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Quality of Life in Workplace: Hedonic and Eudaimonic Wellbeing in Predicting Work Engagement

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Abstract

The primary objective of this investigation was to assess the impact of well-being, elucidated through hedonic and eudaimonic dimensions, on the prediction of Work Engagement (WE). Subjective well-being (SWB), embodying a hedonic framework, and psychological well-being (PWB), encapsulating a eudaimonic perspective, constituted the focal constructs under examination. The study encompassed a cohort of 327 participants, stratified across three stages of analysis (110 individuals in stage 1, 217 participants in stage 2, and the entirety of the research subjects in stage 3). The initial stage scrutinized employees of Javanese ethnicity domiciled in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, for a minimum of 3 years, with a work tenure exceeding 1 year. Stage 2 featured a more diverse subject pool, encompassing individuals from various ethnic backgrounds and possessing a work tenure of over 1 year. The purpose of Stage 2 was to assess the consistency of predictive patterns across subjects with diverse backgrounds. Utilizing the principal component analysis method, the results of factor analysis in Stage 1 revealed disparities from those in Stages 2 and 3. In Stage 1, SWB and PWB exhibited multiple components, whereas in Stages 2 and 3, they were more distinctly discerned as separate factors influencing WE. Notably, PWB emerged as a more potent predictor of WE compared to SWB. Consequently, it is

deduced that, for the accurate prediction of WE, a eudaimonic conceptualization of well-being holds greater efficacy than its hedonic counterpart.

Keywords: Subjective Well-being, Psychological Well-being, Work Engagement, Eudaimonic, Hedonic.

1. Introduction

The labour force necessitates employees who are willing to invest themselves fully in their work, demonstrating a high level of commitment, proactivity, and attachment to their professional roles (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Individuals exhibiting elevated levels of WE tend to optimize their performance, deriving enjoyment from their work (Bakker & Bal, 2010) and fostering a profound sense of loyalty towards their employing organization (Agyemang & Ofei, 2013). Such highly engaged workers operate with passion and diligence, actively contributing to the advancement of their organization's objectives (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011), consequently exhibiting lower rates of absenteeism (Berger et al., 2011). It is noteworthy that work engagement not only accrues benefits to individuals but also redounds to organizational advantages (Bakker et al., 2008). Cultivating a workforce characterized by heightened work involvement emerges as a pivotal factor in outperforming competitors (Macey & Schneider, 2008), given that employees with substantial work engagement substantially enhance productivity and overall organizational effectiveness (Nugroho & Ratnawati, 2021).

Historically, the concept of engagement was initially introduced as a broad construct, gaining prominence through the work of Law et al. (1998). Nevertheless, its conceptual evolution unfolded notably within the work domain, as expounded by Bakker and Demerouti (2008). This conceptual progression led to the emergence of what is now recognized as work engagement, a term that has garnered scholarly attention since the early 21st century. The delineation of work engagement involves a tripartite state encompassing vigour, absorption, and dedication, as posited by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). Vigour is typified by a positive and robust mental state, manifesting as energy, a proactive work disposition, a motivation to accomplish tasks, and resilience in confronting workplace challenges. Dedication entails a profound involvement in one's

job, characterized by a sense of purpose, enthusiasm, pride, inspiration, and an appreciation for challenges. Conversely, absorption pertains to an optimal experiential state, marked by focused attention, diminished self-awareness, temporal distortion, and an intrinsic pleasure derived from the engagement in one's work (Bakker et al., 2011).

Work engagement is subject to the influence of two pivotal factors, namely job resources and personal resources. Job resources encompass external dimensions, including physical, social, and organizational aspects, originating beyond the individual worker's intrinsic attributes. In contrast, personal resources involve constructive self-appraisals associated with resilience, embodying the individual's perception of their capacity to exercise control and exert a positive influence on their environment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

This research focuses on the impact of personal sources of work engagement factors on employees, aligning with previous findings indicating that both subjective well-being and psychological well-being influence work engagement. Studies by Aiello and Tesi (2017), Hutagalung (2018), and Simanullang and Ratnaningsih (2019) affirm the positive relationships between psychological well-being and work engagement. Çankır and Şahin (2018) further elaborate on the role of psychological well-being in work engagement. Additionally, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) emphasizes the connection between work engagement and various aspects such as attitudes, behaviour, goals, psychological health, well-being, and personality traits. Moreover, subjective well-being, alongside psychological well-being, contributes to enhanced job satisfaction, as evidenced by research conducted by Bakker and Oerlemans (2011), Eid and Larsen (2008), and Sahai and Mahapatra (2020).

The theoretical distinction between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being is rooted in philosophical traditions, as expounded by Delle Fave et al. (2011). However, empirical evidence demonstrating a differential relationship between these two concepts and external criteria remains scarce, as noted by Huta and Waterman (2014) and Joshanloo (2014). Addressing this gap entails an exploration of how hedonic and eudaimonic approaches individually contribute to the prediction of work engagement.

Considering various research findings, it is discerned that two distinct well-being concepts, namely Psychological Well-Being (PWB) and Subjective Well-Being (SWB), have the potential to predict the level of work engagement. Notably, there is a dearth of studies that comprehensively analyse the combined impact of PWB and SWB on work engagement. Consequently, this study seeks to address this research gap by concurrently investigating the influence of PWB and SWB on work engagement. The anticipated outcome of this research is to augment the existing body of literature on work engagement.

To assess the consistency of Psychological Well-Being (PWB) and Subjective Well-Being (SWB) in predicting work engagement, three analytical stages (Stage 1, Stage 2, and Stage 3) were conducted. The analysis considered the impact of cultural background variations on study outcomes, as evidenced by Diener, Tay, and Oishi (2013), Oishi and Gilbert (2016), and Diener et al. (1999). The disparity in results between Stage 2 and Stage 1 is attributed to differences in the cultural backgrounds of the subjects under investigation. Stage 3 encompassed a larger subject pool, with all research subjects analysed in this stage.

The conceptualization of well-being involves a cognitive representation reflecting the nature and experiential aspects of well-being. Subjective well-being, characterized by a hedonic welfare perspective, centres on how individuals conceptualize and contemplate the essence of well-being (King & Napa, 1998; McMahan & Estes, 2011). This paradigm accentuates the extent to which individuals define well-being within a hedonic context, emphasizing pleasurable experiences. Kahneman (1999) categorizes this form of well-being as pleasure or happiness, contrasting it with pain. On the other hand, psychological well-being adopts a eudaimonic welfare approach, viewing well-being not solely as happiness but as the realization of one's potential. Coined as eudaimonism by Waterman (2008), this perspective posits that well-being involves the belief in actualizing prosperity and one's true nature, referred to as daemon.

Psychological well-being and subjective well-being are two facets of well-being. Subjective well-being aligns with hedonic well-being, emphasizing life satisfaction, positive influence, and minimizing negative influence. It centres on

seeking pleasure and satisfaction, with a focus on the reasons behind activities and the pursuit of goals. On the other hand, psychological well-being is part of eudaimonic well-being, concentrating on positive relationships, personal growth, life goals, autonomy, and self-acceptance. Eudaimonic well-being prioritizes feelings of meaning, purpose, and authenticity in life, emphasizing the pursuit of intrinsic value and personal growth, rather than external outcomes or goals.

The coexistence of these dual approaches in elucidating mental well-being variables enriches our comprehension and underscores the intricate nature of these constructs. However, prioritizing the individual understanding of each concept becomes paramount for elucidating and forecasting the presence of a singular variable (Delle Fave et al., 2011). In alignment with this perspective, Jacoby and Jaccard (2010) contend that an enhanced understanding of the inherent nature of mental well-being can be attained by scrutinizing the relationships between extant variables and the latent patterns that underlie such relationships. Hence, the research endeavours to unravel a more profound understanding of the intrinsic nature of mental well-being.

2. Literature Review and Hypothesis

2.1. Work Engagement

Work engagement comprises three distinct components. Vigour is typified by heightened energy levels and mental resilience during work, a genuine commitment to investing effort in tasks, and a persistent approach in the face of diverse challenges. Dedication manifests as an intense involvement of workers in their tasks, accompanied by a profound sense of meaning, elevated enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and a keen inclination towards challenges. The features of Absorption are evident in workers demonstrating complete and focused concentration on their tasks, with a perception that working time elapses swiftly, making it challenging for them to disengage from their work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Prior research has extensively examined the impact of PWB and SWB on WE. Findings indicate that both PWB and SWB have a partial influence on work engagement, as demonstrated by studies highlighting the significant role of psychological well-being in work engagement (Aiello & Tesi, 2017; Bakker et al., 2008;

Çankır & Şahin, 2018; Hutagalung, 2018; Simanullang & Ratnaningsih, 2019). Moreover, subjective well-being, as affirmed by Bakker and Oerlemans (2011), Eid and Larsen (2008), and Sahai and Mahapatra (2020), also contributes to enhancing employee work engagement in the workplace.

No prior research has concurrently investigated the respective roles of PWB and SWB in WE. Consequently, this study aims to scrutinize the distinct contributions of eudaimonic and hedonic welfare dimensions to work engagement. Additionally, a lingering debate surrounds the causal relationship between work engagement and well-being. Research positing work engagement as a consequence of well-being has been advanced by Aiello and Tesi (2017); Hutagalung (2018), Simanullang and Ratnaningsih (2019), Çankır and Şahin (2018), and Bakker and Demerouti (2008). Conversely, research by Shuck and Reio Jr (2014) contends that work engagement serves as a determinant of well-being, with highly engaged employees demonstrating elevated psychological well-being.

2.2.Hedonic and Eudaimonic Well-Being

Positive psychology, extensively explored for its contributions to well-being, happiness, and mental health, differentiates between hedonic well-being (Kahneman, Diener, & Schwarz, 1999) and eudaimonic well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Singer, 1998; Waterman, 2008). The hedonic perspective centres on happiness, defining well-being in terms of attaining pleasure and averting pain (Kahneman, 1999). Subjective Well-Being (SWB), as posited by Kahneman et al. (1999), comprises a cognitive evaluation component related to life satisfaction and an affective component characterized by a prevalence of positive over negative emotions. In contrast, the eudaimonic perspective associates well-being with meaning and self-realization, framing it as an individual's capacity to function effectively in their environment (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Specifically termed PWB by Ryff and Singer (1998), this approach prioritizes life's meaning, authenticity, and personal goals (Waterman, 2008). A concise comparison of hedonic and eudaimonic concepts is presented in Table 1.

SWB encompasses a broad spectrum of phenomena, encapsulating an

individual's emotional response, satisfaction within specific domains, and overall assessments of life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999). SWB comprises two principal components, delineated as cognitive and affective components (Diener et al., 2000). The cognitive facet pertains to overall life satisfaction (LS), while the affective component encompasses positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA). Compton (2005) elucidates that gauging someone's happiness necessitates an inquiry into their emotional state and sentiments regarding themselves and the surrounding world. Consequently, an affective aspect is inherent when individuals evaluate their happiness, whereas assessing life satisfaction involves more conscious cognitive considerations. Individuals are deemed to exhibit high SWB if they express life satisfaction, frequently experience joy, and infrequently encounter unpleasant emotions such as sadness or anger (Diener et al., 2000). Conversely, individuals are categorized as having low SWB if they harbour dissatisfaction with their lives, experience limited joy and affection, and encounter negative emotions like anger or anxiety more frequently.

Table 1: Overview of Variances.

Framework	Hedonic well-being	Eudaimonic well-being
Concept	High life satisfaction, high positive affect, low negative affect: focus on feeling "good" and satisfied about one's life	Positive relationships, personal growth, life purpose, mastery, autonomy, and self-acceptance: focus on feeling meaning, purpose, and authenticity in one's life
Disposition	Enjoyment-oriented: focus on underlying reason for activities and behaviours	Engaging in authentic and growth-oriented activities and behaviours is driven by fundamental motives
Goal	Pursuing satisfaction and enjoyment: Desired result and motivation for goal pursuit	Pursuing satisfaction and enjoyment: Desired result and motivation for goal pursuit
Measurement of the concept of well-being	SWLS (Diener, 2013) and PANAS (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)	PWB (Ryff & Singer, 1998)

Psychological well-being, as outlined by Ryff and Singer (1998), encompasses positive attitudes toward oneself and others, the ability to make independent decisions, self-regulation, and the capacity to foster a conducive environment aligned with personal needs, facilitating self-exploration and development. According to

Guerra-Bustamante et al. (2019), psychological well-being entails kindness, harmony, and positive relationships, both individually and within groups. In a workplace context, Berger et al. (2011) characterize psychological well-being as motivation, work engagement, positive energy, enjoyment of tasks, and long-term job commitment. Hamama-Raz, Ben-Ezra, and Lavenda (2021) emphasizes that wholehearted engagement in activities and successful interpersonal relationships are key components of psychological well-being, fundamentally rooted in finding meaning in life. Measurement of eudaimonic well-being, following Ryff (1989) framework, involves assessing six aspects of positive functioning, encompassing autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life, positive relations with others, and self-acceptance, evaluated through self-reporting on the Scales of Psychological Well-Being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

Certain philosophers posit that life satisfaction may be construed as a facet of eudaimonia (Ng & Feldman, 2008), while empirical evidence consistently designates life satisfaction as a hedonistic element (Joshanloo & Weijers, 2019). Although the nomological network encompassing these distinct concepts remains underexplored, existing evidence, though somewhat limited, suggests a discernible differential relationship between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being and external criteria. Prior investigations by Huta and Waterman (2014) and Joshanloo (2014) have delved into the disparities between these well-being paradigms. This study aims to further assess empirical distinctions between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being, utilizing a sizable sample from South Korea. The exploration involves scrutinizing associations among three widely utilized indicators of hedonic well-being (life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect), two frequently employed indicators of eudaimonic well-being (psychological well-being and social well-being), and five criterion variables (self-control, long-term planning, search for sensation, fortitude, and intellectualism). Despite the existing body of literature, no studies have comprehensively examined the distinctions between eudaimonic and hedonic well-being and their respective roles in work engagement. Thus, the primary objective of this research is to elucidate the variances in the impact of eudaimonic and hedonic well-being on work engagement.

2.3.The Role of Hedonic and Eudaimonic Well-Being in Predicting Work

Engagement

Hedonic well-being and eudaimonic well-being are theoretically distinct concepts, yet empirical evidence is required to elucidate their differences. Existing research suggests conceptual and empirical distinctions between the two perspectives of welfare (Olson et al., 2014; Rush & Misajon, 2018), despite some interchangeability (Sahai & Mahapatra, 2020). The high correlation (r = 0.70) between hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives, though debated (Ramzan & Rana, 2014), indicates potential overlap, as affirmed by Keyes, Shmotkin, and Ryff (2002) factor analysis. This study addresses the research gap by investigating whether hedonic and eudaimonic well-being differ in predicting work engagement. Ryff (1989) and Diener, Sapyta, and Suh (1998) highlight that individuals may possess one type of well-being while lacking the other, emphasizing the need for separate assessments. While a combined factor is possible (Keyes et al., 2002), each alone fails to provide a comprehensive understanding of health experiences.

The link between psychological well-being and work engagement, particularly in the absorption aspect, has been established by Aiello and Tesi (2017). Hutagalung (2018) discovered a positive influence of subjective well-being on teacher attachment, and for nurses, Simanullang and Ratnaningsih (2019) identified a significant positive relationship between psychological well-being and work engagement. Çankır and Şahin (2018) also confirmed the role of psychological well-being in work engagement. While both hedonic and eudaimonic welfare contribute to predicting work engagement, it remains unclear which is more stable in this prediction. This research aims to ascertain the stability of each welfare type in predicting work engagement, providing insights for enhancing employee engagement. Two research stages, namely Stage 1 and Stage 2, are employed, with Stage 2 replicating Stage 1 while incorporating additional subjects and variations in background factors that may influence the strength of welfare predictions on work engagement.

3. Methods

Our analysis unfolded in three stages. Stage 1 focused on subjects within a uniform occupational field and shared cultural background. In Stage 2, subjects with a more diverse range of occupations and cultural origins were included. Finally, Stage

3 encompassed the research subjects examined in both Stages 1 and 2.

3.1. Research Analysis: Stage 1 (S1)

In the initial phase, a total of 110 subjects underwent analysis. These subjects exhibited homogeneous characteristics in terms of their occupational field, employment status, duration of residence in the local culture, and affiliation with the community where they worked and lived. The specific characteristics of these subjects included: (1) registration as paramedics with employment in hospitals and health centres, (2) Javanese individuals with a residence or upbringing in Yogyakarta for more than 10 years; (3) engagement in work within the DIY Health Office; (4) possessing a minimum education level equivalent to SLA, (5) aged between 20 and 60 years, and (6) having a minimum of 1 year of service.

3.2. Research Data Collection Methods

The study employs a quantitative research design, encompassing variables related to subjective well-being, psychological well-being, and work engagement.

Hedonic well-being is operationalized through subjective well-being (SWB), comprising cognitive and affective components. The cognitive facet, termed life satisfaction, is assessed using the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) developed by Eid and Larsen (2009), consisting of 5 items rated on a 6-point scale (1= “very slightly or not at all”; 6 = "extremely"). The affective component of SWB is evaluated through the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule-Trait (PANAS) developed by Watson et al. (1988). This instrument comprises 20 items across two subscales, measuring an individual's positive and negative trait affect, employing a 6-point scale (1= “very slightly or not at all”; 6=” extremely").

Eudaimonic well-being was assessed using the PWBS developed by Ryff (1989), encompassing six dimensions: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. This scale comprises 18 items rated on a 6-point scale (1= “very slightly or not at all”; 6=” extremely”).

Work engagement was gauged through the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) developed by Schaufeli et al. (2017). Work engagement involves three

indicators: (1) vigour, denoting high levels of energy, mental resilience, and commitment to work; (2) dedication, characterized by enthusiasm, inspiration, and pride in one's work; and (3) absorption, reflecting deep concentration and immersion in work, with a sense of time passing quickly and difficulty disengaging. The UWES scale consists of 17 statements, with responses ranging from 1 to 6, describing the frequency with which the respondent experiences each item.

Psychometric properties of the four measuring instruments were assessed for 309 respondents, including the range of correlation coefficients for item-total correlation and Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for each instrument, as presented in Table 2.

3.3.Data Analysis Methods

The initial analysis employs factor analysis utilizing the PCA method. PCA is applied to discern the impact of factors on SWB components, including LS, PA, and NA, as well as PWB components, AA, EM, PG, PR, PL, and SA. This analysis aims to determine whether these well-being aspects form a singular factor or distinct factors. The second analysis involves multiple regression analysis, utilizing the stepwise method, to elucidate the relative contributions of SWB and PWB in the development of work engagement (refer to Table 2).

Table 2: Attribute Psychometric Research Measurement Scale.

Measurement Scale	Abbreviation	Number of Items	Range correction coefficient item-total correlation	Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient
Life Satisfaction	LS	5	0.37–0.40	0.627
HEAT				
Positive Affect	AP	10	0.21–0.58	0.747
Negative Affect	AN	10	0.25–0.47	0.744
SWB	SWB			
PWB	PWB	18	0.30–0.58	0.831
Work Engagement	WE	17	0.21–0.54	0.773

Table 2 illustrates that all measurement instruments assessing hedonic and

eudaimonic welfare in this study exhibit satisfactory Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients. In the subsequent factor analysis using principal component analysis, latent variables representing unspecified factors, derived from both SWB and PWB aspects, were incorporated. The SWB aspects include LS, PA, and NA, while the PWB aspects comprise autonomy (AA), EM, PG, positive relations (PR, PL, & SA).

3.4. Research Analysis: Stage 2 (S2)

The analysis in Stage 2 of the research mirrors that of Stage 1 in methodologies, data collection, and data analysis, with the sole distinction lying in the variation in background characteristics and the number of research subjects.

In Stage 2, a comprehensive analysis was conducted on 217 subjects. The subjects in Stage 2 exhibited diverse characteristics, encompassing variations in their occupational field, employment status, duration of residence in the local culture, and cultural affiliations with the community where they worked and lived. Detailed demographic information for the Stage 2 research subjects is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Demographic Characteristics of Research Subjects.

Characteristics	Items	S 1	S 2
		n = 110 (%)	n = 217 (%)
Sex	Male	24 (22)	72 (33)
	Female	86 (78)	145 (67)
Age (years)	Mean	39.22	26.75
	Standard Deviation	9.19	7.04
	Range	23 – 57	18 – 45
Ethnicity	Central Javanese	110 (100)	84 (39)
	Sundanese		31 (14)
	East Javanese		26 (12)
	Bugis		24 (11)
	Batak		20 (9)
	Ambon		19 (9)
	Others		13 (6)
Employment status	Private		128 (59)
	Public sector	110 (100)	45 (21)
	Entrepreneur		33 (15)
	Others		11 (5)

As presented in Table 3, Stage 1 comprised a total of 110 research subjects, with a gender distribution of 22% male and 78% female. In Stage 2, there were 217 subjects,

with a gender distribution of 33% male and 67% female. Stage 1 subjects, aged between 23 and 57 years, were predominantly Javanese and engaged in public sector occupations. In contrast, Stage 2 subjects, aged between 18 and 45 years, exhibited greater ethnic diversity, encompassing Javanese (39%), Sundanese (14%), East Javanese (12%), Bugis (11%), Batak (9%), Ambon (9%), and individuals from other ethnicities (6%). The occupational composition of Stage 2 research subjects included private employees (21%), civil servants (15%), entrepreneurs (15%), and individuals in various other fields (5%).

3.5. Research Analysis: Stage 3 (S3)

The data analysed in Stage 3 encompass the information derived from research subjects included in both Stages 1 and 2. In essence, the Stage 3 analysis constitutes the amalgamation of the research conducted in Stages 1 and 2. Consequently, the analysis in Stage 3 incorporates a larger number of subjects compared to the analyses in Stages 1 and 2. The total number of subjects included in Stage 3 was 327 individuals (with 110 research subjects from Stage 1 and 217 from Stage 2).

4. Results

Before undertaking factor analysis, a prerequisite examination involving the determination of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) value and Bartlett's test is imperative. This step is taken to ascertain the correlation among the variables and to ensure that the sample size is adequate for analysis (Ghozali, 2006). As depicted in Table 3, the KMO values consistently exceeded 0.50, indicating suitability for factor analysis (Ghozali, 2006; Usman & Sobari, 2013). Additionally, the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity, with a value of 0.000, suggests that the data meet the requisite conditions for further analysis, as the obtained significance value is <0.05 (Table 4).

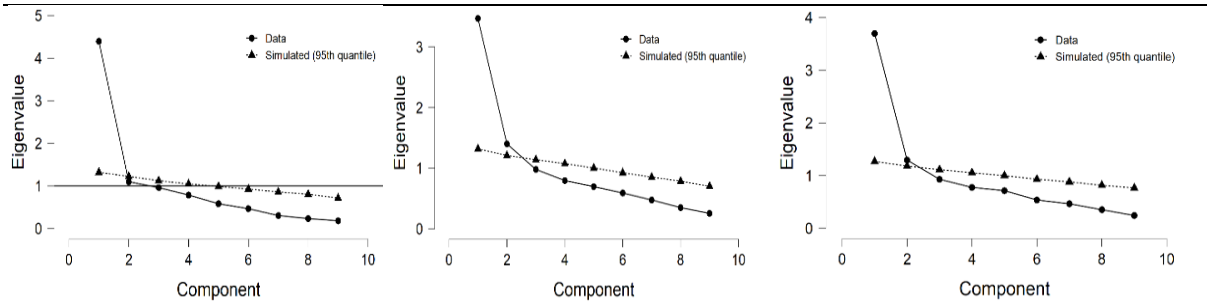
Table 4: KMO and Bartlett's Test.

		S-1	S-2	S-3
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		0.838	0.810	0.832
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	461,557	582,097	954,362
	df	36	36	36
	Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.000

Following the acquisition of KMO and Bartlett values, the subsequent phase of analysis involved factor extraction. Factor extraction seeks to identify the minimal number of factors that can effectively represent the interrelationships among variables (Misajon, Pallant, & Bliuc, 2016). As outlined by Widarjono (2010), this method compresses data from various indicators into a smaller set of factors to elucidate the relationships among observed indicators. Principal axis factoring was employed as the method for factor extraction in this study. The total variance explained table illustrates the proportion of a factor's variance contributing to the overall variance of the factor (De Clercq et al., 2014). Table 4 reveals initial Eigenvalues greater than one for Factor 1 and Factor 2, with subsequent factors exhibiting initial eigenvalues below 1. Across stages 1, 2, and 3, these two factors collectively explain 61.065%, 54.107%, and 55.459% of the overall factor variation, respectively. The first factor elucidates 48.870%, 38.548%, and 41.084% of the total variance, while the second factor explains 12.195%, 15.559%, and 14.375%. Table 5 and Figure 1 present the eigenvalues.

Table 5: Initial Eigenvalues.

Component	Total%	Variance	Cumulative%
		S 1	
1	43.98	48.870	48.870
2	1,098	12.195	61.065
3–9	<1.0		
		S 2	
1	34.69	38.548	38.548
2	1,400	15.559	54.107
3–9	<1.0		
		S 3	
1	3.698	41.084	41.084
2	1,294	14.375	55.459
3 – 9	< 1.0		



S 1 **S 2** **S 3**

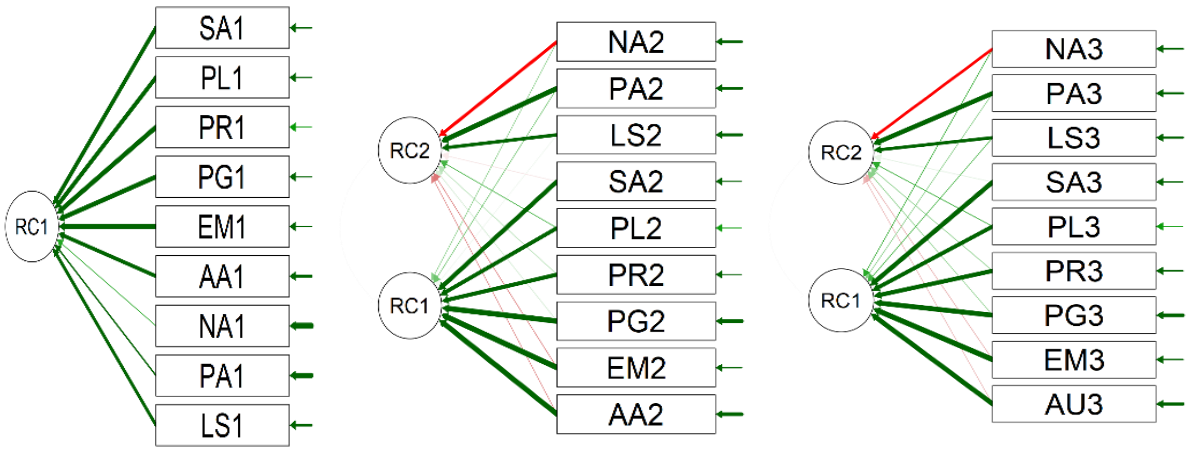
Figure 1: Displays the Scree Plot derived from the Principal Component Analysis.

Following factor extraction, factor rotation was implemented using the varimax rotation technique. This method aims to generate a set of variables demonstrating a robust relationship within one factor while exhibiting no association with other variables (De Clercq et al., 2014). According to Costello and Osborne (2019), a well-fitting factor structure should have factor loadings surpassing 0.3, ensuring the absence of cross-loadings, and each factor should encompass a minimum of three items.

As illustrated in Table 6, following varimax rotation in stage 1, only one principal component exhibited a close correlation among all existing aspects. The component of NA is observed to have a loading of less than 0.30 for its components, preventing its inclusion in one group of existing components. In both stage 2 and stage 3, two principal components emerge. Component 1 comprises LS, PA, and NA, while component 2 encompasses the aspects of AA, EM, PG, PR, PL, and SA. These outcomes are detailed in Table 6 and Figure 2.

Table 6: Component Loadings.

S 1		**S 2**			**S 3**		
	C1		C1	C2		C1	C2
S1	0.669	S2		0.599	S3		0.599
A1	0.419	A2		0.778	A3		0.763
A1		a2		0.577	A3		0.540
A1	0.687	A2	0.807		A3	781	
M1	0.795	M2	0.833		M3	838	
G1	0.793	G2	0.817		G3	794	
R1	0.840	R2	0.670		R3	0.725	
L1	0.799	L2	0.661		L3	686	
A1	0.794	A2	0.722		A3	754	



S-1 S-2 S-3

Figure-2: Path Diagram of Principal Component Analysis.

The associations between hedonic welfare, eudaimonic welfare, and work engagement at each stage are depicted in Table 7. Notably, the analyses reveal an absence of correlation between hedonic welfare and eudaimonic welfare. However, contrasting patterns are observed in the robust connections between hedonic welfare with work engagement and eudaimonic welfare with work engagement, both demonstrating considerable strength.

Table 7: Intercorrelation Between Variables SWB, PWB and Work Engagement.

S 1	**1**	**2**	**3**
SWB3	---		
PWB3	0.127	---	
WE3.353	**	9**	---
S 2	**1**	**2**	**3**
SWB3	---		
PWB3	0.009	---	
WE3	0.166*	2**	---
S 3	**1**	**2**	**3**
SWB3	---		
PWB3	0.051	---	
WE3	0.237**	0.377 **	---

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

To ascertain the influence of hedonic and eudaimonic welfare on work engagement, a stepwise regression analysis was conducted. Table 8 illustrates that across the three analysis stages, the regression coefficient for PWB consistently surpasses the regression coefficient linking hedonic welfare to work engagement.

Table 8: Multiple Regression Analysis with the Stepwise Method.

Model	**R**	**²**	**R² Change**	**F Change**	**p**
		S 1			
2 Predictor PWB	0.369	0.136	0.136	17.020	0.001
3 Predictor PWB and SWB	0.481	231	0.095	13.253	0.001
		S 2			
2 Predictor PWB	0.402	162	0.162	41.507	0.001
3 Predictor PWB and SWB	0,188	0.026	0.434	6.929	0.009
		S 3			
2 Predictor PWB	0.377	0.142	0.142	53.762	0.001
3 Predictor PWB & SWB	0.436	0.190	0.048	19.106	0.001

5. Discussion

In this study, principal component analysis was applied to hedonic and eudaimonic well-being aspects. In stage 1, all aspects, except negative affect, formed a single component with loadings ranging from 0.19 to 0.840. This suggests that hedonic and eudaimonic well-being are unified.

This aligns with Disabato et al. (2016) research, emphasizing a high correlation between eudaimonic and hedonic well-being. The study suggests low discriminant validity between these factors, implying they measure the same construct. The substantial correlation underscores a shared essence in defining well-being, consistent with philosophical perspectives emphasizing robust connections between hedonic and eudaimonic principles.

Divergent outcomes emerged in the analyses of stages 2 and 3, incorporating a more extensive and diverse subject pool compared to the stage 1 analysis. These subsequent stages revealed that the components of LS, PA, and NA exhibited cohesive behaviour distinct from other PWB aspects. Moreover, the correlation between the SWB and PWB concepts was found to be low and statistically insignificant (Table 7), signifying the distinctiveness of hedonic and eudaimonic factors.

This phenomenon can be attributed to the increased sample size. Consistent with research by Disabato et al. (2016), utilizing a larger sample size tends to reveal that hedonic and eudaimonic factors are distinct in elucidating well-being. Stages 2 and 3 involved a greater number of participants, comprising 217 and 327 individuals, respectively. Moreover, in stage 2, subject characteristics exhibited greater diversity compared to those in stage 1, encompassing variations in the field of work, employment status, duration of residence in the cultural context, and cultural attributes of the communities in which they work and reside. Consequently, it can be inferred that the augmented sample size and increased diversity in subject characteristics influenced whether hedonic and eudaimonic factors are perceived as synonymous or disparate constructs.

The deduction of a distinction between hedonic and eudaimonic approaches aligns with the theoretical perspective positing these approaches as disparate concepts. The hedonic approach emphasizes happiness, framing well-being in the context of pleasure attainment and pain avoidance. Conversely, the eudaimonic approach

prioritizes meaning and self-realization, defining well-being by the extent to which an individual achieves optimal functioning. Notably, hedonism and eudemonism derive from distinct perspectives on human nature and the constituents of societal well-being. Consequently, inquiries concerning the interplay between individual development and social relations with welfare differ between these approaches.

The outcomes of factor analyses in stages 2 and 3 align with the results of regression analyses conducted between SWB and PWB against WE using the stepwise method. Consistent findings across these analyses indicate that PWB, representing eudaimonic well-being, exhibits a more robust predictive capacity for work engagement than SWB, reflecting hedonic well-being. This affirmation corroborates the research by McMahan and Estes (2011), underscoring the relatively greater importance of eudaimonic well-being in predicting positive psychological functioning. Furthermore, it supports the perspectives of Aiello and Tesi (2017), Altunel, Kocak, and Cankir (2015), and Çankır (2017), who established the predictive capability of PWB for employee work engagement. The study's conclusions are also congruent with McMahan and Estes (2011) findings, emphasizing the superior predictive strength of the eudaimonic dimension over the hedonic dimension, and Chacko's (2015) assertion that work engagement is contingent on work-related well-being, particularly the eudaimonic facets encompassing personal and social skills and abilities contributing to optimal psychosocial functioning (Ryff, 2018).

Theoretical distinctions between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being are rooted in different philosophical traditions (Delle Fave et al., 2011). Moreover, factor analytic investigations consistently indicate that hedonic and eudaimonic well-being, while interconnected, constitute distinct factors (Joshanloo & Weijers, 2019).

The study findings assert that eudaimonic well-being exhibits a more robust prediction of work engagement compared to the hedonic perspective. This aligns with Waterman (2008) assertion that eudaimonia manifests when human life activities align or are connected with deeply held values, accompanied by full involvement or engagement. Furthermore, grounded in SDT, eudaimonic well-being is strongly linked to autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

6. Conclusion

In summary, the principal component analysis indicates a distinction between hedonic and eudaimonic welfare factors, especially when research subjects have homogeneous characteristics. Regarding work engagement prediction, the study concludes that the eudaimonic well-being concept, represented by PWB, holds more predictive strength compared to the hedonic well-being concept, represented by SWB. The results suggest that individuals with better self-development abilities tend to exhibit competence, independence, high morale, and enjoyment at work. Additionally, a clear life purpose correlates with increased work enthusiasm, while the ability to interpret work positively influences enjoyment and satisfaction. The overall theoretical implication is that the eudaimonic well-being concept is more accurate in predicting work engagement than the hedonic well-being concept.

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