EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF COPING RESOURCES ON PERCEIVED WELL-BEING: A STUDY OF EXECUTIVES AND SENIOR MANAGERS

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Abstract

The characteristics of the workplace environment have a significant impact on executive well-being and organisations benefit when executives cope effectively with the stressors in their work and private life. Many aspects of coping with stress have been studied, but few studies have focused on the coping resources of executives and senior managers. This study focused on the relationship between coping resources and level of well-being as a factor of stress mitigation among a target middle-aged group of Czech executives and senior leaders. Using data collected from 100 executives and senior managers in Prague, Czech Republic, multiple regression analysis was used to examine the variables related to executive coping resources and their combined effects on executive well-being. The analysis revealed that executives who made use of a mix of coping resources showed better well-being. Furthermore, cognitive, emotional, spiritual/philosophical, and physical coping resources were shown to be positively related to total well-being. However, social coping resources showed no direct association with executive well-being. The findings suggest that executives can benefit from a much more extensive combination of coping resources than initially expected to provide better life satisfaction, and that overall physical and mental health is a mitigating factor against stress and burnout.

Introduction

The pace and magnitude of the global business developments seen over the last two decades are without precedence in the history of humanity. In light of all this change, it is common for managers to experience stress, increased demands of their time, and sometimes also tensions in their relationships with colleagues. Conflict is rife, and disagreements are not unusual. Workplace stress thus continues to be a growing problem, with direct adverse effects for executives who experience it and for companies who pay for it (Dopkeen & DuBois, 2014). The price paid by executives for these interpersonal dynamics in their lives is tiredness, overwork, sleeplessness, and a generally poor diet. If we add mental strain and emotional stress to the aforementioned factors, we should not be

surprised that not only is this harmful to the health of executives and those around them, but it also decreases their performance, efficiency, and productivity (Cartwright & Cooper, 2014; Collins & Cartwright, 2012; Cartwright et al., 2011; Cooper et al., 2009).

Existing studies offer substantive evidence that along with conflict, work-related stressors remain significant sources of psychological pressure for executives and senior managers (Dewe, 2001; Dewe, O'Driscoll, & Cooper, 2010). The multi-faceted aspects of burnout that manifest emotionally, socially, physically, and mentally lead one to conclude that a complex set of coping resources would be more beneficial than any one single intervention. Such a conclusion is important given that organisations and individuals benefit when executives cope effectively with stressors in their work and private life. There is, however, still a need to further explore this idea that adequate coping resources are an essential factor related to the effect of perceived stress on psychological well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Some key stressors such as extended working hours, insufficient time to complete tasks, job strain, increased demand to learn new skills and adopt new methods of working, pressure for higher productivity, and emotional stress, all have a significant impact on a manager's well-being. Leadership is widely acknowledged to be demanding and challenging, thereby putting executives and senior managers at a substantial risk for stress and stress-related symptoms such as burnout. As such, it is crucial for managers to help executives cope effectively with their roles as leaders, of which is first done by understanding the factors that contribute to executive stress, job satisfaction, and turnover.

A manager commonly spends much of his/her time at work. This is the reason why the workplace environment plays such a significant role in the overall sense of individual well-being for an executive. Positive well-being in particular, including job satisfaction, work happiness, joy, engagement, and fulfilment are noted to improve company efficiency, while the prevalence of negative facets such as burnout, stress or depression in executives all have a deleterious effect on company efficiency. For these reasons, we posed the following research question: *Which coping resources are positively correlated with well-being?*

Many aspects of coping with stress have been investigated, but few studies have focused on the coping resources of executives and senior managers in particular, and none have focused on middle-aged executives and the impact of the length of time spent in an executive position on their well-being. The present research study aims to confirm the relationship between coping resources and level of well-being among the target middle-aged group of Czech executives and senior leaders and find which coping resources reduce job stress and which cannot. Our sample is made up of a generation of managers who started their career paths during the societal changes of the early 1990s without previous managerial experience. Therefore, the research task is to examine the efficacy of coping resources in ensuring and increasing executive well-being.

Executives and senior managers who perceive changes in their own state of health and well-being tend to devise self-regulatory processes quickly and then move on to integrate these into their lives. They are also more likely to facilitate, develop, inspire, and evaluate best practices amongst those who work for them. In addition, they can be more resistant to everyday stressors in the work environment. Managers can obtain advantage by

encouraging and instilling coping resources in order to amplify executive well-being (Curry & O'Brien, 2012).

In the sections that follow, we first develop the theoretical background. Then, we define our hypothesis and research methods, in addition to explaining the use of a multiple correlation and regression model. Finally, we analyse and discuss the results and limitations of the study and offer our conclusions.

1 Theoretical background

1.1 Stress and coping

In earlier studies of coping, the focus of concern was on reactive strategies by considering responses immediately after a stressful event as opposed to the use of an adaptive or proactive strategy of coping with stress prior to its onset. Innovative approaches to stress continue to be investigated in research literature. The transactional model of stress is at the centre of efforts to comprehend the process of coping and stress (Lazarus, 2000, 2006, Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). Other current areas of focus in studies addressing stress include the effectiveness of coping, proactive coping, acknowledging, and meaning-making in relation to coping. The latter involves the need to understand how senior leaders apply meaning to events of significance that are classified as stressful (Cartwright & Cooper, 2014; Collins & Cartwright, 2012; Cartwright et al., 2011; Cooper et al., 2009).

By understanding the process of stress, we can augment our knowledge of the effectiveness of coping and thus mitigate the impact and costs associated with stress, in addition to increasing occupational well-being. Lazarus & Folkman's (1984) transactional model of stress is one such way of understanding this process, especially when considered in terms of executives' perceptions of demands and the available resources in the management environment for handling those demands. The model assumes that as we strive to meet life demands, there is a subjective transaction in which we weigh the perceived demands of the event against perceived coping abilities. The perception that life events or circumstances outweigh the available sources of stress management lead to a stress response that includes negative emotions and, in the long term, burnout symptoms and health problems (Cartwright & Cooper, 2014; Collins & Cartwright, 2012; Cartwright et al., 2011; Cooper et al., 2009).

Likewise, coping with stress is a multi-step process involving, in part, perceptions of resources to cope with demands, perceptions of demands, and use of coping styles to manage perceived demands (Lazarus & Folkman's, 1987). Coping styles or skills, on the other hand, are patterns of behaviours employed to manage demands where individuals perceive them as stressful. When executives encounter demands, they first decide whether these demands are innocuous and require no action or whether the demands are potentially threatening and require action (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987, 1984). When executives perceive demands as potential threats, they evaluate whether their perceived coping resources are adequate to cope with these threats. Stress results from an imbalance favouring perceived demands over perceived resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Thus, executives who perceive themselves to be well resourced generally believe that they can

cope with most demands and, consequently, experience lower levels of stress (Cartwright & Cooper, 2014; Collins & Cartwright, 2012; Cartwright et al., 2011; Cooper et al., 2009).

Nevertheless, coping behaviour is a nonstandard process. Executives sometimes actively put in place coping mechanisms, and at other times, they may not act immediately upon demands but may wait for the appropriate time to act. Coping may take the form of adjusting perceptions of the threat or demand and how well executives cope with stress in their lives depends on several factors, one of which is an executive's own coping resources.

1.2 Coping resources

The effectiveness of a person's coping resources is a powerful predictor of his or her psychological well-being (Hobfoll, 2002) and these resources act as buffers against disorders such as depression and anxiety (Bisschop, Kriegsman, Beekman, & Deeg, 2004; McCarthy, Fouladi, Juncker, & Matheny, 2006). Effective coping resources are also correlated with lower levels of worker burnout (Brill, 1984; McCarthy, Lambert, O'Donnell, & Melendres, 2009). Coping resources refer to factors upon which executives can draw in the face of stressful events and are present before stressors occur (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). Typical coping resources include confidence, religion or spirituality, physical health, social support, a sense of mastery, stress monitoring and tension reduction abilities, and an ability to engage in problem-solving and structuring.

Executives make use of such coping resources to enable them to handle stressors more effectively (Hammer & Marting, 1988). Coping resources can be seen as "the resources inherent in individuals that enable them to handle stressors effectively, to experience fewer or less intense symptoms upon exposure to a stressor, or to recover faster from exposure" (Hammer & Marting, 1988). Coping resources act as precursors of behaviour and as background factors in attempts to deal with stress. As such, it is reasonable that executives with lower coping resources tend to be more assailable and fragile.

The Coping Resources Inventory (CRI) was developed to provide a standardised measure of coping resources that may prove important in mediating the stress response. The CRI was constructed to facilitate emphasis on five resources for mediating stress, rather than allowing a stress 'deficit'. Identification and acknowledgement of executives' resources and competencies, as well as their deficits and impairments, may prove useful in designing interventions and in improving self-confidence. Hammer and Marting's model of coping resources (1988) is used for this research, given its biopsychosocial conceptualisation.

This model accounts for five aspects of coping resources, namely social, emotional, cognitive, physical, and spiritual/philosophical. The social aspect refers to the degree to which an executive is incorporated into social networks that can provide support during a stressful situation. The emotional aspect is related to the extent to which an executive can recognise and imply a range of effects, based on the premise that a range of emotional reactions assists in the enhancement of long-term avoidance of stress. The cognitive aspect reflects the ways in which an executive sustains a positive outlook regarding others, and feels optimism about life in general, along with a sense of self-worth. The physical aspect considers whether or not executives enact wholesome behaviours presumed to enhance physical well-being. Lastly, the spiritual/philosophical aspect looks at the degree to

which an executive's activities are guided by stable and consistent values derived from familial, religious, personal philosophy, or cultural tradition. This link between health and religion has attracted significant attention, given that most studies show a beneficial effect of religion on health. Ultimately, the cognitive and emotional aspects constitute the psychological component of the model, the social and spiritual/philosophical aspects the social component, and the physical aspect the biological component.

1.3 Well-being

Executive well-being can be thought of as satisfaction with life and work, all based on an executive's perception of his/her sense of purpose, health, and happiness. In recent years, well-being has become a centre of attention, given that those engaged in the development of a meaningful and sustainable society are increasingly becoming dissatisfied with purely financial measures of progress. This shift is reflected in the workplace, where business leaders strive to achieve goals beyond the maximisation of return on capital and realise that achieving levels of well-being also help to promote business success. As such, human management is now seen by many, including the business community, to be an indicator of a company's long-term prospects - inextricably linked to the well-being of an organisation and the well-being of its executives (Wach, Stephan & Gorgievski, 2016).

While there is some evidence to show which specific management activities affect well-being at work, for better and worse, many gaps remain. Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi (2000) and Luthans (2002) for example have focused much organisational and managerial attention on well-being. Luthans (2002a) in particular stressed the importance of studying "positively oriented strong and psychic human resources" and suggested that "they could be measured, developed and managed effectively to improve performance in today's workplace" (Luthans, 2002a).

1.4 Coping and well-being

Stressful life events impair well-being especially when one's self-regulatory skills for dealing with stress are low (Baumann et al. 2005; Folkman & Moskowitz 2004). Coping (together with valuation) is, in fact, a mediator between stress and its emotional response (Lazarus 1999). Beyond the general view of coping as a mediator between stress and well-being, studies have linked specific coping resources and strategies with well-being (Diener et al. 1999; Folkman & Moskowitz 2000; for an exception see Park & Adler 2003). Problem-focused coping especially has been found to have a more positive impact on mental and physical well-being than emotion-focused coping (Epstein-Mathias 2003; Ito & Brotheridge 2003; Welbourne et al. 2007). Problem-focused coping is related to the occurrence and preservation of positive emotions (Ben-Zur 2009; Folkman & Moskowitz 2000) and protects against negative emotions (Patzelt & Shepherd 2011). Thus, we hypothesised that:

There is a positive relationship between coping resources and well-being.

Furthermore, given that Aldwin et al., 1996 found that the types of complaints and daily stressors that managers deal with varies with age, with middle-aged managers experiencing less stressful events than younger people, we used age as one important control variable.

2 Methods

2.1 Procedure

The research design was a cross-sectional, exploratory study in which the subjects were executives and senior managers in middle age and representing a wide demographic range (age, experience, gender, etc.). Participants were contacted and approached through various means using convenience sampling. There were assumptions – each respondent had to be between 35 and 65 years and have at least three years of work experience in a managerial position. Data were collected and analysed anonymously through an online survey and via the data-collection service on Mind Garden, an international publisher of psychological assessments leading the industry in providing tools to facilitate positive personal and organisational transformation. The participants were contacted mainly via email or phone and asked for permission prior to data collection. At this time, they were also informed and advised about the importance and purpose of the study. Participants were asked to record their responses according to the instructions given in each questionnaire and were lastly thanked for their collaboration in the research and the study. Two instruments evaluating specific aspects of coping resources were used to explore whether these resources were related to executive well-being in middle age. Instruments were administered online and individually. Administration time/date was determined in advance at the convenience of the executive.

2.2 Participants

Data were collected through a self-administered set of two-questionnaires. The survey comprised 100 executives in the Czech Republic (57 male and 43 female). The age range of the sample was between 35 and 65 years. Length of time working in an organisation was M = 4.71 and SD = 1.95. Length of time working in the current position was M = 3.94 and SD = 1.69.

2.3 Instruments

1. The Coping Resources Inventory (CRI) of Marting & Hammer (1988, 2004) was used. Leaders use tools to help them better manage stressors, to show less or less intense symptoms when exposed to the stressor or recover more rapidly from exposure to it. For this study, a model of means of coping was adopted, representing a bio-psycho-social conceptualisation. The scale contains five aspects, including emotional (16 items), social (13 items), physical (11 items), cognitive (9 items), and spiritual/philosophical (11 items) coping resources.

2. The Five Factor Wellness Inventory (FFWI) is an inventory of higher- and second-order wellness factors and discrete scales developed by Myers & Sweeney (2004) to measure areas related to the life tasks suggested by Adler and to gather a total score of well-being in relation to one's indivisible self (Jang et al. 2012; Myers et al. 2011; Wolf at al. 2014). It is an evidence-based tool used to assess wellness characteristics as a basis for helping individuals make choices for healthier living and was developed through structural equation modelling analysis of a large database from the Wellness Evaluation of Lifestyle.

According to Jang et al. (2012) and Myers et al. (2011), the FFWI uses a response format with items that reflect self-statements based on life tasks. It has been shown to have good reliability coefficients ranging from 0.82–0.96. Based on Myers et al. (2000), wellness is a way of life oriented towards optimal well-being and health in which one is integrated in terms of body, spirit, and mind to live more comfortably in the natural and human community. These instruments are designed to assist individuals in making healthier lifestyle choices on the basis of a model for wellness, the so-called 'Indivisible Self' (Myers & Sweeney, 2004).

2.4 Research design

Data analysis in the proposed research began with an assessment of one set of independent variables. This set of independent variables was categorised based on the scale on which they were measured. In particular, these categories of independent variables included coping resource inventory scores (i.e., cognitive, social, emotional, spiritual/philosophical, and physical). Analysis of these independent variables took place with one stage dedicated to the assessment of a predictive relationship between the set of independent variables and the dependent variable of overall well-being. For each of these stages, a series of two regressions were conducted, with one for each of the sets of independent variables (i.e., coping resources). This method allowed us to control for each category of independent variables when assessing each specific independent variable within a category (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). This benefit of regression analysis allowed us to determine which of the coping resources were most significant out of their group. For this reason, the regression analysis was chosen as the method.

Outlier detection was also performed, and normality was assessed for this model. The results were interpreted using a Q-Q plot, and by assessing for deviations from the ideal normal line, as per Field's (2013) suggestion. Homoscedasticity was assessed using a residual scatter plot.

A Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated for the CRI and FFWI scales. The items for both instruments had an acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficient in the range of 0.75–0.93.

Table 1 | Reliability test

Scale		Cronbach's alpha α
CRI		
	Physical	0.79
	Spiritual / philosophical	0.80
	Emotional	0.82
	Social	0.79
	Cognitive	0.75
FFWEL		
	Physical self	0.86
	Essential self	0.80
	Social self	0.93
	Coping self	0.87
	Creative self	0.91

Note: Cronbach's alpha is interpreted based on George and Mallery (2016) where > 0.9 excellent, > 0.8 good, > 0.7 acceptable, > 0.6 questionable, > 0.5 poor, and ≤ 0.5 unacceptable.

Source: authors

Further analysis through a correlation matrix revealed several significant correlations between the subscales of the CRI and the FFWI All subscales from the CRI had at least one significant relationship with a subscale of the FFWI scale. The spiritual or philosophical subscale had the least number of significant correlations with the FFWI, correlating only with essential self. Of the FFWI subscales, physical self had the least amount of correlations with the CRI, correlating only with physical and emotional subscales. Table 2 provides these correlations, as well as means and standard deviations for each subscale of the CRI and FFWI.

Table 2 | Correlations and Descriptive Statistics for FFWEL and CRI

CRI scale	FFWEL Subscales					
	Physical Self	**Essential Self**	**Social Self**	**Coping Self**	**Creative Self**	*M (SD)*
Physical	0.67**	0.25*	0.03	0.48**	0.16	29.34 (4.26)
Spiritual or Philosophical	0.13	0.61**	0.09	0.18	0.07	29.95 (4.96)
Emotional	0.22*	0.16	0.36**	0.39**	0.50**	46.79 (5.72)
Social	0.05	0.20*	0.29**	0.27**	0.38**	39.87 (4.89)
Cognitive	0.19	0.23*	0.23*	0.50**	0.44**	27.39 (3.87)
M (SD)	75.73 (13.71)	74.13 (10.87)	89.73 (12.40)	75.8 (9.86)	82.03 (8.72)	

Note: * significant at the $p < .05$ level, ** significant at the $p < .01$ level.

Source: authors

2.5 Regressions on Significant Variables with Controls

After conducting each of the correlations above to collect evidence for significant independent variables of Total Well-being, each independent variable that was expected to be significantly predictive of the dependent variables of Total Well-being was collected and used in a final regression for that corresponding well-being score. This stage allowed the

variables for multiple surveys to be combined into a single regression, which would determine whether an independent variable was genuinely predictive of the well-being score or whether their predictive ability was better explained using a different variable (Stevens, 2016). This controlled for the effect of each variable, such that more accurate predictions could be made based on the known values for each coping resource subscale. To add to this accuracy, control variables were also entered, consisting of participant age, gender, and time in their current position. Control variables were entered into the first stage of the regression to understand their collective effect, and to compare this to the effect of the coping resources.

The first stage of the regression included controls for gender, age, and the length of time in the participant's current position. The inclusion of these covariates ensured that none of the results would be overly influenced by an effect of any such trait, resulting in outcomes that are generalisable to both genders, all ages, and those who have worked in their position for any length of time. The final stage of the regression of the Total Well-being scale included the cognitive, social, emotional, spiritual/philosophical, and physical scales for coping resources. Prior to the assessment, the data required assessment for applicability and an ability to contribute to the calculation of accurate results. To this end, outliers, normality and homoscedasticity were reviewed. VIFs were assessed to check for the effect of multicollinearity.

3 Results

The results for the first stage were not significant, $F(3, 91) = 1.52$, $p = 0.214$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.05$, AIC = 361.78. This model indicates that total wellness was not likely related to the participants' gender, age, or time spent in their position. However, retention of these control variables allows results that are better adjusted to account for the different genders, ages, and tenures present in the sample. The results for the second stage were significant, $F(5, 86) = 32.07$, $p < 0.001$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.62$, AIC = 267.60. Comparison of these results indicated that the combined effect of cognitive, social, emotional, spiritual/philosophical, and physical coping explained an additional 61.98% of the variation in total wellness. Comparison of the AIC values confirmed that the model fit was an improvement such that the final model should be selected for further interpretation.

Cognitive coping ($B = 0.56$, $t(86) = 3.68$, $p < 0.001$), emotional coping ($B = 0.25$, $t(86) = 2.38$, $p = 0.019$), spiritual/philosophical coping ($B = 0.41$, $t(86) = 4.71$, $p < 0.001$), and physical coping ($B = 0.50$, $t(86) = 4.86$, $p < 0.001$) were all predictive of total wellbeing after both controlling for the remaining coping resources and after controlling for ages, genders and lengths of time in the current position within the sample. All the included coping resources were positively related to total well-being, indicating that higher levels of cognitive coping, emotional coping, spiritual/philosophical coping, and physical coping were associated with greater total well-being. This as a result validates our hypotheses – more than one coping resource are significantly related to well-being and a positive relationship between coping resources, and overall well-being is significant. In mathematical terms, total well-being can be predicted using the following regression equation:

Total Well-being = 30.19 + 0.56*Cognitive + 0.25*Emotional + 0.41*Spiritual Philosophical + 0.50*Physical

Table 3 | Results for Linear Regression

Variable	B	SE	95% CI	β	t	P	VIF
(Intercept)	29.12	4.21	[20.76, 37.48]	0.00	6.92	< 0.001	-
Gender/Female	-0.34	0.85	[-2.03, 1.36]	-0.03	-0.39	0.695	1.16
Age35-64	0.18	0.85	[-1.51, 1.86]	0.01	0.21	0.836	1.11
Cognitive	0.50	0.14	[0.22, 0.78]	0.31	3.58	< 0.001	1.90
Emotional	0.20	0.09	[0.02, 0.39]	0.18	2.16	0.034	1.81
Spiritual/Philosophical	0.40	0.09	[0.23, 0.58]	0.31	4.61	< 0.001	1.16
Physical	0.51	0.11	[0.30, 0.72]	0.34	4.81	< 0.001	1.29
Working/Position	-0.12	0.24	[-0.59, 0.36]	-0.03	-0.49	0.625	1.04

Note. Results: $F_{(8.86)} = 21.22$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.66$

Source: authors

4 Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between coping resources as measured by the Coping Resources Inventory (CRI) and reported perceived total well-being level as measured by the Five-Factor Wellness Inventory (FFWI. The results of the study support the predictions of the hypothesis. Almost all coping resources (excluding social coping) were positively related to Total Well-being, indicating that higher levels of cognitive, emotional, spiritual/philosophical, and physical coping were associated with higher Total Well-being among a sample of executive participants. As such, our hypotheses were confirmed that coping resources are significantly related to well-being $F(5, 86) = 32.07$, $p < 0.001$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.62$, AIC = 267.60. Comparison of these results indicated that the combined effect of cognitive, social, emotional, spiritual/philosophical, and physical coping explained an additional 61.98% of the variation in Total Well-being. Cognitive coping (B = 0.56, t(86) = 3.68, p < 0.001), emotional coping (B = 0.25, t(86) = 2.38, p = 0.019), spiritual/philosophical coping (B = 0.41, t(86) = 4.71, p < 0.001), and physical coping (B = 0.50, t(86) = 4.86, p < 0.001) were all predictive of total wellbeing after both controlling for the remaining coping resources.

This result is also in accordance with previous findings that show a meaningful relationship between well-being and coping resources. Previous studies have shown that overall psychological well-being, achievement, and ability to cope with stressful life events are all highly correlated (Cooper et al., 2009; Dewe, O'Driscoll, & Cooper, 2010). Such research has also shown that a positive sense of self-worth, optimism about life in general, and a positive outlook towards others are cognitive resources or health-promoting behaviours that enable physical coping and are principal elements for ensuring an elevated level of well-being. Furthermore, executives might be able to better recognise stressful events as more natural and to propose steps and strategies for responding more effectively when guided by stable and consistent values derived from familial, religious, or cultural tradition and/or from personal philosophy as spiritual/philosophical coping resources. All the included coping resources were positively correlated with Total Well-being, thereby indicating that higher levels of cognitive coping, emotional coping, spiritual/philosophical coping, and physical coping were associated with higher Total Well-being.

Interestingly, however, social coping resources showed no direct association with executive well-being. As mentioned before, social coping resources are the degree to which executives are engaged in social networks that are able to provide support in times of stress. These resources also encompass how others treat executives and how executives believe others will treat them in the future. Given the important implications for how executives think about themselves, we would propose further research into the idea of whether executives are reluctant to use social coping resources in order not to jeopardise their role or if it is because they have gradually lost the ability of in-depth, authentic communication.

In order to cultivate growth and live fully healthy lives, we suggest that executives live and work with a deep sense of personal integrity and character (Quick, Gavin, Cooper & Quick, 2004; Gavin, Quick, Cooper & Quick, 2003). In an in-depth interpersonal communication, a dialogue occurs in which executives are able to enhance their health and further approach greater authenticity. Furthermore, in-depth interpersonal communication is the key to building supportive, positive, and healthy relationships in the workplace and is essential to working in a group (Macik-Frey, Quick & Quick, in press).

Executives play a key role in the enterprises that employ them. Healthy managers and a healthy working environment contribute to high-level effectiveness and a functioning workforce and improve general satisfaction. Our findings suggest that proactive coping is an effective strategy for increasing the total level of executive well-being. In addition, our findings indicate that emotional support has a positive impact on the well-being and the overall performance of leaders.

The outcomes of this research should be considered whilst bearing in mind its potential limitations. First, ours was a relatively small study of a sample of 100 executives in the Czech Republic. The small sample size restricts the statistical power of the results. Second, the interpretations recorded here are our own. Of course, we have taken steps to protect the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants, but their reactions to the results could be a sensitive matter, and therefore, some of the executives' real health data could differ from that recorded here. Finally, although the response rate of 79% in the current study is significantly better than that seen in most similar studies, this could still cast some doubt on the external validity of the conclusions.

Conclusions

In this study, we observed principal elements related to coping resources. First, we observed that those executives who could balance resources more effectively were better able to cope with stress at work, and therefore perceived themselves as having a better state of well-being. The study also found that spiritual, cognitive, emotional, and physical areas of well-being tend to be key contributing factors to the perception of well-being among executives. Achievement of well-being involves a significant personal effort, and for the executives in this study this could be influenced by a range of factors, such as work satisfaction, work-related stress, and coping resources. Executives are essential human resources who play a crucial role in the success or failure of any organisation. The efficiency and performance of leaders in organisations are significant for organisational

sustainability and future success. Further studies should consider a separate set of samples obtained from different regions or type of organisations.

Acknowledgements

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