KldB = Klassifikation der Berufe (classification of occupations),

Table 4.2.Category system for responses concerning expected and occurred barriers

colleagues communication customers	Interaction with colleagues General communication; non-personal communication in	"working in a team" "misunderstandings in social communication"
	General communication; non-personal communication in	
	non-personal communication in	
customers	communication in	social communication"
customers		
customers	1:ti	
customers	application process	
	Interaction with	"clients complained
	customers	about too little contact"
handling the	Problems regarding	"prejudices against
diagnosis	autism-typical behavior and its handling	severe disabilities"
interview	Communication	"job interviews (unsecure
		manner, wrong responses
	- ·	to questions)"
mobbing		"animosities, mobbing,
8	=	physical violence"
supervisors	- •	"missing / insufficient
r	supervisors	personal contact with [] supervisors"
other	Other social situations	"christmas parties, birthdays, etc."
agencies	External organizations:	"no help from the job
	_	center"
	<u>-</u>	
application		"mean effort of 7h for
process	vacancies; creating	one cover letter"
equipment and		"placement into an open
environment	influences with concrete	plan office"
work routine		"unclear work
	structures defined	instructions"
11.01		
qualification	-	"rejection because of
		missing job experience"
support	contact person	"not enough guidance"
other		"age, gender"
cognitive	=	I connot on honoly
cognitive	skins, capabilities	"I cannot or barely multitask"
stress &	Stress and its emotional	"loneliness, dejectedness,
		headache, backache"
psychosomatic		neauache, backaehe
time_related	-	"feeling of no leisure
ume-relateu		time left because of
	÷ •	
other		commuting"
OHICI	Other job demands	"moving into a new city"
	diagnosis interview mobbing supervisors other agencies application process equipment and environment work routine qualification support	handling the diagnosis handling the diagnosis interview Communication problems in job interviews Mobbing, verbal and physical attacks supervisors Interaction with supervisors other Other social situations agencies External organizations: authorities, non-profit associations, civil service Finding matching job vacancies; creating applications equipment and environment work routine Plans and working structures defined externally; hierarchy qualification professional suitability; CV support Orientation period and contact person other Other formal requirements cognitive Skills; capabilities Stress & Stress and its emotional and physical consequences time-related Mismatch between personal rhythm and work rhythm

 Table 4.3.

 Category system for responses concerning solutions

General category	Sub-category	Definition	Response example
Self-solutions	acceptance	Showing strength in perseverance	"with a lot of patience"
	avoidance /	Escaping from / giving	"I suffered and held my
	resignation	up on a situation and suffering from it	tongue"
	communication	Approaching colleagues or superiors proactively	"Asking further questions until everything is clear"
	compensation	Using strengths to compensate	"strengths in other areas"
	concealment of diagnosis	Hiding diagnosis; lying about it	"lying with general requirements (flexibility, resilience etc.)"
	information about diagnosis	Making the diagnosis an open issue	"I told my supervisor of my diagnosis. He took it well."
	practice / qualification	Intellectual solution in form of trouble-shooting and seeking more information	"application training"
	other	Self-solution not otherwise specifiable; compromise; independency; luck	"self-employed, with home office"
External help	external institutions	External organizations: authorities, non-profit associations, civil service	"usage of integrational service"
	private environment	Family, friends, acquaintances	"my parents helped me"
	work environment	Colleagues, superiors	"reduction of working time"
	other	Help from others, not otherwise specified	"I had support"

 Table 4.4.

 Absolute and relative response frequency for participants without autism-specific job

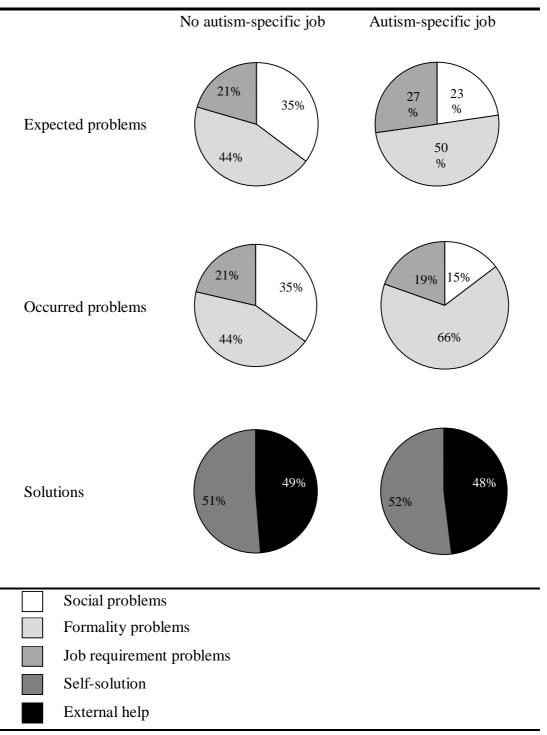
Question type	General category	Sub-category	N	%	N	%
Barriers			Expected barriers		Occurred barriers	
	Social problems	colleagues	14	7	19	7
		communication	28	15	43	15
		customers	8	4	10	3
		handling the diagnosis	9	5	14	5
		interview	12	6	14	5
		mobbing	2	1	11	4
		supervisors	3	2	8	3
		other	3	2	2	1
	Formality problems	agencies	5	3	6	2
		application process	18	10	21	7
		equipment and environment	23	12	47	16
		qualification	15	8	6	2
		support	5	3	10	3
		work routine	19	10	38	13
		other	2	1	4	1
	Job demand problems	cognitive	10	5	15	5
		stress & psychosomatic	8	4	19	7
		time-related	1	1	1	0
		other	4	2	2	1
			Used	solutio	ns	
Solutions	Self-solution	acceptance	27	13		
		avoidance / resignation	27	13		
		communication	18	9		
		compensation	4	2		
		concealment of diagnosis	4	2		
		information about diagnosis	9	4		
		practice / qualification	19	9		
		other	27	13		
	External help	external institutions	14	7		
		private environment	3	1		
		work environment	46	22		
		other	8	4		

 Table 4.5.

 Absolute and relative response frequency for participants with autism-specific job

Social problems	Question type	General category	Sub-category	N	%	N	%
Communication Communicatio				_			
Customers 1 2 0 0 handling the diagnosis 3 6 2 3 interview 1 2 0 0 mobbing 0 0 0 0 supervisors 2 4 0 0 others 1 2 0 0 agencies 2 4 1 1 application process 4 8 11 16 equipment and environment 5 9 12 18 qualification 12 23 7 10 support 1 2 7 10 work routine 5 9 8 12 others 0 0 1 1 time-related 0 0 1 1 others 1 2 1 1 time-related 0 0 1 1 others 1 2 1 1 time-related 0 0 1 1 others 1 2 1 1 transport 1 2 2 1 avoidance / resignation 0 0 communication 13 23		Social problems	colleagues	1	2	6	9
Handling the diagnosis 3 6 2 3 interview 1 2 0 0 mobbing 0 0 0 0 supervisors 2 4 0 0 others 1 2 0 0 agencies 2 4 1 1 application process 4 8 11 16 equipment and environment 5 9 12 18 qualification 12 23 7 10 support 1 2 7 10 work routine 5 9 8 12 others 0 0 1 1 work routine 5 9 8 12 others 0 0 1 1 time-related 0 0 1 1 others 1 2 1 1 tused solutions Solutions Self-solution acceptance 12 21 avoidance / resignation 0 0 communication 13 23			communication	6	11	4	6
Formality problems			customers	1	2	0	0
Mobbing 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0			handling the diagnosis	3	6	2	3
Formality problems			interview	1	2	0	0
Formality problems			mobbing	0	0	0	0
Formality problems agencies 2			supervisors	2	4	0	0
Application process 4 8 11 16			others	1	2	0	0
Part Equipment and environment 5 9 12 18 10 12 23 7 10 1		Formality problems	agencies	2	4	1	1
Qualification 12 23 7 10 Support 1 2 7 10 work routine 5 9 8 12 others 0 0 1 1 cognitive 5 9 4 6 stress & psychosomatic 3 6 2 3 time-related 0 0 1 1 others 1 2 1 1 Used solutions Solutions Self-solution acceptance 12 21 avoidance / resignation 0 0 communication 13 23			application process	4	8	11	16
Support 1 2 7 10			equipment and environment	5	9	12	18
Work routine 5 9 8 12			qualification	12	23	7	10
Job demand problems others $\begin{array}{c} \text{others} \\ \text{cognitive} \\ \text{stress \& psychosomatic} \\ \text{time-related} \\ \text{others} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 3 & 6 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 6 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 1 & $			support	1	2	7	10
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			work routine	5	9	8	12
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			others	0	0	1	1
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		Job demand problems	cognitive	5	9	4	6
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			stress & psychosomatic	3	6	2	3
Solutions Self-solution acceptance 12 21 avoidance / resignation 0 0 communication 13 23			time-related	0	0	1	1
Solutions Self-solution acceptance 12 21 avoidance / resignation 0 0 communication 13 23			others	1	2	1	1
avoidance / resignation 0 0 communication 13 23				Used	solutio	ns	
communication 13 23	Solutions	Self-solution	acceptance	12	21		
			avoidance / resignation	0	0		
			communication	13	23		
compensation 2 4			compensation	2	4		
concealment of diagnosis 0 0			concealment of diagnosis	0	0		
information about diagnosis 1 2			information about diagnosis	1	2		
practice / qualification 7 12			practice / qualification	7	12		
other 2 4			other	2	4		
External help external institutions 2 4		External help	external institutions	2	4		
private environment 4 7			private environment	4	7		
work environment 10 18			work environment	10	18		
other 4 7			other	4	7		

Table 4.6.General categories for expected problems, occurred problems and solutions in individuals with no autism-specific job vs. with autism-specific job



Note. Irrelevant answers were not included in this analysis. All relevant general categories were relativised by the number of sub-categories they contained, making the coding of each general category equally probable.

Table 4.7.Absolute and relative frequency of cross-question cases for participants without vs. with autism-specific job

		NASE		ASE	
		N	%	N	%
Occurrence of expected problems					
	The expected problems occurred.	106	72	27	59
	The expected problems did not occur.	41	28	19	41
Solution of occurred problems					
	The occurred problems were solved.	129	55	33	61
	The occurred problems were not solved.	105	45	21	39

Note. NASE = individual with non-autism-specific employment; ASE = individual with autism-specific employment. Only responses without missing data were included in this analysis.

Table 4.8.Summary of the bivariate Bayesian correlations of all variables

(1) Gender	male N = 29 NASE	female N = 36 ASE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
(2) Employment	N = 49	N = 17	_b	1								
	\mathbf{M}	SD										
(3) Tenure	4.76	6.52	.07 [22;.35]	25 [49;25]	1							
(4) GSE	2.22	0.58	20 [42;.05]	.28 [.01;.52]	06 [31;.20]	1						
(5) OSE	2.32	0.67	29 [51;.05]	.24 [.01;.47]	.01 [24;27]	.83 [.73;.89]	1					
(6) LS	2.65	1.07	09 [35;.14]	.07 [17;.32]	.17 [10;.42]	.44 [.22;.62]	.45 [.24;.64]	1				
(7) JS ^a	0.00	0.88	.02 [23;.26]	.00 [25;.24]	.10 [17;.36]	.30 [.06;.52]	.38 [.16;.58]	.65 [.49;.78]	1			
(8) improvement	3.41	1.35	09 [34;.16]	.08 [17;.32]	.01 [26;27]	.33 [.09;.54]	.32 [.10;.53]	.38 [.16;.58]	.61 [.44;.76]	1		
(9) job importance	4.11	1.23	17 [41;.08]	.18 [06;43]	01 [28;26]	.41 [.18;.61]	.42 [.20;.62]	.35 [.12;.55]	.23 [02;.45]	.34 [.09;.56]	1	
(10) strengths	3.39	1.40	13 [37;.11]	.16 [08;.39]	.09 [17;.35]	.45 [.24;64]	.48 [.27;.66]	.62 [.45;.76]	.81 [.72;.90]	.60 [.42;.75]	.29 [.05;.51]	1

Note. 95% high-density intervals are displayed in brackets; NASE = non-autism-specific employment; ASE = autism-specific employment; GSE = general self-efficacy, OSE = occupational self-efficacy, LS = life satisfaction, JS = job satisfaction, improvement = control item regarding quality of life improvement durinc current employment, job importance = control item regarding the importance of a job for the quality of life, strengths = control item regarding the use of strengths in current employment, ^a = standardized z-score, ^b = left out of data-analysis due to one employment group being an all-male-group.

Table 4.9.Results Bayesian t-tests – non autism-specific employment vs. autism-specific employment

	NASE	ASE				
	N = 49	N =17				
	Mean	[HDI]	Difference of	Effect	Difference of mean	
	(SI	D)	means [HDI]	size	probability in %	
GSE	2.00 [1.9; 2.2]	2.40 [2.1; 2.8]	.40 [.02; .78]	.67	2 < 0 < 98	
	(.50)	(.66)				
OSE	2.30 [2.1; 2.5]	2.70 [2.3; 3.0]	.39 [.01; .76]	.59	2 < 0 < 98	
	(0.68)	(.62)	.39 [.01, .70]			
LS	2.6 [2.3; 2.9]	2.80 [2.3; 3.3]	.19 [41; .77]	.18	50 < 0 < 50	
	(1.10)	(.95)			50 < 0 < 50	
JS ^a	.00 [24; .26]	.01 [44; .48]	01 [52, 52]	.01	51 < 0 < 49	
	$(0.86^{[})$	(.88)	.01 [52; .53]			

Note. HDI = 95% high-density interval; ; NASE = non-autism-specific employment ASE = autism-specific employment; GSE = general self-efficacy, OSE = occupational self-efficacy, LS = life satisfaction, JS = job satisfaction, a = standardized z-score.

Appendix

Questionnaire on barriers to employment and their overcoming

1.	Did yo	ou expect to have any problems with the general process of job-seeking?
	a.	No.
	b.	Yes, namely:
2.	What 1	problems occurred during the general process of job-seeking?
	a.	None.
	b.	The following:
3.	If appl	icable, how did you resolve these problems?
	a.	
4.	Did yo	ou expect to have any problems when drafting your application?
		No.
	b.	Yes, namely:
5.	What 1	problems occurred during the creation of your application?
		None.
	b.	The following:
6.	If appl	icable, how did you solve these problems?
	a.	
7.	_	ou expect to have any problems with regard to the contact with potential
	emplo	
		No.
		Yes, namely:
8.	What 1	problems occurred regarding the contact with potential employers?
	a.	None.
		The following:
9.	If appl	icable, how did you solve these problems?
	a.	

10. Did yo	ou expect to have any problems with regard to the demands of each job?
a.	No.
b.	Yes, namely:
11. What 1	problems occurred regarding the job demands?
a.	None.
b.	The following:
12. If appl	icable, how did you solve these problems?
a.	
13. Did yo	ou expect to have any problems with regard to the working day?
	No.
b.	Yes, namely:
14. What j	problems occurred regarding the work routine?
	None.
b.	The following:
15. If appl	icable, how did you solve these problems?
a.	
16. Did yo	ou expect to have any problems with regard to the workplace equipment?
a.	No.
b.	Yes, namely:
17. What 1	problems occurred regarding the equipment of your workplace?
a.	None.
b.	The following:
18. If appl	icable, how did you solve these problems?
a.	

19. Did you expect to have any problems within the work environment?						
a.	No.					
b.	Yes, namely:					
20. What problems occurred regarding the work environment?						
a.	None.					
b.	The following:					
appl	icable, how did you solve these problems?					
a.	<u> </u>					
id yo	ou expect to have any problems with the support mechanisms at the					
orkp	lace?					
a.	No.					
b.	Yes, namely:					
Vhat p	problems occurred regarding the support at the workplace?					
a.	None.					
b.	The following:					
24. If applicable, how did you solve these problems?						
a.	·					
id yo	ou expect to have any problems other than those mentioned previously					
a.	No.					
b.	Yes, namely:					
Vhat p	problems that are not mentioned so far occurred?					
a.	None.					
b.	The following:					
27. If applicable, how did you solve these problems?						
	a. b. /hat p a. b. appl a. id you orkp a. b. /hat p a. b. /hat p a. b. /hat p a. b.					

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Chapter 5

General discussion and future directions

The last chapter of this work will deal with general limitations or methodological issues not discussed in the previous studies. I will conclude this work with practical and theoretical implications for future work. Before that, I will recapitulate the previous chapters.

Recapitulation

Recapitulation chapter 2

In chapter 2, two studies were conducted to create and validate a German self-report scale – the Compound Psychological Capital Scale (CPC-12) measuring psychological capital (PsyCap, Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004). We performed confirmatory factor analyses and correlations with other positive psychological constructs on the data of two German samples ($N_1 = 321$; $N_2 = 202$). According to our results, the CPC-12 fits the proposed model of PsyCap very well. The four subscales hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy are identifiable as subcomponents of the overall measure while the higher-order factor can incrementally explain additional variance in the data. The moderate to high correlations to other work-related (meaning of work, job satisfaction and engagement; r = .28 - .40) and more general constructs of positive psychology (i.e. subjective well-being, proactive attitude, and gratitude; r = .22. - .58) are comparable to previous research on PsyCap (e.g., Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011; Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst, 2014) and speak for the external validity of the CPC-12. The results indicate that PsyCap could in fact be a general construct and applicable to more areas than positive organizational behavior (POB). By abstaining from items with work-related connotations, the CPC-12 can be applied to many fields of interest, i.e. sports and education. Due to the correlations of the CPC-12 with workrelated constructs being similar to the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ, Avey et al., 2011; Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2006), the CPC-12 is also an alternative in work-related research for areas where the item wordings of the PCQ might not be suitable, i.e. volunteering or small organizations.

Recapitulation chapter 3

In chapter 3 we focused on the influence of resilience and meaning of work (MOW) on the impact of cognitive, emotional and physical job demands and job resources on subjective well-being (composed of positive affect, negative affect, life satisfaction, and job satisfaction) of 550 midwives. This target group is of special interest because working conditions are worsening for midwives in Germany, e.g. understaffing, inadequate income, shift-work, insufficient time for women and for completing their duties (e.g. Ball, Curtis & Kirkham, 2002; Glass, 2009; Knezevic et al., 2011), yet many remain in the profession and even report high job satisfaction (Kirkham, Morgan, & Davies, 2006).

Within the Demand-Induced Strain Compensation model (DISC, de Jonge & Dormann, 2003), high job demands and lack of job resources lead to reduced subjective well-being and sickness, multiple regression analysis was used to create three models, each including job resources and job demands on qualitative equivalent dimensions.

While the results of the present study do not support de Jonge and Dormann's (2006) assumption of the 'Triple-Match Principle' (TMP) and therefore do not support the 'buffer hypothesis', the results provide evidence for a positive correlation of resilience and MOW and the subjective well-being in all models.

After discussing possible further investigations of resilience of midwives and interventions to foster resilience, we come to the conclusion that although organizational and political approaches and changes are urgently needed for fostering resilience in midwives (McDonald, Jackson, Wilkes, & Vickers, 2012), the work of midwives will always include workplace adversities (Hunter & Warren, 2013). It is therefore important that midwives are able to manage their reactions to these circumstances and that positive psychology in the workplace could be a much-needed approach to this topic.

Recapitulation chapter 4

The aim of the study in chapter 4 was to discover how individuals with autism succeed in entering the job market. We therefore sought to on the one hand identify expected and occurred barriers keeping them from taking up and staying in employment, and on the other hand to identify the solutions used to overcome these barriers. Sixty-six employed individuals with autism – 17 of them with autism-specific employment – participated in an online survey, combining open interview questions and questionnaires.

In our qualitative content analysis, we found three main categories of barriers: social, formality, and job demand problems. Social problems include any obstacle concerning communication and human interaction. Formality problems sum up problems with organizational and practical process-related aspects of the job entry. Job demand problems describe difficulties with meeting specific requirements of an employment. Regarding solutions, we found two main categories: self-solution and external help. Self-solutions sum up different coping strategies of the individual. Solutions with external help include all approaches where the individual sought support.

Individuals in non-autism-specific employment reported a higher frequency of social and formality problems in autism-specific employment. This suggests a difference in the nature of the barriers individuals with autism encounter when entering the job market. The two groups – individuals in autism-specific employment and individuals in non-autism-specific employment - did not just differ in the number of certain problems that occurred but also in how they rated their importance. Individuals with non-autism-specific employment rated social problems as more important than formality problems while the contrary occurred with individuals with autism-specific employment. In that regard, the most frequent problems were also seen as the most important ones. However, even though individuals in autism-specific employment faced more job demand than social problems, they rated job demand

problems as less important. This is relevant because it shows that in practice, social problems should not be neglected when they are less frequent.

Regarding solutions, we found different patterns in our two study groups as well. Individuals in autism-specific employment tended to solve occurring problems less with resignation and more with acceptance, communication and practice or further qualification. This is interesting, because impairment in communication is a core symptom of Autism Spectrum Condition (American Psychological Association, 2013) and has been named as a cause of difficulties in the employment process (Hendricks, 2010; Müller, Schuler, Burton, & Yates, 2003). Yet for participants in autism-specific employment this reported weakness was not just attenuated but even transformed into a resource of problem solving behavior. Maybe this was facilitated by being surrounded by peers or supervisor's adjustment towards more direct communication (Hagner & Cooney, 2005).

In sum, our two groups of individuals without and with autism-specific employment showed differences in quality of occurred barriers, levels of general and well-being for individuals with autism.

Methodological issues

Cross-sectional designs

The first and most important limitations of the studies in this work is the use of cross-sectional designs. This type of research design cannot establish a temporal precedence of a hypothesized cause relative to its effect (Bowen & Wiersma, 1999). This is of course weakening the causal inference that can be made by such a design. Possible procedures to strengthen this inference with a cross-sectional design such as the counterfactual model of causation (Holland, 1986; Rubin, 1974, 1978) or the use of the propensity score method (Li, 2013; Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983; Rubin, 1997) were not applicable in these studies due to non-random assignment and in case of chapter 4 a small sample size. The only remedy to

overcome the shortcomings in studies like these would be longitudinal studies in which the research units would be observed on multiple occasions (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). I fully agree with Mills, Fleck & Kozikowski (2013) that research in positive psychology in the workplace is in dire need of longitudinal research as the majority of research in this field is cross-sectional (Donaldson & Ko, 2010). This call stands in contrast to a development that our own field of work is experiencing. The rise of short-term contracts and precarious employment in European academia (Gill, 2009; Kauppi, 2015) is thwarting this much needed collection of longitudinal data in research in positive psychology in the workplace.

Common method variance

Another issue not discussed in the studies that needs at least some mentioning as it is an ongoing debate in the field of work and organizational psychology is the common method variance. Since the article by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff (2003) in the Journal of Applied Psychology, this topic is heavily debated in work and organizational psychology (Lance, Dawson, Birkelbach, & Hoffman, 2010; Pace, 2010; Spector & Brannick, 2010). It divides the field into two groups (with deep trenches between them) with the supporters of Podsakoff et al. (2003) on one side and the other side going as far as to name common method variance an urban legend (Chan, 2009; Spector, 2006). I want to acknowledge this ongoing debate. Not opening Pandora's Box any further, I want to state that we are partially on the 'other side' but not going as far as to dismiss it as a myth. As long as this debate cannot clear if common method is in fact a problem to the results in this field, how big it might be, or if the suggested remedies are not making even worse statistical artifacts – I take a stand as a "skeptical Podsakoff agnostic".

Validity

Concluding this subsection of the chapter, and circling back to the topics from our introduction in chapter 1, I want to address another issue – the validity of results. First, I want

to address our internet survey sampling. Although data from internet surveys is not free of methodological constraints, samples from online recruitment are as diverse, adjusted, at least as good in quality as most traditional methods (Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, & John, 2004). We discussed this point in all three studies, including the fact of a non-probabilistic sample, so I want to focus on the external validity – the possibility to generalize a particular effect across person, settings, and time (Cook, Campbell, & Day, 1979) – especially the generalizability across cultures as this was part of our introduction. In chapter 2 the results showed a bad factorial fit for the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ, Luthans & Youssef, 2004) due to cultural differences between North American culture (especially corporate culture) and German culture resulting in problematic wordings. The Compound Psychological Capital Scale (CPC-12) we created in chapter 2 works for the German wording but I am very cautious to state that the CPC-12 would be a universal scale across cultures, especially before it is re-evaluated using different samples in other life-domains in different cultures. At this point, I want to emphasize once more the importance of confirmation of a factorial structure when scales of different cultural backgrounds are imported. Not only is this question of the external validity of results a question of factorial structure but of a cultural context and i.e. its laws and regulations influencing the people within this culture (Leong & Wong, 2003; Pedrotti & Edwards, 2009). A good example here are our results on the effect of resilience on subjective well-being in German midwives in chapter 3. The strong effect could be a cultural artifact of the worsening work situation for midwives in Germany (Albrecht, Loos, Sander, & Schliwen, 2012). When we look at the research we do, we have to adopt a culturally embedded perspective, seeing the context our research subjects are living in. This is even more true when we have to go beyond racial, ethnical and cultural issues to the perspective of the human diversity model (Chin, 1993) with a focus on unique differences and patterns in groups. This focused lens approach is important in chapter 4 with our research question on individuals with Asperger's Syndrome, as some of the barriers and solutions are

specific to their neurodiverse development, not being comparable to other neurodiverse individuals, i.e. individuals with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder.

In conclusion, I can say that the external validity of results is in dependence to the focus of the research lens, from questions of statistical, to cultural, to diversity relevance or as Nussbaum (1997, p. 59) put it:

We see ourselves and our customs (as well as our results as we might add) more clearly when we see our own way in relation to those of others.

This is a good bridge to our next part because a cultural and diversity sensitive view is not only of relevance to a methodological issue but also an important point when it comes to practical implications thus combining the methodological pillar of our approach with the second one, social relevance.

Practical implications

Picking up the cultural and diversity-sensitive perspective, I want to focus on a general practical implication, as many study-specific implications have been part of the last chapters. With our second pillar of the contemporary approach to positive psychology in the workplace in mind – social relevance- there is one implication for applied research of great importance: The inclusion of people from the target group into the research design process. I followed this implication in chapter 3 by including co-author Sarah Krückels, a midwife herself, into the research process to get an insight into the problems of this group of workers. In chapter 4, I met with autism self-advocacy groups and individuals with autism to get feedback on important topics and item wordings. This inclusion of people from the group of interest of the research is an important step to go from research *on*, to research *with* and research *for* the target group.

There are many advantages to that approach. The first advantage is the joint expertise: While the researcher possesses the knowledge on psychological and methodological issues, the person from the target group can help to identify important questions of relevance as well as a view from the inside on possible idiosyncrasies of that specific group. The second advantage is better communication of the results back to the target group using a network that picks up the research language and translates it into the language used and understood in the target group by social networks, blogs and official communications of associations and organizations. Another advantage is taking us back to the criticism of positive psychology in the workplace I mentioned in chapter 1. An integration of individuals from the target group sharpens the eye towards possible structural or cultural problems thus providing an amount of protection or at least a critical reflection against the criticism expressed by Warren (2010, p.320):

...positive psychology might unwittingly be providing the apparatus for a kind of "organizational projection" whereby the organization remains blameless and appears saintly in "allowing" its staff to learn how to flourish, rather than recognized for generating the conditions for negativity to such deeprooted hold in the first place.

In a next step, the close communication with individuals from the research target group can help to tailor specific interventions from the rich options of positive psychology interventions (e.g., Bolier et al., 2013; Gander, Proyer, Ruch, & Wyss, 2013; Luthans, Avey, Avolio, & Peterson, 2010; Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008; Robertson, Cooper, Sarkar, & Curran, 2015). Stepping away from a one-size-fits-all approach, such tailored interventions can help to improve the effectiveness of interventions by i.e. considering possible problems with word ambiguities or metaphors due to autism (Attwood, 2006; Szatmari, Bremner, & Nagy, 1989) or fitting interventions into the tight workday of a midwife.

Theoretical implications

Following the practical implications, I think there are theoretical implications that need to be discussed. I will start with a more general implication about the need for a theoretical model to integrate research on positive psychology in the workplace, followed by specific theoretical implications following the results of our studies.

Model integration

When trying to integrate our studies in the model by Luthans & Youssef (2007, figure 5.1) for the relationship between positive organizational scholarship (POS) and POB, I would argue that all three studies are situated on the micro-level or in the cluster of POB.

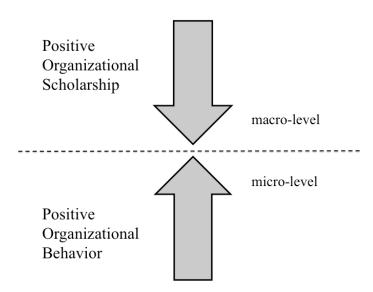


Figure 5.1. Proposed model by Luthans & Youssef (2007) for the relationship between POS and POB.

With a look at our proposed model from chapter 1 (figure 5.2.), the picture is more differentiated as the construction of the CPC-12 in chapter 2 is part of POB. The studies from chapter 3 and 4 are situated in the overlapping part of POB and positive occupational psychology as they focus on classical variables used in POB - resilience and self-efficacy - while including topics of occupational psychology like job demands and resources as well as

work environment. As this model is more differentiated than the one proposed by Luthans & Youssef (2007), it leaves room for improvement, i.e. a dimension on how positive psychology is integrated in the workplace – from short trainings to improvement of the "heart" of the company with equal interest in financial and well-being outcomes. Such a typology of positive psychology in the workplace could help theoretical foundations as much as the evaluations and comparisons of the application in organizations.

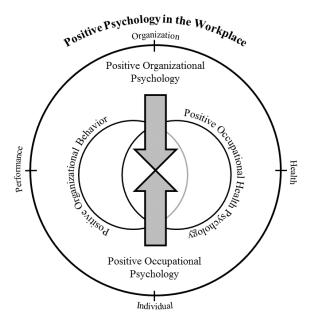


Figure 5.2. An integrated model of the terms used in positive psychology at the workplace

Bayesian structural modeling

On a methodological level, following chapter 2, Bayesian structural equation modeling (BSEM) could be an interesting alternative to the traditional maximum-likelihood parameter estimation of confirmatory factory analysis (CFA) for the cultural comparison of constructs. The assumptions of the classical CFA could be too strict for practical purposes in cultural comparisons, where small deviations from complete independence have no substantial theoretical impact (Church & Burke, 1994) and a random effect model could be favorable over fixed effects. As there is an ongoing debate on the appropriateness of CFA in estimating measurement models of questionnaires (e.g., Fong & Ho, 2013; Golay, Lecerf, Watkins, &

Canivez, 2014; Golay, Reverte, Rossier, Favez, & Lecerf, 2011; McCrae, Zonderman, Costa, Bond, & Paunonen, 1996), the use of BSEM (MacCallum, Edwards, & Cai, 2012; Muthén & Asparouhov, 2012) could be a useful alternative. In this analysis the zero-fixed cross-loadings are treated as random effects with mean zero and a small variance, allowing for sample-wise minor divergences from independence (Muthén & Asparouhov, 2012). This could prove an interesting alternative for scales used in positive psychology in the workplace.

Resilience versus hardiness

In consequence of chapter 2 and our study on the resilience of midwives stands the theoretical implication of the comparison or interaction between the constructs resilience and hardiness. While resilience is defined in many forms, making it kind of a blurry concept (Pangallo, Zibarras, Lewis, & Flaxman, 2015), the most common definition is the ability to bounce back or recover from stress, and to adapt to stressful or traumatic events (Carver, 1998; Tusaie & Dyer, 2004) or as Windle (2011, p.152) defined

...the process of effectively negotiating, adapting to, or managing significant sources of stress or trauma. Assets and resources within the individual, their life and environment facilitate this capacity for adaptation and "bouncing back" in the face of adversity. Across the life course, the experience of resilience will vary.

Different from resilience, hardiness was introduced by Suzanne Kobasa (Kobasa, 1979) as a personal resource against the consequences of negative effects, especially occupational stress, on health (Kobasa, 1982; Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982). It is proposed as a composite construct with the components commitment, control, and change:

"Commitment is the ability to believe in the truth, importance and interest value of who one is and what one is doing; and thereby, the tendency to involve oneself fully in many situations of life [...]. Control refers to the tendency to believe and act as if one could influence the course of events [...]. Challenge is based on the belief that change, rather than stability, is the normative mode of life" (Kobasa, 1988, p.101).

Hardiness is seen as a personality variable – the hardy personality (Kobasa, 1979, 1982; Kobasa, Maddi, Puccetti, & Zola, 1985; Kobasa, Maddi, & Zola, 1983) - in contrast to resilience, which is seen on the spectrum between state and trait (Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans et al., 2006). Future research should concentrate on the possible interaction of these constructs or if and how they possibly serve as prerequisites of each other (Maddi, 2005, 2013). A deeper understanding of the effect and its paths of "bouncing back" versus "staying strong" could help to tailor new interventions, job crafting or the understanding of personenvironment fit in specific stressful environments.

The role of self-efficacy in inclusion

Derived from our study in chapter 4 on job barriers and autism, I see great potential in further research on autism-related career development and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1982). The early research on women's career choices and self-efficacy has shown that this variable has an effect on the willingness to engage in specific tasks as well as the persistence under resistance (Betz & Hackett, 1981, 1983; Hackett & Betz, 1981) and is linked to critical occupational outcomes (Betz, 2001). Furthermore, research on individuals with disabilities has found that little experience in competitive employment and positive feedback diminishes the use of past performances as potential sources for developing occupational self-efficacy (Fabian & Liesener, 2005). I think that research on the effect of occupational self-efficacy and employment and work environment could be a fertile ground for the creation of vocational interventions, as well as important indications for organizational policies such as diversity trainings in the workplace.

Conclusion

As our studies can only be a start with a few spotlights into different areas, I hope that I could show the importance of a contemporary approach to positive psychology in the workplace based on the use of solid methods and social relevance. WI would argue that these

two pillars are mandatory for an approach towards the problems interrelated with globalization and the changes of work we have seen in the last two decades, especially the intensification of work, diversity and topics that stayed without a direct spotlight here, i.e. the aging of the workforce. Furthermore, I think that it is time to integrate these pillars into the academic curriculum for a comprehensive education of young scientists and applied psychologists who not only see possible consequences of their research but also should involve themselves in policymaking, from academia to organizations. I believe that positive psychology in the workplace should have its focus on the chance for all individuals to lead flourishing lives and might make it even more likely to build a flourishing society.

With this last conclusion, I encourage you, the reader, to conduct research, involve yourself in policymaking, educate young academics on important topics – all based on the two pillars of our contemporary approach to positive psychology in the workplace – solid methods and social relevance.

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Authors' contributions:

Measuring Psychological Capital: Construction and validation of the Compound PsyCap Scale

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Study concept and design: Timo Lorenz

Method development: Timo Lorenz

Acquisition of data: Timo Lorenz, Clemens Beer, Jan Pütz

Drafting of the manuscript: Timo Lorenz, Clemens Beer, Jan Pütz

Critical revision of the manuscript: Timo Lorenz, Kathrin Heinitz

Statistical analyses: Timo Lorenz, Clemens Beer, Jan Pütz

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Well-being and labor: Do resilience and meaning of work buffer the job demands of midwives?

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Job barriers and autism: Comparing job-related barriers and possible solutions in and outside of autism-specific employment.

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Acquisition of data: Timo Lorenz

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Study supervision: Timo Lorenz, Kathrin Heinitz

For reasons of data protection,

Erklärung

Hiermit versichere ich, dass ich die vorgelegte Arbeit selbstständig verfasst habe.

Andere als die angegebenen Hilfsmittel habe ich nicht verwendet. Die Arbeit ist in keinem früheren Promotionsverfahren angenommen oder abgelehnt worden.

Berlin, 26. Januar 2016

(Timo Lorenz)