

**WELL V2:**

— EVIDENCE BEHIND  
THE **MIND** CONCEPT



# FEATURE M01: MENTAL HEALTH PROMOTION

## OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Implement policies, programs and education that support occupant mental health, as well as provide communications to all regular building occupants and onboarding to all new employees about available mental health and well-being resources and offerings.

## SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- The World Health Organization (WHO) defines mental health as “a state of well-being in which every individual realizes [their] own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to [their] community.”<sup>1</sup>
- An estimated 18% of adults will experience a common mental health condition, such as anxiety, depression or substance abuse, over a 12-month period, and over 30% of adults will experience a mental health condition during their lifetime.<sup>2</sup>
- In 2016, more than one billion people in the world suffered from a mental health condition, such as depression, anxiety, or substance abuse and addiction, which often are exhibited as comorbid conditions.<sup>3-5</sup>
  - Mental health conditions include a number of symptoms related to mental health that may or may not result in a diagnosis.
- Health literacy is defined as a person’s cognitive and social ability to access, correctly interpret and understand basic health information.<sup>6-9</sup> To effectively promote and maintain both individual and community health, individuals must have access to the resources needed to act on health information.<sup>6-9</sup>
  - A key component of health literacy is mental health literacy. Mental health literacy includes understanding mental health conditions and their respective treatments, promoting health-seeking behaviors and decreasing stigma associated with mental health conditions.<sup>10</sup>

## KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Determinants of mental health range from social conditions to environmental factors to genetics to stress.<sup>11</sup> The indirect effects of social and economic stature, such as standards of living, political agendas, social protections and working conditions, either support or create barriers for those who have mental health conditions.<sup>11</sup>
- Chronic, long-term exposure to stress is strongly associated with negative effects on the cardiovascular and immune systems, making people more vulnerable to communicable ailments, such as the common cold.<sup>12-17</sup>
- Depression is the leading cause of disability worldwide and is associated with an increased risk of suicide and chronic diseases, such as cardiovascular disease, cerebrovascular disease and diabetes.<sup>18-24</sup>
- Alcohol and drug use contribute significantly to the global burden of premature death and disability.<sup>25</sup> In 2015, an estimated 167,750 deaths were attributable to substance use disorders.<sup>26</sup>
  - Substance use disorders can develop from a range substances, such as alcohol and prescription and illegal drugs.<sup>27</sup>
- Worldwide, an estimated 27.1 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) are attributable to anxiety.<sup>28</sup> Depressive disorders account for more than 43.1 million DALYs, with a heavy burden (80%) falling on low- and middle-income countries.<sup>29,30</sup> Substance use disorders account for 44.7 million DALYs. These statistics highlight the prevalence of mental health conditions globally.<sup>31</sup>
  - To quantify the burden a disease puts on a population, researchers calculate disability-adjusted life years (DALYs), which represent one lost “healthy” year. DALYs are determined by summing the Years of Life Lost (YLL), which accounts for cases where people die prematurely due to disease, with the Years Lived with Disability (YLD), which accounts for cases where people live with a condition or its consequences in a reduced state of health.<sup>32</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- In general, the workplace can be an effective vehicle for health promotion.<sup>33-36</sup> Workplace programming that addresses mental health, especially programming directed at improving mental health literacy through education and trainings, has been shown to promote better healthcare service utilization and improve attitudes about mental health.<sup>37-39</sup>

- Education and training examples include Mental Health First Aid (MHFA) trainings, role play, workshops, Trauma Risk Management (TRiM) and Crisis Intervention Training (CIT).<sup>38</sup>
- Health promotion and communication efforts that are tailored to specific audiences and their needs are the most effective.<sup>40</sup> Therefore, when designing and implementing workplace health initiatives, organizations should consider the specific needs and current competencies of the population of interest, as well as the culture and norms of the organization.<sup>41,42</sup>
  - Key factors in cultivating an informed and empowered workforce include, hiring a workplace health promotion staff with expertise in health literacy and gathering feedback on health services from those who use them and distributing resources tailored to need (i.e., confirming information is literacy-level appropriate).<sup>42</sup>
- Workplaces may further support employees by consistently communicating opportunities for resource utilization.<sup>43</sup> For example, making health information more accessible has been shown to improve employee awareness of common health issues (e.g., physical health, mental health). Additional research suggests that empowering employees to take action towards addressing or improving health and well-being offers additional benefits.<sup>44-47</sup>

#### ADDITIONAL NOTES

- The likelihood of certain mental health conditions differs by gender. Studies report that depression, anxiety and some phobias are more common in women, and antisocial personality disorder and substance abuse are more common in men.<sup>29,48-51</sup>
- There are also age-based differences. Studies show that the age of onset of disease for mood, anxiety and substance use disorders typically emerge in childhood, early adolescence or early adulthood, prior to 25 years of age.<sup>52,53</sup> Older adult populations (55 years of age and older) have an increased risk of developing anxiety, mood disorders and cognitive impairment and are at greater risk to die by suicide as compared to other age groups.<sup>54</sup>
- High-stress events put individuals at risk for both short- and long-term mental health problems. Therefore, mental health and psychosocial needs should be considered in an organization's response plans for emergency situations (e.g., natural disasters or disease outbreaks).<sup>55</sup> For example, research on past infectious disease outbreaks highlights the widespread negative impact that adversity can have on a population's mental health.<sup>55</sup>

## FEATURE M02: NATURE AND PLACE

### OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Provide a connection to nature for occupants via natural materials and imaging aesthetics, as well as natural elements such as plants, water, daylight or nature scenes.

**Part 2:** Provide a connection to the project's unique identity through design elements, such as art or flora, that represent and celebrate the occupants, workplace and the surrounding community.

### SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- More than half of the world's population lives in urban environments, a percentage that is expected to increase to two-thirds by 2050.<sup>56</sup> The global trend toward urbanization, along with a change in lifestyle that causes depletion of natural resources, coincides with this shift towards urbanization and further removes humans from nature.<sup>57,58</sup>
- The biophilia hypothesis suggests that humans have an innate affinity for the natural world.<sup>59</sup> This affinity reflects the adaptive evolutionary behavior of humans who benefit physically and psychologically from the outdoor environment and see it as a source of nourishment, shelter, security and restoration.<sup>59</sup>
- Green spaces and nature settings can act as restorative spaces as they have been associated with positive health outcomes.<sup>60,61</sup> Additionally, they meet essential criteria for restorative spaces by removing people from stressors, providing elements of interest and fascination, helping people feel more immersed in a space and creating a sense of compatibility between the space and its purpose.<sup>62</sup>

### KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Connections with nature, such as direct access to the outdoors, nature views through windows or exposure to natural elements indoors, all are associated with various health benefits spanning improvements in mood, stress and overall health status.<sup>63,64</sup>
- Exposure to indoor natural elements decreases physiological indicators of stress (e.g., lower heart rate, blood pressure and skin temperature), improves comfort and mood and increases pain tolerance, as seen in studies assessing simulated hospital patients and reactions to discomfort.<sup>65-72</sup>
- Exposure to natural elements in urban environments has been shown to positively affect cognitive functioning, specifically related to attention and working memory.<sup>73-78</sup> Additionally, exposure to nature can be restorative for people experiencing cognitive fatigue.<sup>62,79,80</sup>
- Artwork has been found to promote social interactions and facilitate connections between people, elicit positive emotional responses, foster learning and enhance the overall workplace environment.<sup>81</sup>
  - The presence of artwork – abstract or natural – in the workplace can provide relaxing and calming effects and help regulate mood throughout the workday.<sup>72</sup>

### HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- Modifying indoor environments to include plants or windows with daylight access may reduce stress and confer other health and well-being benefits.<sup>82,83</sup>
  - Compared to employees who report lack of window access or other types of views, employees with window views of nature at work have reported lower stress levels, higher health status and higher job satisfaction.<sup>64</sup>
- In hospitals, nature views have been associated with supporting recovery from illness, assessed through measures such as shorter postoperative stays, decreased need for pain medication, lower rates of minor postsurgical complications and earlier discharge.<sup>84,85</sup>
- In workplaces, employees with more exposure to indoor nature (e.g., plants, nature views) may experience reduced levels of stress, fewer subjective health complaints, fewer sick days and enhanced feelings of being supported by their organization.<sup>82,86</sup>
- The restorative qualities of nature can be experienced through visual stimuli like plants or natural designs as well as sounds that mimic natural elements.<sup>59,79,87,88</sup> Indoor plants can improve mood, perceived environmental attractiveness and comfort.<sup>71</sup>
- Direct contact with nature may have the strongest positive impact on stress and general health compared to more indirect exposure (e.g., nature photography or sounds).<sup>86</sup> While direct contact with the outdoors is still the most powerful and effective solution, the use of indoor strategies (e.g., plants) can have a positive impact on well-being.<sup>89,90</sup>

- The inclusion of artwork and joyful décor in the workspace can encourage engagement between colleagues, as well as support stimulation in employees at times such as post-lunch, when productivity can decrease due to fatigue.<sup>91</sup>
- Artwork connected to an organization’s mission, as well as rotating exhibitions and diverse collections, has been found to be of particular value among viewers in a workplace setting.<sup>81</sup>
- People tend to prefer artwork that has a moderate amount of visual complexity (as compared to art that is visually simple or highly complex), suggesting that it is not simply the presence of art that matters, but the aesthetic qualities as well.<sup>92</sup>

#### ADDITIONAL NOTES

- Some of the beneficial outcomes associated with nature may be explained by a person’s sense of their connectedness to nature. People vary in the extent of their subjective connection to nature, and studies suggest that people who report feeling more connected tend to have more pro-environmental attitudes and behavioral similarities, such as greater engagement in outdoor activities.<sup>93</sup>
  - Some evidence suggests that women may have both a stronger preference for nature and experience stronger positive outcomes with exposure.<sup>70,72</sup>
  - A person’s sense of nature connectedness appears to be positively correlated with psychological and social well-being, as well as happiness.<sup>94,95</sup>

## FEATURE M03: MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES

### OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Offer confidential screening assessments for common mental health conditions that are either self- or clinically administered at no cost.

**Part 2:** Provide mental health benefits that offer coverage for clinical screenings and referrals, inpatient and outpatient services, and prescriptions at no or subsidized cost, as well as access to information and benefits consultations.

**Part 3:** Provide organizational support for mental health needs, including adjustments of physical environment and work schedule, availability of sick or paid time to address needs and increased interpersonal support from colleagues (e.g. managers).

### SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- The World Health Organization (WHO) defines mental health as “a state of well-being in which every individual realizes [their] own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to [their] community.”<sup>1</sup>
  - Mental health conditions include a number of symptoms related to mental health that may or may not result in a diagnosis.<sup>1</sup>
- Overall, mental health conditions appear to be on the rise. The WHO reports that from 1990 to 2013, the number of people suffering from depression and/or anxiety increased from 416 million people to 615 million people, representing a nearly 50% increase in affected persons.<sup>96</sup>
- Despite this widespread prevalence, many people delay treatment for mental health, and nearly two thirds of people who need help never receive it (with some estimates as high as 70%).<sup>97-99</sup> This gap in care is greater in low- and middle-income countries. However, even in high-income countries, up to half the people who need treatment for mental health conditions do not receive it.<sup>100</sup>
- According to data from 24 countries around the world, the main barriers to seeking mental health support include low perceived need and attitudes concerning mental health, suggesting a critical need to improve mental health awareness and education.<sup>101</sup>
  - Stigma plays a strong role in this issue. One study in the United States found that the majority of the general public reported being unwilling to work with people with a mental health condition, with 47% of people reporting unwillingness to work with someone with depression and 74% of people in the case of an individual with alcohol dependence.<sup>102</sup>

### KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Properly managing and reducing sources of chronic or sustained stress can help minimize an individual’s risk of several mental health conditions, chronic and infectious diseases and other health risks, such as depression, anxiety disorders, substance use disorders (SUDs), cardiovascular disease, diabetes, upper respiratory infection and adverse effects on the immune system that may increase vulnerability to disease overall.<sup>103-110</sup>
- Depression is the leading cause of disability worldwide.<sup>19</sup> Treating depression reduces a person’s risk of suicide, as well as other chronic diseases such as cardiovascular disease, cerebrovascular disease and diabetes.<sup>18-24</sup>
- Providing treatment and support to alleviate anxiety can help reduce the global burden of disease across the world, which accounted 27.1 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) in 2017.<sup>29,111</sup>
  - To quantify the burden a disease puts on a population, researchers calculate DALYs, which represent one lost “healthy” year. DALYs are determined by summing the Years of Life Lost (YLL), which accounts for cases where people die prematurely due to disease, with the Years Lost due to Disability (YLD), which accounts for cases where people live with a condition or its consequences.<sup>32</sup>
- There is a need to help those with SUDs access treatment and support services. In 2016, only one in six people living with a SUD (which accounted for an estimated 167,750 deaths in 2015) received treatment for the condition.<sup>26</sup>
  - Many people with a SUD may not consider their use-related behaviors to be adversely impacting their health. In 2010, 85% of people in the United States with an SUD did not consider themselves in need of treatment.<sup>112</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- Employers can help play a critical role in reducing the stigma around seeking help for mental health needs: Several studies suggest that employees may underutilize available healthcare services because of fear of stigma at work.<sup>38,113-116</sup>
  - In the United Kingdom, organizations lose an estimated £26 billion a year (approximately £1,035 per capita) due to mental health-related absenteeism, presenteeism and employee turnover.<sup>117</sup>
- By properly managing mental health conditions and helping people identify and treat problems, employers can avoid incurring several business costs, such as absenteeism, accidents, disability payments, medication costs and recruitment costs due to turnover.<sup>118</sup>
  - In the United States, a study found that approximately 18% of employees had a mental health condition that had a negative impact on their work performance within the previous month.<sup>119</sup>
  - In Germany, a study estimated that there was a 5.9% loss in workdays attributable to mental health problems.<sup>120</sup>
- The establishment of workplace programming that addresses mental health, especially programming that improves mental health literacy through education or trainings, has been shown to be an effective way to promote better service utilization and improve attitudes about mental health.<sup>37-39</sup>
- Studies indicate that a person's risk of persistent depression may be reduced by up to 13% through screening, using either self- or physician-led assessments in primary care settings.<sup>53,121-129</sup>
- Allowing adjustments to aspects of a person's physical environment in the workplace can have positive effects on mental health. Environmental variables such as light exposure, aesthetic environment, access to nature and the ability to regulate privacy have been shown to affect mood, stress and productivity.<sup>130</sup>

## ADDITIONAL NOTES

- The likelihood of certain mental health conditions differs across gender. Studies report that depression, anxiety and some phobias are more common in women, and antisocial personality disorder and substance abuse are more common in men.<sup>29,48-51</sup>
- There are also age-based differences. Studies show that the age of onset of disease for mood, anxiety and substance use disorders typically emerges in childhood, early adolescence or early adulthood, prior to 25 years of age.<sup>52,53</sup> Older adult populations (55 years of age and older) have an increased risk of developing anxiety, mood disorders and cognitive impairment and are at greater risk to die by suicide as compared to other age groups.<sup>54</sup>

# FEATURE M04: MENTAL HEALTH EDUCATION

## OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Trainings on common mental health conditions and concerns, signs and symptoms of potential distress and strategies for supporting personal mental health are provided at least twice a year.

**Part 2:** Managers are required to attend an annual training that focuses on identifying and reducing sources of workplace stress, improved understanding of common mental health conditions and strategies to support employees experiencing mental health concerns or crises.

## SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- One in four people are affected by a mental health condition, such as anxiety, depression or a substance use disorder (SUD), at some point in life.<sup>99</sup> In 2016 alone, more than one billion people in the world suffered from a mental health condition.<sup>4,131</sup>
  - Approximately 45% of Australians suffer from a mental health condition at some point in their lives.<sup>132</sup>
- Depression is the leading cause of disability globally, affecting more than 300 million people worldwide, and often is experienced comorbidly with anxiety.<sup>133</sup>
- It is estimated that, globally, up to 70% of people with a mental health condition do not receive treatment.<sup>97</sup>
- Stress can be understood as anything that seriously threatens the ability to maintain biological equilibrium, whether that threat is actual or perceived.<sup>134</sup> When an individual is stressed, their body responds by triggering a number of internal physiological changes to address the external threat or demand.<sup>135</sup>
  - The human body is typically in a state of homeostasis or equilibrium.<sup>136</sup> When stressed, the human body responds with allostasis, which refers to the need for an organism to alter its internal state to meet environmental demands.<sup>137</sup>

## KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Stress is associated with depression, anxiety disorders, substance use disorders, cardiovascular disease, diabetes, upper respiratory infection and adverse effects on the immune system that can increase overall vulnerability to illness.<sup>104,108-110,138,139</sup>
- Identifying, managing and mitigating sources of stress can minimize a person's risk of developing or exacerbating several health conditions such as stroke, diabetes or heart disease.<sup>107,135,138,139</sup>
- In addition to mental health conditions, job-related stress is particularly associated with cardiovascular disease. Individuals who report job strain (i.e., psychosocial stress), effort-reward imbalance or perceptions of organizational injustice have a higher probability of experiencing non-fatal and fatal cardiovascular events.<sup>140-144</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- In the workplace, leadership and managers play a critical role in employee mental health. The attitudes of people in leadership roles about mental health can define and shape social norms in an organization.<sup>145</sup> A model evaluating the impact of several working conditions found managers' attitudes toward employees to be the single most important factor influencing employee mental health.<sup>146</sup>
  - Overall, good leadership and appropriate managerial styles are critical factors to a positive working environment.<sup>147</sup>
- Studies suggest that fear of stigmatization at work may lead to employees underutilizing mental health services.<sup>38,113-116</sup> This creates an environment where mental health conditions are discussed directly, and employees are made aware of available resources and assistance may alleviate stigmas associated with mental health.
  - Workplace anti-stigma interventions have been successful in eliciting change in general knowledge on signs and symptoms of a mental health condition and presence of supportive behavior of colleagues among employees.<sup>38</sup> While attitudes towards colleagues with a condition had mixed findings, belief changes were generally positive, supporting further utilization of anti-stigma efforts.<sup>38</sup>
- Mental health education can help individuals recognize signs of illness and empower them to act when necessary.<sup>38</sup>
  - Educational materials need to be accurate, accessible, actionable and promote a solution-oriented message.<sup>148</sup>
- Workplace wellness programming centered around mental health can increase healthcare service utilization and improve attitudes about mental health.<sup>37-39</sup>



- By properly addressing mental health conditions and helping people identify and treat problems, employers can avoid incurring several business costs, such as absenteeism, accidents, disability payments, medication costs and recruitment costs due to employee turnover.<sup>118</sup>

#### **ADDITIONAL NOTES**

- There are gender differences in the rates of common mental health problems. Women tend to experience higher rates of what are sometimes referred to as “internalizing disorders,” such as depression (about twice as prevalent in women compared to men) and anxiety, and men tend to experience higher rates of what are sometimes referred to as “externalizing disorders” such as substance abuse and antisocial disorders.<sup>146,149</sup>

# FEATURE M05: STRESS MANAGEMENT

## OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Develop a plan to address employee stress through tracking indicators of stress in employees, such as rates of unused paid time off and employee retention, identify opportunities to reduce employee stress and outline an implementation plan.

## SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- Stress can be understood as anything that seriously threatens our ability to maintain biological equilibrium, whether that threat is actual or perceived.<sup>150</sup> When humans experience stress, the body responds by triggering a number of internal physiological changes to deal with the external threat or demand.<sup>106</sup>
  - Our bodies are typically in a state of homeostasis, or internal stability or equilibrium, across body systems and processes, achieved by organisms for proper biological functioning.<sup>151</sup> With stress, our bodies respond with allostasis, which means ‘stability through change’ and refers to the need for an organism to alter its internal state to meet environmental demands.<sup>152</sup>
  - The brain plays a central role in mediating stress as it determines whether we perceive stimuli to be threatening or not and orchestrates behavioral and physiological responses in the body.<sup>106,153</sup>
- Stress is an essential component of human functioning, as it is critical for initiating biological processes that give us the energy to meet external demands. These processes include increasing blood pressure and heart rate through the release of the hormone adrenaline, as well as the release of organic compounds such as glucose, amino acids and fatty acids to use as sources of energy.<sup>152</sup>
- In times of stress the body requires excess energy to deal with the stressor, and our bodies suppress other internal processes that use up energy, including suppression of some elements of the immune system, as well as reduced wound healing and bone growth/repair.<sup>152</sup>
- Prolonged or chronic exposure to stress can result in adverse health impacts on both physical and mental health.<sup>154,155</sup>

## KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Stress is strongly associated with negative effects on the cardiovascular system, and some studies suggest that job stress in particular may be a predictor for coronary heart disease and high blood pressure.<sup>14-16,156</sup>
  - In a meta-analysis, work-related stress was associated with a 50% increased risk for coronary heart disease, highlighting the need for a systematic intervention point to address this risk factor.<sup>157</sup> Stressors included high job demands and low control, high effort and low reward and organizational injustice.<sup>157</sup>
- Managing stress and keeping self-perceived stress levels low may result in a protective effect against illnesses such as the common cold.<sup>12,13</sup>
- Stressful life events, such as job or marital stress or the loss of a loved one, can occur at any time and affect any person and often precede the onset of depression and anxiety.<sup>150,158-160</sup> Proactively addressing stress can help prevent the development of the adverse physical and mental health conditions associated with long-term exposure to stress.<sup>150,158-160</sup>
- Managing stress also may help reduce muscular tension, which can contribute to the development of musculoskeletal disorders.<sup>161</sup> In the workplace, back pain is a particularly common complaint associated with stress.<sup>162,163</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- While stressful life events span beyond the workplace, studies indicate that targeting the reduction of job-related stressors may positively influence mental and physical health.<sup>144,164</sup>
  - It’s estimated that up to 40% of workers in the European Union and the United States experience work stress, which has been on the rise since the 1990s.<sup>144</sup>
  - Implementing stress management programs for employees with high blood pressure may improve employee blood pressure rates, have a positive impact on workplace satisfaction and reduce levels of reported stress and depression.<sup>165</sup>
- Common job stressors that employers have the potential to address include low social support (from peers and managers), job insecurity and job strain, which is a combination of high demands in terms of workload or timelines coupled with low control in terms of the content and execution of the work or the skills needed to do the work.<sup>144,166-169</sup> Further, the risk of mood and anxiety disorders may be abated by reducing work-related stress, and in particular by helping employees achieve better balance between work and personal lives.<sup>170</sup>

- Poor health-related outcomes, such as chronic fatigue and stress-related absenteeism may be improved by cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT), a style of psychological treatment aimed at addressing unhelpful thinking and behavior patterns and the development of productive coping strategies.<sup>171,172</sup> CBT may be especially helpful in addressing work stressors such as low control and social support and high over-commitment and imbalance, though some of these elements also may need to be addressed at an organizational level.<sup>173</sup>
- On the individual level, studies suggest that interventions that focus on CBT may be most effective at reducing stress, but relaxation or other mind-body techniques, meditation and organizational-level interventions also can also have an impact.<sup>174-177</sup> Employers should consider a multi-pronged approach in reducing workplace stress and associated symptoms of depression and anxiety.<sup>174,178</sup>

#### ADDITIONAL NOTES

- A strong body of evidence has established that individuals who experience adverse childhood experiences (e.g., exposure to violence, whether experienced first-hand or observed in the home, abuse, economic hardship, or parental separation, divorce or marital conflict) are much more likely to suffer from negative outcomes later in life, both physical and mental and including premature death.<sup>153,179,180</sup>
  - Exposure, especially during childhood, to conditions of poverty, discrimination, violence and war is associated with chronic stress and various adverse mental health outcomes.<sup>153,181-187</sup>
- People experience different levels of exposure to stressful events and experiences along gendered, racial-ethnic and socioeconomic lines, exacerbating health disparities and suggesting that certain groups may be in greater need for targeted stress reduction efforts.<sup>188-190</sup>

# FEATURE M06: RESTORATIVE OPPORTUNITIES

## OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Provide opportunities for all employees to take breaks from work throughout the day (i.e., 24-hour period) and week (i.e., seven-day period), paid time off for all eligible employees and adjusted start times for secondary school students.

**Part 2:** Provide workplace support for all eligible employees to engage in a nap or rest break during the workday and access to a designated zone with furniture to facilitate rest.

## SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- Regulations on working hours were established over a century ago, resulting in the common practice of 8-hour workdays and up to 48-hour workweeks. However, today's average employee works 55 hours or more per week, with China, Mexico, Costa Rica and South Korea leading the trend of returning to longer hours, followed by the United States and Europe.<sup>191,192</sup>
- Work-life balance refers to a harmonious interplay between work and personal life.<sup>193</sup> Some view the concept of work and personal life as independent domains, whereas others prefer a more integrated approach.<sup>194,195</sup> Further distinctions arise in perspectives on the meaning of "balance." Some believe that time should be split equally between the two domains, while others highlight that this may not be the goal for all individuals.<sup>196</sup>
- Sleep occurs in four stages. The first three stages of sleep are characterized by the initial transition from wakefulness to sleep and a progressive slowing of heartbeat, breathing, brain waves and eye movement, as well as muscle relaxation and a decrease in body temperature.<sup>197</sup> The last stage of sleep is rapid eye movement (REM) sleep, in which brain wave activity is similar to that of waking states, breathing quickens and becomes irregular, heart rate and blood pressure increase, muscles paralyze and the majority of dreaming occurs.<sup>197</sup>
  - Typically, infants sleep as much as 18 hours a day, children and adolescents require about 9.5 hours of sleep a day; most adults need between seven to nine hours a day; and adults over the age of 60 tend to sleep for shorter periods of time, more lightly and with multiple awakenings throughout the night.<sup>197</sup>

## KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Working excessive hours, without breaks nor sufficient recovery periods during evenings and weekends, can increase a person's stress.<sup>198,199</sup> Stress is associated with poor work-life balance, job burnout and elevated risk for hypertension, cardiovascular disease, stroke, diabetes, obesity, anxiety and depression.<sup>191,200-225</sup>
- Working long hours without sufficient quality rest, nor psychological detachment via the ability to engage in meaningful endeavors unrelated to work, is unsustainable over time.<sup>226</sup> The negative effects can manifest in cumulative stress, which often encourages unhealthy behavior choices, including irregular sleep, smoking, overeating, drug/alcohol dependency and a sedentary lifestyle, which subsequently are linked to increased risk of chronic disease.<sup>191,227-238</sup>
- Sleep duration is a key risk factor. Too little and too much sleep are both associated with increased risk of mortality, cardiovascular disease and type II diabetes.<sup>239-243</sup>
  - A seminal, longitudinal study with more than 10,000 participants in London found that a decrease in self-reported sleep duration from those who had previously reported sleeping six, seven or eight hours a night was associated with a twice greater risk of death by cardiovascular disease.<sup>244</sup> The study also found that an increase in self-reported sleep duration from those who had previously reported sleeping seven or eight hours a night to be associated with a twice greater risk of death by non-cardiovascular related causes.<sup>244</sup>
  - Data pooled across nearly 500,000 study participants indicated that a sleep duration of seven to eight hours per day is associated with the lowest risk of diabetes.<sup>245</sup> Another study found that those who slept less than six hours a night were twice as likely to develop type II diabetes, while people who reported more than eight hours a night were three times as likely to develop type II diabetes.<sup>246</sup>
- Shorter sleep duration also is associated with compromised immune function, which increases susceptibility to illnesses such as the common cold.<sup>247-249</sup>
  - A study of 153 healthy adults showed that those who averaged less than seven hours of sleep a night were about three times more likely to experience cold symptoms than those who averaged eight hours or more of sleep per night.<sup>247</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- Taking short breaks (“micro-breaks”) throughout the workday can help employees recover from work-stress and maintain good cognitive function, focus, mood and creativity, all of which decline when nutrition intake, social connection and exercise are deprioritized or ignored for short-term productivity.<sup>238,250-254</sup>
- Disconnecting from work for longer periods of time (“macro-breaks”), during evenings, weekends and taking regular vacations, allows employees to recover from fatigue and can help people experience improvements in mood and energy level, as well as overarching health status.<sup>255-257</sup>
  - The effects of time away from work may be short-lived.<sup>256</sup> One study suggests that within the first week of resumption of work, health and well-being returned to pre-vacation levels, suggesting the need to regularly take time away from work.<sup>258</sup>
- Working consistent hours benefits sleep. Research shows employees who are given control over and are able to keep regular working hours, fall asleep more easily, sleep longer and benefit from more restful sleep, versus employees who are granted little control over their schedule and/or work lengthy hours.<sup>215,259,260</sup>
- Organizational culture has a strong impact on adopted behaviors and norms, with leadership being a primary driver of organizational culture. Leaders, particularly founders, define the core values of an organization and its culture, demonstrating rules for acceptable and expected conduct.<sup>261,262</sup> Further, mid-level management and supervisors act as the link between leadership and employees, and several studies indicate that managerial support is often key in creating environments where employees feel encouraged to take actions to safeguard their health and wellness.<sup>263</sup>
  - Workplace policies that limit work hours, actively encourage micro-breaks and support regular vacations can help employees protect themselves from overwork and its associated stressors.<sup>260</sup>
- Studies on strategies for reducing fatigue and insomnia in shift workers provide support for physical activity, bright light exposure, napping and education on sleep hygiene.<sup>264</sup> Naps of 20 to 30 minutes have been shown to be helpful in improving shiftwork employees' performance in measures of alertness, vigilance, reaction time and decreased risk of accidents.<sup>265-268</sup>
- In 2014, the American Academy of Pediatrics released a policy statement recommending secondary schools delay the start of classes until 8:30 a.m. or later based on research on biological sleep rhythms that indicate that puberty shifts sleep-wake cycles up to two hours later in the day, affecting natural and healthy wake-times for adolescents.<sup>269</sup>

## ADDITIONAL NOTES

- Several studies have established a relationship between sleep disturbances and mental health outcomes, specifically depression and anxiety.<sup>270-273</sup> Studies suggest that each may be a consequence of and/or contribute to the development of another.<sup>274</sup> But it remains unclear if one is definitively a risk factor for another or vice versa, and the health consequences associated with poor sleep should be weighed considering the potential additional or fully attributable contribution to depression and/or anxiety.

# FEATURE M07: RESTORATIVE SPACES

## OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Provide an indoor or outdoor space available to all regular building occupants that is designated exclusively and specifically to support breaks from work and designed to support relaxation and restoration.

## SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- Restoration refers to the renewal, recovery or reestablishment of psychological, social or physical resources.<sup>275,276</sup> People deplete resources or capacities as a function of handling stress in everyday life (i.e., adaptively meeting demands) and environments either can facilitate the introduction of stress or relief from it.<sup>275,277</sup>
- Stress can be understood as anything that seriously threatens our ability to maintain biological equilibrium, whether that threat is actual or perceived.<sup>150</sup> When humans experience stress, the body responds by triggering a number of internal physiological changes to deal with the external threat or demand.<sup>106</sup>
- Stress is an essential component of human functioning, as it is critical for initiating biological processes that give us to the energy to meet external demands. However, these energy reserves must be rebuilt through mechanisms that range from providing the body with nourishment to taking time for relaxation and restoration.<sup>152,275</sup>
- Psychological stress is commonly associated with workplace demands, impacting both mental and physical wellbeing and contributing to risk of disease onset.<sup>138</sup>

## KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Identifying, managing and mitigating sources of stress can help to minimize a person's risk of developing or exacerbating several diseases and health risks.<sup>135,138,139,278,279</sup>
- Work that does not allow for sufficient recovery time can increase a person's level of stress.<sup>198,199</sup>
- Stress is strongly associated with negative effects on the cardiovascular system, and some studies suggest that job stress in particular may be a predictor for coronary heart disease and high blood pressure.<sup>14-16,156</sup>
- Managing stress also may help reduce muscular tension, which can contribute to the development of musculoskeletal disorders.<sup>161</sup> In the workplace, back pain is a particularly common complaint associated with stress.<sup>162,163</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- On the individual level, studies suggest that interventions that focus on cognitive-behavioral therapy, a style of psychological treatment aimed at addressing unhelpful thinking and behavior patterns and the development of productive coping strategies, may be the most effective at reducing stress, but relaxation or other mind-body techniques, meditation and organizational-level interventions can also have an impact.<sup>171,174-177</sup> Employers should consider a multi-pronged approach in reducing workplace stress and associated symptoms of depression and anxiety.<sup>174,178</sup>
- Restorative environments should permit and actively promote restoration, meaning that the design of the space must match its intended use.<sup>276</sup> Restorative spaces should be designed so that social or physical demands are absent (e.g., noise, reminders of work obligations), and further introduce other elements that facilitate greater mental ease and rehabilitation.<sup>276</sup>
  - In urban spaces, this includes spaces that focus on limiting crowding and noise.<sup>276</sup>
- In line with the notion of actively promoting restoration, directed attention restoration is a proposed theory that suggests that restorative environments should softly fascinate (i.e., include elements that encourage effortless attention, such as natural environments), provide psychological distance from stressors, be sufficiently large to support exploration and be designed compatibly with their intended purpose.<sup>80,280</sup>
- Psychophysiological stress recovery theory posits that natural environments -- which often are made up of visual stimuli of moderate depth and complexity and are perceived as pleasant and calm -- can yield a positive, restorative effect.<sup>281,282</sup>
- Both theories suggest that natural environments are best suited to serve as restorative spaces, and providing people with access to natural environments or spaces that integrate natural elements has been demonstrated in studies as a way to promote restoration (especially in terms of attention tasks).<sup>62,280,283-285</sup> Research indicates that direct experiences in nature (e.g., woods, gardens, parks) may be best able to promote restoration. However, some evidence suggests that contact with representations of nature in urban environments may also be sufficient.<sup>58,286,287</sup>

- Even in the case of gardens, there may be variances in restorative abilities based on garden design. For example, one study found that more “natural,” informal gardens were perceived to be more restorative than more formal, geometrically designed gardens.<sup>288</sup>
- Natural elements indeed represent the most widely studied restorative environment, but restoration is not necessarily restricted to such spaces. For example, studies demonstrate that urban or built environments like coffee shops can be restorative for some people.<sup>289,290</sup> Additionally, there are non-environmental factors to consider, such as social context (e.g., presence of a companion) which can also hinder or facilitate restoration.<sup>289,290</sup>

# FEATURE M08: RESTORATIVE PROGRAMMING

## OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Provide mindfulness-based programming at no cost or subsidized by 50% that includes a combination of training courses offered at least twice a year, programming offered at least once a week, or on-going digital offerings (e.g., guided meditation application), as well as a quiet space for mindfulness practice.

## SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- The foundations of mindfulness meditation originate from the Pāli Canon of Theravada Buddhism, the earliest scriptures of what generally is accepted as the oldest school of Buddhism. Mindfulness was a term coined in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century as an approximate translation of the Pāli word, *sati*, the first factor in the Seven Factors of Enlightenment in Buddhism, referring to notions of awareness and memory of the present.
- Mindfulness-based practices since have become popular for secular applications outside of Buddhism, particularly for health and wellness benefits. This trend began with Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction (MBSR), initially developed in 1979 as a clinical program to help patients adapt to medical illnesses, and specifically to aid in the treatment and management of chronic pain, which has been widely applied and adapted for other people in varying contexts.<sup>291-294</sup>
- Mindfulness refers to awareness emerging from purposeful, nonjudgmental attention to the experiences of one moment to the next.<sup>295</sup>
  - People often have difficulty being alone with just their thoughts.<sup>296</sup> One study found that participants typically did not enjoy spending six to fifteen minutes alone without external stimulation, and instead preferred to engage in mundane activities or self-administer negative stimulation (e.g., mild electric shock).<sup>296</sup>

## KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Identifying, managing and mitigating sources of stress can help to minimize a person’s risk of developing or exacerbating several diseases and health risks, as it is known that prolonged or chronic exposure to stress in particular may be especially harmful to health.<sup>135,138,139,278,279</sup>
- Depression is one of the leading causes of disability worldwide, and by addressing factors that contribute to depression, a person’s risk of suicide as well as of chronic diseases such as cardiovascular disease, cerebrovascular disease (e.g., stroke, aneurysm) and diabetes can be minimized.<sup>18,19,23,24,297-299</sup>
- Providing treatment and support to alleviate anxiety can help reduce the burden of disease on the general population, which accounted for 27.1 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) globally, in 2017.<sup>29,111</sup>
  - To quantify the burden a disease puts on a population, researchers calculate disability-adjusted life years (DALYs), which represents one lost “healthy” year. DALYs are determined by summing the Years of Life Lost (YLL), which accounts for cases where people die prematurely due to disease, with the Years Lost due to Disability (YLD), which accounts for cases where people live with a condition or its consequences.<sup>32</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- Mindfulness-based intervention (MBI) therapies have been shown to promote improvements across various measures of health and well-being, including improvements related to substance use disorders, anxiety disorders and depression.<sup>300-305</sup>
- MBSR is one of the best-known and most commonly followed secular MBIs and has been shown to be effective in helping both patients and healthy people manage stress and cope with clinical and nonclinical problems.<sup>306-308</sup> MBSR is an 8-week, clinically-standardized treatment program that includes weekly 2-2.5 hour group sessions with a trained teacher, daily audio-guided meditations at home and a full-day meditation retreat.<sup>300</sup>
  - Course content in MBSR focuses on mindful attention to body sensations using mind-body meditative practices such as yoga or gentle stretching, and also addresses how to apply mindful practices in everyday life and how to more adaptively handle stressors.
- Other MBIs that follow a similar programmatic structure as MBSR have also demonstrated success in achieving other outcomes, such as Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy (MBCT), which has been shown effective in improving several mental-health related outcomes, including preventing relapse among people with major depression.<sup>307,309,310</sup>
- There is less research on the effectiveness of intensive mindfulness meditation training (e.g., full- or multi-day retreats) compared to comprehensive treatment programs such as MBSR or MBCT, but available research indicates



that this way of delivering a MBI may be a cost-effective way to help people with anxiety, stress and other psychosocial measures of health and well-being.<sup>300,311,312</sup>

- Shorter-duration mindfulness meditation training also may be an option for improved well-being. Some programs have adapted standard 8-week programs into 2- to 3-week programs and have reported positive outcomes on compassion and working memory capacity.<sup>313,314</sup> Shorter still, in one study, a 3-day program with 25 minutes of mindfulness meditation training per day resulted in improvements in self-reported stress.<sup>315</sup>
- A review of 15 randomized controlled trials assessing the effects of internet- and mobile-based MBIs found small to moderate benefits on measures such as depression, anxiety, well-being and mindfulness, with the greatest effect seen on stress.<sup>316</sup> Another review of online MBIs focused on physical health parameters found that they can be particularly helpful if tailored to address specific symptoms, and overall may be helpful for managing pain, fatigue, coping and social engagement.<sup>317</sup>
  - Online-based interventions typically are not as effective as interventions that involve in-person components. However, online-based interventions are more effective in maintaining engagement when coupled with therapist or teacher guidance.<sup>316</sup>
- In the workplace, MBSR has been shown to result in decreased levels of burnout, general stress, job-specific stress, emotional exhaustion, depression and anxiety, and an increased sense of mindfulness, personal accomplishment, self-compassion, relaxation and sleep quality.<sup>318,319</sup>
- Studies show that mindfulness-based movement such as Tai Chi, Qigong, Baduanjin and yoga may be able to help with both mental and physical health. Mindfulness-based movement may help improve the severity of depression and anxiety, as well as support chronic musculoskeletal pain management.<sup>320</sup> However, they should be implemented with qualified instructors to ensure proper movements and to prevent injuries.<sup>321,322</sup>

#### ADDITIONAL NOTES

- The largest base of evidence on MBIs in workplaces is based on healthcare workers.<sup>323</sup>
  - More research is needed on other types of employees and occupational settings to understand if these findings are generalizable.
  - Research on the topic of MBIs in non-clinical settings is emerging. While it is promising, more research is needed to assess the extent to which MBIs beyond MBSR are effective in improving mindfulness and achieving other desired health and well-being outcomes.

# FEATURE M09: ENHANCED ACCESS TO NATURE

## OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Facilitate increased contact with nature through access to indoor plants, water features and/or nature views.

**Part 2:** Facilitate increased contact with nature through some combination of nature access in outdoor areas within the project site and nearby off-site nature spaces, as well as organizational support to access outdoor nature.

## SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- Over half of the world's population currently lives in urban environments, an amount that is expected to increase to two-thirds by 2050.<sup>56</sup> The global trend toward urbanization, along with a change in lifestyle that causes depletion of natural resources, coincides with this shift and further removes humans from the natural environment.<sup>57,58</sup>
- To fully appreciate the benefits of contact with nature, people require repeated experiences of exposure to nature.<sup>324,325</sup>
- Green spaces and nature settings have been associated with numerous positive health outcomes.<sup>60,61</sup>
  - These environments meet essential criteria as restorative spaces by removing people from stressors, providing elements of interest and soft fascination, helping people feel more immersed in a space and creating a sense of compatibility between the space and its purpose.<sup>62</sup>

## KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Contact with nature can promote health through a variety of mechanisms, including increased physical activity, stress reduction and social integration.<sup>62</sup>
  - Immersion in nature may promote a sense of social community, or social belonging, particularly on a community- or neighborhood-level.<sup>326</sup> In one study, residents in public housing buildings with a greater presence of trees and grass showed increased use of common spaces and interactions with other residents.<sup>327</sup>
- Natural environments can have a positive impact on health by increasing positive moods, reducing psychophysiological arousal (i.e., physical reaction of body systems related to an individual's emotions and/or stress), cognitive fatigue, and stress and improving the ability to perform tasks that require concentration.<sup>61,283,326-330</sup>
- Green space exposure in urban environments is associated with reduced likelihood of mortality overall.<sup>285,331-335</sup> Studies reporting this association typically focused on specific sub-populations, meaning generalizability of these findings to the population at-large is not yet confirmed.<sup>336</sup>
- Exposure to nature can help people mentally recover from both stress and mental fatigue and may reduce blood pressure.<sup>79,80,337,338</sup> A study that compared natural and urban settings found that natural settings lowered diastolic blood pressure, increased positive affect, decreased anger and improved performance on an attention test designed to assess if exposure to nature increased ability to focus.<sup>337</sup>
  - One study estimates that visiting an outdoor green space for at least 30 minutes a week could reduce the population prevalence of depression by up to 7% and reduce high blood pressure by up to 9%.<sup>339</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- Nature-oriented design strategies include providing physical access to natural elements, visual connection with the outdoors, the presence of artwork that incorporates nature into the indoor environment and sounds or smells that are associated with natural settings.<sup>63,64</sup>
- Connections with nature, such as direct access to the outdoors and nature views through windows or exposure to natural elements indoors all are associated with various health benefits, spanning improvements in mood, stress and overall health status.<sup>63,64</sup>
- Compared to employees who report a lack of window access or have other types of views, employees with window views of nature at work experience lower stress levels, higher health status and higher job satisfaction.<sup>64</sup> In hospitals, nature views have been associated with supporting recovery from illness, assessed through measures such as shorter postoperative stays, decreased need for pain medication and lower rates of minor postsurgical complications.<sup>84,85</sup>
- Various types of natural environments have been shown to confer health benefits, including contact with natural spaces in urban environments like gardens, parks and natural features around residences.<sup>90,285,331-335,340</sup>
- Greater proximity and access to blue spaces (e.g., rivers, oceans, lakes) is associated with both improved mental health and well-being, as well as increased physical activity.<sup>341,342</sup>

- The evidence base for the health benefits of green spaces is more robust and comprehensive than evidence for that of blue spaces, speaking to a need for further research on blue spaces to better understand how these spaces may promote health.<sup>343,344</sup>

#### ADDITIONAL NOTES

- Some of the beneficial outcomes associated with nature may be explained by a person's sense of their connectedness to nature. People vary in the extent of their subjective connection to nature, and studies suggest that people who report feeling more connected tend to have more pro-environmental attitudes and behavioral similarities, such as greater engagement in outdoor activities/time spent outdoors.<sup>93</sup>
  - Some evidence suggests that women may have both a stronger preference for nature and experience stronger positive outcomes with exposure.<sup>70,72</sup>
  - A person's sense of nature connectedness appears to be positively correlated with psychological and social well-being, as well as happiness.<sup>94,95</sup>

# FEATURE M10: TOBACCO CESSATION

## OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Make available incentive programs and resources to aid in quitting tobacco use, such as referrals to tobacco cessation telephone quit lines, counseling, medication and nicotine replacement products.

**Part 2:** Ban the sale of tobacco products on the project property and educate employees on the health consequences of using such products.

## SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- There are many types of tobacco products, but the most popular form of nicotine use globally is through smoking cigarettes.<sup>345</sup>
  - Cigarettes contain and produce through combustion (i.e., burning) several thousand harmful chemicals. Nicotine is of particular interest because of its psychoactive properties (i.e., affecting the brain) – it is powerfully addictive and induces behavioral changes such as increased attention, anxiety reduction and appetite suppression.<sup>345-348</sup> This psychoactive effect also explains some of the withdrawal symptoms associated with quitting tobacco, which include irritability, depressed mood, decreased heart rate and increased appetite.<sup>345-348</sup>
- Globally, tobacco use is responsible for killing half of its 1.1 billion users, including more than seven million people a year.<sup>349</sup> If trends continue, by 2030, tobacco use will cause an estimated 10 million deaths every year — a preventable death every three seconds that would eclipse deaths by any other cause.<sup>350</sup>
- To truly help people with tobacco cessation (i.e., quitting tobacco), it is important to not only consider individual behaviors but also to address the environment that makes smoking and other tobacco-related behaviors possible, including strategies such as changing social norms around smoking.<sup>351</sup> Similarly, it is important to address both the physical element of addiction (i.e., the way it affects and changes neurochemistry) as well as the social or behavioral elements of addiction (i.e., cravings and drug-seeking behaviors that have become learned and make up habits).<sup>351</sup>
  - The success behind trends seen in the United States, wherein the number of smokers dropped from 47% in 1965 to 22% in 1999, is attributed to a shift in strategy away from focusing only on individual-based reasons for smoking to include a consideration of the environment as a medium that either can support or deter smoking behavior.<sup>351</sup>

## KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- There is no safe level of exposure to tobacco smoke, yet an estimated 1.1 billion people smoke tobacco worldwide. Smoking kills more than seven million people annually.<sup>352,353</sup>
- Smoking harms nearly every organ in the body and causes several cancers (e.g., lung, liver, colorectal, prostate, breast), respiratory diseases (e.g., chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, tuberculosis, bronchitis), cardiovascular problems (e.g., stroke, angina, heart attacks) and other adverse health outcomes, such as diabetes, rheumatoid arthritis and a compromised immune system.<sup>354-356</sup>
- Eliminating the presence of secondhand smoke can prevent “involuntary smoking” and the onset of several adverse health effects accounting for more than 890,000 premature deaths per year.<sup>353</sup>
- Removing opportunities for thirdhand smoke to persist in the environment protects people from further exposure to nicotine and a number of other harmful contaminants, including potential carcinogens that form as a function of chemical interactions between thirdhand smoke and other air contaminants.<sup>357-359</sup>
- Most secondhand smoke exposure occurs in homes and offices, making these environments particularly important for intervention for children and nonsmokers. Children are an important group to consider in tobacco prevention campaigns overall, and in particular they are uniquely susceptible to both secondhand and thirdhand smoke exposure as data in homes demonstrate particularly well.<sup>360-363</sup>
  - A 2011 study demonstrated that thirdhand smoke persists in homes months after smokers vacate the residence, even if the homes are cleaned, re-carpeted and painted.<sup>364</sup>
- Health risks specific to the use of e-cigarettes, as well as the actual effectiveness of e-cigarettes in aiding tobacco cessation efforts, are actively being researched. Some studies suggest that e-cigarettes are indeed useful tobacco replacement products, while others note that the liquids used (especially flavorings) may lead to adverse health outcomes.<sup>365-368</sup> Notably, the presence and use of e-cigarettes may re-normalize smoking and represent a new avenue for engaging people who otherwise would remain nonsmokers.<sup>369,370</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- Several studies have demonstrated that the workplace is a critical and effective setting for supporting tobacco cessation efforts around the world. However, some studies report that while these interventions are effective initially, people may need further help to maintain their quitting effort.<sup>371-377</sup>
  - The workplace has played an important role in shifting norms and supporting a drop in the prevalence of smoking. Between 1991 and 2015, the percentage of people who reported working in a smoke-free workplace in the United States rose from about 45% to about 80%.<sup>378</sup> In the early 1990s, the tobacco industry itself noted in internal documents the effectiveness of workplace restrictions on reducing rates of smoking: “Smokers facing these restrictions consume 11%-15% less than average and quit at a rate that is 84% higher than average.”<sup>379</sup>
- Workplace interventions that include facilitating group or individual counseling for people attempting to quit smoking have been found to be effective in increasing the likelihood of tobacco cessation.<sup>380</sup>
- Quit lines (i.e., telephone lines available to support people attempting to quit) are an inexpensive and cost-effective way to support tobacco cessation efforts. They provide a way for people to access counseling services without a great cost barrier or any added inconvenience. As an intervention strategy, quit lines represent an opportunity to reach a wide audience, including communities that may otherwise have difficulty accessing mainstream services. For example, reports from the United Kingdom and Sweden suggest that these services are particularly helpful for reaching racial/ethnic minority groups that may experience barriers to cessation resources.<sup>351,381,382</sup>
- Nicotine replacement therapy provides a source of nicotine for addicted individuals while supporting the reduction or elimination of exposure to tobacco and all of the other harmful chemicals contained in cigarettes.<sup>383</sup> This type of intervention has been found to increase a smoker’s chances of quitting by 58% compared to placebo or other types of interventions.<sup>383</sup>
  - While nicotine is a prominent force in driving cravings for tobacco, it is not the singular source of cravings. The smell of smoke, tobacco advertisements or other cues that people have been conditioned to associate with tobacco can trigger cravings and may act alongside nicotine to enhance the potency of cravings.<sup>345</sup>

## ADDITIONAL NOTES

- According to the Global Adults Tobacco Survey, from the countries surveyed, the largest number of tobacco users are found in China (291 million) followed by India (275 million), while prevalence is greatest in Bangladesh (43% of the population).<sup>384</sup>
- The prevalence of use is much higher in men than women in every country. This discrepancy is the most extreme in some Asian countries, such as China, where the male-to-female ratio for tobacco use is 27:1 and in Egypt, where the male-to-female tobacco use ratio is 38:1.<sup>384</sup>
- The quit ratio is less than 20% in the following countries: Bangladesh, China, Egypt, Indonesia, Malaysia and the Russian Federation.<sup>384</sup>
  - Some of the countries with the highest use of tobacco also show low rates in the desire to quit among smokers: In China, only a reported 23% of adults believe smoking causes serious illness and only a little more than 16% of smokers wanted to quit within the next year. Similarly, in India, only 26% of smokers wanted to quit smoking within the next year.<sup>384</sup>
- Worldwide, nicotine dependence tends to be higher in populations with mental health conditions and substance use disorders, compared to the general population.<sup>385-390</sup> This co-occurrence points to a critical need to intervene, since these communities are disproportionately affected by tobacco and related morbidities and mortalities.<sup>385-390</sup>
- In many places where tobacco reduction efforts have been successful, new disparities have been introduced. Rates of decline are seen mostly in socioeconomically advantaged populations, whereas groups of lower socioeconomic status (assessed via educational attainment, income and employment), as well as social or racial/ethnic minority groups, have not seen the same rates of reduction and at times may even be subject to more aggressive marketing and other persuasive efforts to encourage uptake and continued use.<sup>391-394</sup>

# FEATURE M11: SUBSTANCE USE SERVICES

## OVERVIEW

**Part 1:** Educate all regular building occupants on workplace policies regarding on-site alcohol and drug use and provide on-site, off-site or online trainings at least once per year to raise awareness regarding healthy and unhealthy substance use practices.

**Part 2:** Provide substance use and addiction services for all eligible employees at no or subsidized cost, as well as information on benefits coverage and confidential benefits consultations.

## SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

- Substance use disorders (SUDs) are distinct from substance use. Substance use entails the occasional and controlled use of a drug, whereas a SUD is characterized by abuse, dependence or addiction, and often includes the inability to control or limit use, resulting in chronic, impulsive and/or compulsive substance use.<sup>395</sup>
  - A substance in this context is defined as any compound with psychoactive effects on the user that has the potential to cause health and/or social problems.
  - A psychiatric-motivational framework proposes that drug addiction reflects elements characteristic of both impulse control disorders (i.e., a rising tension to commit an act and gratification upon committing the act) and compulsive disorders (i.e., stress before committing a repetitive behavior and relief upon indulging in the behavior).<sup>395</sup>
  - While the focus of this feature centers on substance use, neuroimaging studies show that addiction spans several types of activities, including things such as eating, gambling and shopping.<sup>396</sup>
- Addiction is characterized by a relapsing, multi-step cycle of craving, intoxication, binging and withdrawal.<sup>397</sup>
- A heavily stigmatized disorder, addiction previously has been depicted as a reflection of an individual's lack of willpower or moral integrity. However, this characterization is scientifically inaccurate and ignores the complex interplay of behavior, environment, genetics and biology that drives the way addiction chemically works in the brain and shapes behavior.
  - A large body of research spanning the past several decades on the neuroscience of addiction reveals that it involves atypical or dysfunctional neurocircuitry — particularly as it relates to the limbic system and circuits in our brain associated with inhibition, reward and pleasure mechanisms, as well as the prefrontal cortex, which is involved in higher-order executive cognitive functions, such as decision-making, planning, self-control and awareness. Further, the use of certain substances alters and reinforces functional changes in the brain that make people increasingly susceptible to the effects of a drug and makes it more difficult to resist urges moving forward.<sup>395-402</sup>

## KEY HEALTH AND WELL-BEING EFFECTS

- Across the globe, mental health and substance use disorders were directly responsible for an estimated 232,000 deaths or 8.6 million Years of Life Lost (YLL) in 2010. A vast majority of these cases of mortality potentially are preventable by addressing SUDs, which were the leading cause of deaths.<sup>403</sup>
  - YLL is a common metric that describes the total sum across a given population of the number of years of life that is lost due to premature mortality (i.e., death that occurs earlier than would be expected of a healthy individual) because of some disease or disability.<sup>404</sup>
- The specific health consequences of a SUD differs by substance and severity of the SUD and may include depression, poisoning or overdose, injury, abuse of other substances, and chronic disease, such as certain cancers or cardiovascular disease, among others.<sup>405</sup>
- The International Agency for Research on Cancer classifies alcohol as a known carcinogen, which has been demonstrated to cause certain cancers, including cancers of the upper aerodigestive tract, colorectum, liver and breast in women. Due to the nature of how this carcinogen works in the body, a person can reduce their risk of cancer through any reduction in alcohol consumption.<sup>406</sup>
  - Overall, consuming less than seven drinks a week is associated with longer life expectancy of up to two years compared to those who consume 14 to 24 drinks per week, and a longer life expectancy of up to five years compared to those who consume more than 25 drinks per week.<sup>407</sup>
- By appropriately addressing substance use, employers can avoid losses in productivity, improve morale, and reduce workplace accidents, injuries, absenteeism and illness.<sup>408</sup>

## HEALTH PROMOTION BENEFITS AND STRATEGIES

- Addiction treatment programs can help people with SUDs abstain from use and take better advantage of available services.<sup>408</sup> However, according to data from 2016, only one in six people living with a SUD received treatment.<sup>26</sup> Evidence shows that SUDs can be treated effectively, with remission rates on par with other chronic diseases, with proper treatment plans and medication.<sup>409</sup>
- Early intervention has been shown to reduce the risk of injury or adverse health or social effects and can slow or altogether prevent the progression of substance use into a disorder. Early intervention involves providing information on risks, education on safe levels of use, and strategies for how to stop or limit use of the substance, including the promotion of behavioral therapy, which tends to be under-used.<sup>410,411</sup>
- Workplace intervention and prevention policies can help people manage their substance use behaviors and needs and even help to reduce substance use, while creating a safer work environment with improved motivation and productivity.<sup>412,413</sup>
- Screenings are a low-cost and reliable way to identify cases of substance misuse and SUDs.<sup>414</sup>
  - Identification of an issue is a critical first step. In one study, more than two-thirds of participants thought their problem could have been recognized earlier and shared fears of embarrassment, stigma and professional consequences as barriers to seeking help.<sup>415</sup>

## ADDITIONAL NOTES

- A person's susceptibility to developing an addiction is related to a number of factors, and the more risk factors a person is exposed to, the more likely they are to confront a problem with addiction. Genes account for an estimated 40% to 60% of a person's risk of addiction, but some other significant risk factors include community poverty and general social environment, lack of parental supervision or parents who use drugs, a co-existing mental health condition, the availability of drugs at school and the age of first use.<sup>416-423</sup>
- Substance use affects every subset of society, but trends indicate that men may be more likely to suffer from SUDs than women.<sup>424</sup>
- Alcohol and drug use initiation tends to peak at adolescence and early adulthood, particularly for those who have experienced childhood adversity or trauma, making this a critical time for intervention.<sup>425,426</sup>

## REFERENCES

1. World Health Organization. Mental Health: A State of Well-Being. [https://www.who.int/features/factfiles/mental\\_health/en/](https://www.who.int/features/factfiles/mental_health/en/). Published 2014. Accessed February 11, 2019.
2. Steel Z, Marnane C, Iranpour C, et al. The global prevalence of common mental disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis 1980-2013. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2014;43(2):476-493.
3. Brundtland GH. From the World Health Organization. Mental health: new understanding, new hope. *JAMA*. 2001;286(19):2391.
4. Global Health Data Exchange. GBD Results Tool. <http://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-results-tool>. Published 2019. Accessed January 1, 2019.
5. Wang PS, Aguilar-Gaxiola S, Alonso J, et al. Use of mental health services for anxiety, mood, and substance disorders in 17 countries in the WHO world mental health surveys. *The Lancet*. 2007;370(9590):841-850.
6. Ratzan SC, Parker RM. Introduction. In: Selden CR ZM, Ratzan SC, Parker RM, ed. *National Library of Medicine current bibliographies in medicine: Health literacy*. Bethesda, MD: National Institutes of Health; 2000.
7. Poureslami I, Nimmon L, Rootman I, Fitzgerald MJ. Health literacy and chronic disease management: drawing from expert knowledge to set an agenda. *Health promotion international*. 2017;32(4):743-754.
8. Peerson A, Saunders M. Health literacy revisited: what do we mean and why does it matter? *Health Promot Int*. 2009;24(3):285-296.
9. Nutbeam D. The evolving concept of health literacy. *Soc Sci Med*. 2008;67(12):2072-2078.
10. Kutcher S, Wei Y, Coniglio C. Mental Health Literacy: Past, Present, and Future. *Can J Psychiatry*. 2016;61(3):154-158.
11. Mental Disorders World Health Organization Fact Sheets Web site. <https://www.who.int/en/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/mental-disorders>. Published 2019. Accessed.
12. Bigos JS, Battié CM, Spengler MD, et al. A prospective study of work perceptions and psychosocial factors affecting the report of back injury. *Spine*. 1991;16(1):1-6.
13. Bongers PM, de Winter CR, Kompier MA, Hildebrandt VH. Psychosocial factors at work and musculoskeletal disease. In: Bongers PM, ed. *Vol 191993:297-312*.
14. Kendler KS, Karkowski LM, Prescott CA. Causal relationship between stressful life events and the onset of major depression. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1999;156(6):837-841.
15. Finlay-Jones R, Brown GW. Types of stressful life event and the onset of anxiety and depressive disorders. 1981(0033-2917 (Print)).
16. Cassem EH. Depressive disorders in the medically ill: an overview. *Psychosomatics*. 1995;36(2):S2-S10.
17. Schubert C, Lambertz M, Nelesen R, Bardwell W, Choi J-B, Dimsdale J. Effects of stress on heart rate complexity—a comparison between short-term and chronic stress. *Biological psychology*. 2009;80(3):325-332.
18. Fenton WS, Stover ES. Mood disorders: cardiovascular and diabetes comorbidity. *Curr Opin Psychiatry*. 2006;19(4):421-427.
19. World Health Organization. Depression. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/depression>. Published 2018. Accessed February 2, 2019.
20. Evans DL, Charney DS, Lewis L, et al. Mood Disorders in the Medically Ill: Scientific Review and Recommendations. *Biological Psychiatry*. 2005;58(3):175-189.
21. J. Katon W. Epidemiology and treatment of depression in patients with chronic medical illness. *Dialogues Clin Neurosci*. 2011;13(1):7-23.
22. Kemp AH, Quintana DS. The relationship between mental and physical health: insights from the study of heart rate variability. *Int J Psychophysiol*. 2013;89(3):288-296.
23. Knol MJ, Twisk JW, Beekman AT, Heine RJ, Snoek FJ, Pouwer F. Depression as a risk factor for the onset of type 2 diabetes mellitus. A meta-analysis. *Diabetologia*. 2006;49(5):837-845.
24. Surtees PG, Wainwright NW, Luben RN, Wareham NJ, Bingham SA, Khaw KT. Psychological distress, major depressive disorder, and risk of stroke. *Neurology*. 2008;70(10):788-794.
25. World Health Organization. *Global Status Report on Alcohol and Health*. Geneva, Switzerland 2014.
26. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. *Global overview of drug demand and supply*. New York: United Nations; 2018.
27. *Alcohol and drug use disorders: Global Health Estimates*. World Health Organization 2017.
28. Global Health Data Exchange. GBD Results Tool. Anxiety Web site. <http://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-results-tool?params=gbd-api-2017-permalink/24fc93506da80901e55f4c68a8bd0587>. Published 2019. Accessed May 12, 2020.



29. World Health Organization. Depression and Other Common Mental Disorders: Global Health Estimates. Geneva 2017. WHO/MSD/MER/2017.2.
30. Global Health Data Exchange. GBD Results Tool Depressive disorders Web site. <http://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-results-tool?params=gbd-api-2017-permalink/04c958d4232a87652bb3a3e21ea6771b>. Published 2019. Accessed May 12, 2020.
31. Global Health Data Exchange. GBD Results Tool Substance use disorders Web site. <http://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-results-tool?params=gbd-api-2017-permalink/d8d395156f9b8bebb8cbc64d2d6659f2>. Published 2019. Accessed May 12, 2020.
32. World Health Organization. Metrics: Disability-Adjusted Life Year (DALY). [https://www.who.int/healthinfo/global\\_burden\\_disease/metrics\\_daly/en/](https://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/metrics_daly/en/). Published 2019. Accessed January 5, 2019.
33. Mykletun A, Harvey SB. Prevention of mental disorders: a new era for workplace mental health. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*. 2012;69(12):868.
34. Hughes SL, Seymour RB, Campbell RT, Shaw JW, Fabiyi C, Sokas R. Comparison of two health-promotion programs for older workers. *Am J Public Health*. 2011;101(5):883-890.
35. Goetzel RZ, Long SR, Ozminkowski RJ, Hawkins K, Wang S, Lynch W. Health, absence, disability, and presenteeism cost estimates of certain physical and mental health conditions affecting U.S. employers. *J Occup Environ Med*. 2004;46(4):398-412.
36. Rongen A, Robroek SJW, van Lenthe FJ, Burdorf A. Workplace health promotion: a meta-analysis of effectiveness. *Am J Prev Med*. 2013;44(4):406-415.
37. McLeod J. The effectiveness of workplace counselling: A systematic review. *Counselling and Psychotherapy Research*. 2010;10(4):238-248.
38. Hanisch SE, Twomey CD, Szeto ACH, Birner UW, Nowak D, Sabariego C. The effectiveness of interventions targeting the stigma of mental illness at the workplace: a systematic review. *BMC Psychiatry*. 2016;16(1):1-1.
39. Azzone V, McCann B, Merrick EL, Hiatt D, Hodgkin D, Horgan C. Workplace Stress, Organizational Factors and EAP Utilization. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*. 2009;24(3):344-356.
40. Jung J, Nitzsche A, Ansmann L, et al. Organizational factors and the attitude toward health promotion in German ICT-companies. *Health Promot Int*. 2012;27(3):382-393.
41. Murray E, Treweek S, Pope C, et al. Normalisation process theory: a framework for developing, evaluating and implementing complex interventions. *BMC medicine*. 2010;8:63-63.
42. Wong BK. Building a health literate workplace. *Workplace Health Saf*. 2012;60(8):363-369; quiz 370.
43. Larsen AK, Holtermann A, Mortensen OS, Punnett L, Rod MH, Jørgensen MB. Organizing workplace health literacy to reduce musculoskeletal pain and consequences. *BMC Nurs*. 2015;14:46-46.
44. Rod MH. What is health promotion capacity? A relational perspective. *J Health Organ Manag*. 2015;29(2):170-184.
45. Arneson H, Ekberg K. Evaluation of empowerment processes in a workplace health promotion intervention based on learning in Sweden. *Health Promot Int*. 2005;20(4):351-359.
46. Hawe P, Noort M, King L, Jordens C. Multiplying health gains: the critical role of capacity-building within health promotion programs. *Health Policy*. 1997;39(1):29-42.
47. Greenhalgh T. Health literacy: towards system level solutions. *BMJ : British Medical Journal*. 2015;350:h1026.
48. Eaton NR, Keyes KM, Krueger RF, et al. An invariant dimensional liability model of gender differences in mental disorder prevalence: evidence from a national sample. *J Abnorm Psychol*. 2012;121(1):282-288.
49. Kessler RC, McGonagle KA, Swartz M, Blazer DG, Nelson CB. Sex and depression in the National Comorbidity Survey I: Lifetime prevalence, chronicity and recurrence. *Journal of Affective Disorders*. 1993;29(2-3):85-96.
50. Vesga-López O, Schneier FR, Wang S, et al. Gender differences in generalized anxiety disorder: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions (NESARC). *The Journal of clinical psychiatry*. 2008;69(10):1606-1616.
51. Dawson DA, Goldstein RB, Moss HB, Li T-K, Grant BF. Gender differences in the relationship of internalizing and externalizing psychopathology to alcohol dependence: likelihood, expression and course. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2010;112(1-2):9-17.
52. Kessler RC, McGonagle KA, Zhao S, et al. Lifetime and 12-month prevalence of DSM-III-R psychiatric disorders in the United States. Results from the National Comorbidity Survey. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 1994;51(1):8-19.
53. Pignone MP, Gaynes BN, Rushton JL, et al. Screening for Depression in Adults: A Summary of the Evidence for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. *Annals of Internal Medicine*. 2002;136(10):765-776.
54. Directors. CfDCaPaNaOCD. The State of Mental Health and Aging in America. Atlanta, GA: National Association of Chronic Disease Directors. 2008.

55. United Nations. Policy Brief: COVID-19 and the Need for Action on Mental Health. In:2020.
56. United Nations. World urbanization prospects: The 2014 revision. United Nations Department of Economics and Social Affairs, Population Division: New York, NY, USA. 2015;41.
57. Zipperer WC, Pickett ST. Urban Ecology: Patterns of Population Growth and Ecological Effects. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd: Chichester. 2012:1-8.
58. Hartig T, Mitchell R, de Vries S, Frumkin H. Nature and health. *Annu Rev Public Health*. 2014;35(1):207-228.
59. Ryan CO, Browning WD, Clancy JO, Andrews SL, Kallianpurkar NB. Biophilic design patterns: emerging nature-based parameters for health and well-being in the built environment. *ArchNet-IJAR: International Journal of Architectural Research*. 2014;8(2):62.
60. van den Berg AE, Maas J, Verheij RA, Groenewegen PP. Green space as a buffer between stressful life events and health. *Soc Sci Med*. 2010;70(8):1203-1210.
61. Burls A. People and green spaces: Promoting public health and mental well-being through ecotherapy. *Journal of Public Mental Health*. 2007;6:24-39.
62. Kaplan S. The restorative benefits of nature: Toward an integrative framework. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*. 1995;15(3):169-182.
63. Browning W, Ryan C, Clancy J. 14 patterns of biophilic design. New York, NY: Terrapin Bright Green LLC;2014.
64. Ulrich R. Effects of healthcare environmental design on medical outcomes. Paper presented at: Design and Health: Proceedings of the Second International Conference on Health and Design; 01/01, 2001; Stockholm, Sweden.
65. Vincent E, Battisto D, Grimes L. The effects of presence and influence in nature images in a simulated hospital patient room. *HERD: Health Environments Research & Design Journal*. 2010;3(3):56-69.
66. Lohr VI, Pearson-Mims CH, Goodwin GK. Interior plants may improve worker productivity and reduce stress in a windowless environment. *Journal of environmental horticulture*. 1996;14(2):97-100.
67. Nang Li H, Kwan Chau C, Sze Tse M, Tang SK. On the study of the effects of sea views, greenery views and personal characteristics on noise annoyance perception at homes. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*. 2012;131(3):2131-2140.
68. Li X, Zhang Z, Gu M, et al. Effects of plantscape colors on psycho-physiological responses of university students. *Journal of Food, Agriculture & Environment*. 2012;10(1):702-708.
69. Han K-T. An exploration of relationships among the responses to natural scenes: scenic beauty, preference, and restoration. *Environment and Behavior*. 2010;42(2):243-270.
70. Shibata S, Suzuki N. Effects of the foliage plant on task performance and mood. *Journal of environmental psychology*. 2002;22(3):265-272.
71. Larsen L, Adams J, Deal B, Kweon BS, Tyler E. Plants in the workplace: The effects of plant density on productivity, attitudes, and perceptions. *Environment and behavior*. 1998;30(3):261-281.
72. Kweon B-S, Ulrich RS, Walker VD, Tassinari LG. Anger and stress: The role of landscape posters in an office setting. *Environment and Behavior*. 2008;40(3):355-381.
73. Dadvand P, Nieuwenhuijsen MJ, Esnaola M, et al. Green spaces and cognitive development in primary schoolchildren. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2015;112(26):7937-7942.
74. Mayer FS, Frantz CM, Bruehlman-Senecal E, Dolliver K. Why is nature beneficial? The role of connectedness to nature. *Environment and behavior*. 2009;41(5):607-643.
75. Kuo FE. Coping with poverty: Impacts of environment and attention in the inner city. *Environment and behavior*. 2001;33(1):5-34.
76. Gidlow CJ, Jones MV, Hurst G, et al. Where to put your best foot forward: Psycho-physiological responses to walking in natural and urban environments. *Journal of environmental psychology*. 2016;45:22-29.
77. Tyrväinen L, Ojala A, Korpela K, Lanki T, Tsunetsugu Y, Kagawa T. The influence of urban green environments on stress relief measures: A field experiment. *Journal of environmental psychology*. 2014;38:1-9.
78. Kaplan R, Kaplan S. *The Experience of Nature: A Psychological Perspective*. CUP Archive; 1989.
79. Jahncke H, Hygge S, Halin N, Green AM, Dimberg K. Open-plan office noise: cognitive performance and restoration. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*. 2011;31(4):373-382.
80. Berto R. Exposure to restorative environments helps restore attentional capacity. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*. 2005;25(3):249-259.
81. Smiraglia C. Artworks at work: the impacts of workplace art. *Journal of Workplace Learning*. 2015;26(5).
82. Bjornstad S, Patil GG, Raanaas RK. Nature contact and organizational support during office working hours: Benefits relating to stress reduction, subjective health complaints, and sick leave. *Work*. 2015;53(1):9-20.
83. Largo-Wight E, Chen WW, Dodd V, Weiler R. Healthy Workplaces: The Effects of Nature Contact at Work on Employee Stress and Health. *Public Health Rep*. 2011;126 Suppl 1:124-130.

84. Ulrich RS. View through a window may influence recovery from surgery. *Science*. 1984;224(4647):420-421.
85. Verderber S. Dimensions of person-window transactions in the hospital environment. *Environment and Behavior*. 1986;18(4):450-466.
86. Kant IJ, Bultmann U, Schroer KA, Beurskens AJ, Van Amelsvoort LG, Swaen GM. An epidemiological approach to study fatigue in the working population: the Maastricht Cohort Study. *Occup Environ Med*. 2003;60 Suppl 1:i32-39.
87. Laumann K, Gärling T, Stormark KM. Rating scale measures of restorative components of environments. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*. 2001;21(1):31-44.
88. Laumann K, Gärling T, Stormark KM. Selective attention and heart rate responses to natural and urban environments. *Journal of environmental psychology*. 2003;23(2):125-134.
89. Nejati A, Shepley M, Rodiek S, Lee C, Varni J. Restorative design features for hospital staff break areas: A multi-method study. *HERD: Health Environments Research & Design Journal*. 2016;9(2):16-35.
90. Grinde B, Patil GG. Biophilia: Does visual contact with nature impact on health and well-being? *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2009;6(9):2332-2343.
91. Giddings B, Thomas J, Little L. Evaluation of the Workplace Environment in the UK, and the Impact on Users' Levels of Stimulation. *Indoor and Built Environment*. 2013;22(6):965-976.
92. Krentz UC, Earl RK. The baby as beholder: Adults and infants have common preferences for original art. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts*. 2013;7(2):181-190.
93. Nisbet EK, Zelenski JM, Murphy SA. The nature relatedness scale: Linking individuals' connection with nature to environmental concern and behavior. *Environment and Behavior*. 2008;41(5):715-740.
94. Capaldi CA, Dopko RL, Zelenski JM. The relationship between nature connectedness and happiness: A meta-analysis. *Front Psychol*. 2014;5:976-976.
95. Howell AJ, Dopko RL, Passmore H-A, Buro K. Nature connectedness: Associations with well-being and mindfulness. *Personality and Individual Differences*. 2011;51(2):166-171.
96. Investing in treatment for depression and anxiety leads to fourfold return [press release]. 2016.
97. Thornicroft G. Most people with mental illness are not treated. *The Lancet*. 2007;370(9590):807-808.
98. Wang PS, Berglund P, Olfson M, Pincus HA, Wells KB, Kessler RC. Failure and Delay in Initial Treatment Contact After First Onset of Mental Disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2005;62(6):603-613.
99. Mental disorders affect one in four people [press release]. 2001.
100. World Health Organization. Mental Disorders. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/mental-disorders>. Published 2018. Accessed November 21, 2019.
101. Andrade LH, Alonso J, Mneimneh Z, et al. Barriers to mental health treatment: results from the WHO World Mental Health surveys. *Psychol Med*. 2014;44(6):1303-1317.
102. Pescosolido BA, Martin JK, Long JS, Medina TR, Phelan JC, Link BG. "A Disease Like Any Other"? A Decade of Change in Public Reactions to Schizophrenia, Depression, and Alcohol Dependence. *American Journal of Psychiatry*. 2010;167(11):1321-1330.
103. Cohen S, Janicki-Deverts D, Miller GE. Psychological Stress and Disease. *JAMA*. 2007;298(14):1685-1687.
104. Charmandari E, Tsigos C, Chrousos G. Endocrinology of the stress response. *Annual review of physiology*. 2005;67:259.
105. Sheldon C, Denise J-D, William JD, et al. Chronic stress, glucocorticoid receptor resistance, inflammation, and disease risk. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2012;109(16):5995.
106. Flier JS, Underhill LH, McEwen BS. Protective and damaging effects of stress mediators. *The New England Journal of Medicine*. 1998;338(3):171-179.
107. Turner R, Lloyd D. Lifetime Traumas and Mental Health: The Significance of Cumulative Adversity. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*. 1995;36(4):360.
108. Brady KT, Sinha R. Co-Occurring Mental and Substance Use Disorders: The Neurobiological Effects of Chronic Stress. *American Journal of Psychiatry*. 2005;162(8):1483-1493.
109. Marin M-F, Lord C, Andrews J, et al. Chronic stress, cognitive functioning and mental health. *Neurobiology of Learning and Memory*. 2011;96(4):583-595.
110. Siegrist J. Chronic psychosocial stress at work and risk of depression: evidence from prospective studies. *European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience*. 2008;258(Supplement 5):115-119.
111. Global Health Data Exchange. GBD Results Tool - Anxiety. <http://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-results-tool?params=gbd-api-2017-permalink/24fc93506da80901e55f4c68a8bd0587>. Published 2019. Accessed May 12, 2020.
112. Healthy People 2010. Chapter 26: Substance Abuse. 2010.
113. Walton L. Exploration of the attitudes of employees towards the provision of counselling within a profit-making organisation. *Counselling and Psychotherapy Research*. 2003;3(1):65-71.

114. Goss S, Mearns D. Applied pluralism in the evaluation of employee counselling. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*. 1997;25(3):327-344.
115. Vogt D. Mental health-related beliefs as a barrier to service use for military personnel and veterans: a review. *Psychiatr Serv*. 2011;62(2):135-142.
116. Rüsç N, Thornicroft G. Does stigma impair prevention of mental disorders? *The British journal of psychiatry : the journal of mental science*. 2014;204:249.
117. The Sainsbury Centre for Mental Health. Policy Paper 8: Mental Health at Work: Developing the business case. The Sainsbury Centre for Mental Health;2007.
118. World Health Organization. *Mental Health Policies and Programmes in the Workplace*. Geneva, Switzerland2005.
119. Kessler RC, Frank RG. The impact of psychiatric disorders on work loss days. *Psychol Med*. 1997;27(4):861-873.
120. International Labour Organization. *Mental Health in the Workplace. Introduction: Executive summaries*. Geneva: International Labour Organization; 2000.
121. Lewis G, Sharp D, Bartholomew J, Pelosi AJ. Computerized assessment of common mental disorders in primary care: effect on clinical outcome. *Fam Pract*. 1996;13(2):120-126.
122. Wells KB, Sherbourne C, Schoenbaum M, et al. Impact of disseminating quality improvement programs for depression in managed primary care: a randomized controlled trial. *Jama*. 2000;283(2):212-220.
123. Katzelnick DJ, Simon GE, Pearson SD, et al. Randomized trial of a depression management program in high utilizers of medical care. *Arch Fam Med*. 2000;9(4):345-351.
124. Williams JW, Jr., Mulrow CD, Kroenke K, et al. Case-finding for depression in primary care: a randomized trial. *Am J Med*. 1999;106(1):36-43.
125. Callahan CM, Dittus RS, Tierney WM. Primary care physicians' medical decision making for late-life depression. *J Gen Intern Med*. 1996;11(4):218-225.
126. Callahan CM, Hendrie HC, Dittus RS, Brater DC, Hui SL, Tierney WM. Improving treatment of late life depression in primary care: a randomized clinical trial. *J Am Geriatr Soc*. 1994;42(8):839-846.
127. Zung WW, King RE. Identification and treatment of masked depression in a general medical practice. *J Clin Psychiatry*. 1983;44(10):365-368.
128. Kessler RC, Barker PR, Colpe LJ, et al. Screening for Serious Mental Illness in the General Population. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2003;60(2):184-189.
129. Sakurai K, Nishi A, Kondo K, Yanagida K, Kawakami N. Screening performance of K6/K10 and other screening instruments for mood and anxiety disorders in Japan. *Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences*. 2011;65(5):434-441.
130. Veitch JA. *Workplace Design Contributions to Mental Health and Well-Being*. *HealthcarePapers*. 2011;11(Sp):38-46.
131. Asioli D, Aschemann-Witzel J, Caputo V, et al. Making sense of the “clean label” trends: A review of consumer food choice behavior and discussion of industry implications. *Food Research International*. 2017;99:58-71.
132. Statistics ABo. *National survey of mental health and wellbeing: Summary of results*. (Catalogue No 43260). 2007.
133. World Health Organization. *Mental health in the workplace*. Mental Health Web site. [https://www.who.int/mental\\_health/in\\_the\\_workplace/en/](https://www.who.int/mental_health/in_the_workplace/en/). Published 2019. Accessed May 12, 2020.
134. Selye H. *The stress of life*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company; 1956.
135. McEwen BS. Protective and damaging effects of stress mediators. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 1998;338(3):171-179.
136. Cannon WB. *Bodily changes in pain, hunger, fear and rage*. New York, NY: D. Appleton and Company; 1922.
137. Sterling P, Eyer J. Allostasis: a new paradigm to explain arousal pathology. *Handbook of of Life Stress, Cognition and Health*. 1988.
138. Cohen S, Janicki-Deverts D, Miller GE. Psychological stress and disease. *Jama*. 2007;298(14):1685-1687.
139. Cohen S, Janicki-Deverts D, Doyle WJ, et al. Chronic stress, glucocorticoid receptor resistance, inflammation, and disease risk. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2012;109(16):5995-5999.
140. Eller NH, Netterstrøm B, Gyntelberg F, et al. Work-related psychosocial factors and the development of ischemic heart disease: a systematic review. *Cardiology in review*. 2009;17(2):83-97.
141. Kivimäki M, Nyberg ST, Batty GD, et al. Job strain as a risk factor for coronary heart disease: a collaborative meta-analysis of individual participant data. *The Lancet*. 2012;380(9852):1491-1497.
142. Tsutsumi A, Kawakami N. A review of empirical studies on the model of effort–reward imbalance at work: reducing occupational stress by implementing a new theory. *Social science & medicine*. 2004;59(11):2335-2359.
143. Stansfeld S, Candy B. Psychosocial work environment and mental health—a meta-analytic review. *Scandinavian journal of work, environment & health*. 2006;443-462.
144. Lamontagne AD, Keegel T, Louie AM, Ostry A. Job stress as a preventable upstream determinant of common mental disorders: A review for practitioners and policy-makers. *Advances in Mental Health*. 2010;9(1):17-35.

145. Martin A. Individual and contextual correlates of managers' attitudes toward depressed employees. *Human Resource Management*. 2010;49(4):647-668.
146. Co-operation OfE, Development. *Sick on the job?: Myths and realities about mental health and work*. OECD Publishing Paris; 2012.
147. Kelloway EK, Barling J. Leadership development as an intervention in occupational health psychology. *Work & Stress*. 2010;24(3):260-279.
148. Develop & Test Materials. Health Literacy Web site. <https://www.cdc.gov/healthliteracy/developmaterials/index.html>. Published 2019. Accessed May 13, 2020.
149. Promoting gender equality in mental health and clinical research. European Parliament;2017.
150. Selye H. *The stress of life*. McGraw-Hill; 1978.
151. Cannon WB. Bodily changes in pain, hunger, fear and rage. *Southern Medical Journal*. 1929;22(9):870.
152. Sterling P, Eyer J. Allostasis: a new paradigm to explain arousal pathology. 1988.
153. McEwen BS. Neurobiological and systemic effects of chronic stress. *Chronic stress (Thousand Oaks, Calif)*. 2017;1:10.1177/2470547017692328.
154. McEwen BS, Stellar E. Stress and the individual. Mechanisms leading to disease. *Arch Intern Med*. 1993;153(18):2093-2101.
155. World Health Organization. *Mental health policies and programmes in the workplace: mental health policy and service guidance package*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2005.
156. Lundberg U, Kadefors R, Melin B, et al. Psychophysiological stress and emg activity of the trapezius muscle. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*. 1994;1(4):354-370.
157. Kivimaki M, Virtanen M, Elovainio M, Kouvonen A, Vaananen A, Vahtera J. Work stress in the etiology of coronary heart disease--a meta-analysis. *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 2006;32(6):431-442.
158. Golbidi S, Frisbee J, Laher I. Chronic stress impacts the cardiovascular system: animal models and clinical outcomes. *American Journal of Physiology: Heart and Circulatory Physiology*. 2015;308(12):H1476-H1476.
159. Schnall PL, Landsbergis PA, Baker D. Job strain and cardiovascular disease. *Annual Review of Public Health*. 1994;15(1):381-411.
160. Eaker ED. Psychosocial risk factors for coronary heart disease in women. *Cardiology Clinics*. 1998;16(1):103-111.
161. Cohen S, Tyrrell DAJ, Smith AP. Psychological stress and susceptibility to the common cold. *The New England Journal of Medicine*. 1991;325(9):606-612.
162. Cohen S, Frank E, Doyle WJ, Skoner DP, Rabin BS, Gwaltney JMJ. Types of stressors that increase susceptibility to the common cold in healthy adults. 1998(0278-6133 (Print)).
163. Hammen C. Stress and depression. *Annu Rev Clin Psychol*. 2005;1:293-319.
164. Melchior M, Caspi A, Milne BJ, Danese A, Poulton R, Moffitt TE. Work stress precipitates depression and anxiety in young, working women and men. *Psychol Med*. 2007;37(8):1119-1129.
165. McCraty R, Atkinson M, Tomasi D. Impact of a workplace stress reduction program on blood pressure and emotional health in hypertensive employees. *J Altern Complement Med*. 2003;9(3):355-369.
166. D'Souza RM, Strazdins L, Lim LL, Broom DH, Rodgers B. Work and health in a contemporary society: demands, control, and insecurity. *J Epidemiol Community Health*. 2003;57(11):849-854.
167. Broom DH, D'Souza RM, Strazdins L, Butterworth P, Parslow R, Rodgers B. The lesser evil: Bad jobs or unemployment? A survey of mid-aged Australians. *Social Science & Medicine*. 2006;63(3):575-586.
168. Andrea H, Bültmann U, van Amelsvoort LGPM, Kant Y. The incidence of anxiety and depression among employees—the role of psychosocial work characteristics. *Depression and Anxiety*. 2009;26(11):1040-1048.
169. Stuke H, BERPohl F. Which working conditions promote the development of depressive disorders? *Psychiatr Prax*. 2016;43(5):245-252.
170. Wang JL. Perceived work stress, imbalance between work and family/personal lives, and mental disorders. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol*. 2006;41(7):541-548.
171. What Is Cognitive Behavioral Therapy? PTSD Guide Web site. <https://www.apa.org/ptsd-guideline/patients-and-families/cognitive-behavioral>. Accessed May 13, 2020.
172. Dalgaard VL, Andersen LPS, Andersen JH, Willert MV, Carstensen O, Glasscock DJ. Work-focused cognitive behavioral intervention for psychological complaints in patients on sick leave due to work-related stress: Results from a randomized controlled trial. *J Negat Results Biomed*. 2017;16(1):13-13.
173. Sonnentag S, Frese M. Stress in organizations. In: *Handbook of Psychology*.2003:453-491.
174. van der Klink JJ, Blonk RW, Schene AH, van Dijk FJ. The benefits of interventions for work-related stress. *Am J Public Health*. 2001;91(2):270-276.

175. Lamontagne AD, Keegel T, Louie AM, Ostry A, Landsbergis PA. A systematic review of the job-stress intervention evaluation literature, 1990-2005. *Int J Occup Environ Health*. 2007;13(3):268-280.
176. Richardson KM, Rothstein HR. Effects of occupational stress management intervention programs: a meta-analysis. *J Occup Health Psychol*. 2008;13(1):69-93.
177. Sharma M, Rush SE. Mindfulness-based stress reduction as a stress management intervention for healthy individuals: a systematic review. *J Evid Based Complementary Altern Med*. 2014;19(4):271-286.
178. Martin A, Sanderson K, Cocker F. Meta-analysis of the effects of health promotion intervention in the workplace on depression and anxiety symptoms. *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 2009;35(1):7-18.
179. Felitti VJ, Anda RF, Nordenberg D, et al. Relationship of childhood abuse and household dysfunction to many of the leading causes of death in adults. The Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) Study. *Am J Prev Med*. 1998;14(4):245-258.
180. Anda RF, Dong M, Brown DW, et al. The relationship of adverse childhood experiences to a history of premature death of family members. *BMC Public Health*. 2009;9:106.
181. Evans GW, Schamberg MA. Childhood poverty, chronic stress, and adult working memory. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2009;106(16):6545-6549.
182. Kim P, Evans GW, Angstadt M, et al. Effects of childhood poverty and chronic stress on emotion regulatory brain function in adulthood. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2013;110(46):18442-18447.
183. Blair C, Raver CC. Poverty, stress, and brain development: new directions for prevention and intervention. *Acad Pediatr*. 2016;16(3 Suppl):S30-S36.
184. Troxel WM, Matthews KA, Bromberger JT, Sutton-Tyrrell K. Chronic stress burden, discrimination, and subclinical carotid artery disease in African American and Caucasian women. *Health Psychology*. 2003;22(3):300.
185. Ong AD, Fuller-Rowell T, Burrow AL. Racial discrimination and the stress process. *Journal of personality and social psychology*. 2009;96(6):1259.
186. Silove D, Liddell B, Rees S, et al. Effects of recurrent violence on post-traumatic stress disorder and severe distress in conflict-affected Timor-Leste: a 6-year longitudinal study. *The Lancet Global Health*. 2014;2(5):e293-e300.
187. Murthy RS, Lakshminarayana R. Mental health consequences of war: a brief review of research findings. *World Psychiatry*. 2006;5(1):25-30.
188. Thoits PA. Stress and health: major findings and policy implications. *J Health Soc Behav*. 2010;51 Suppl:S41-53.
189. Turner RJ, Avison WR. Status variations in stress exposure: implications for the interpretation of research on race, socioeconomic status, and gender. *J Health Soc Behav*. 2003;44(4):488-505.
190. National Research Council (US) Panel on Race Ethnicity and Health in Later Life. 8, Stress. In: Bulatao RA, Anderson NB, eds. *Understanding racial and ethnic differences in health in late life: a research agenda*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press (US); 2004.
191. Afonso P, Fonseca M, Pires JF. Impact of working hours on sleep and mental health. *Occupational Medicine*. 2017;67(5):377-382.
192. Development OfEC-0a. Hours worked. OECD data Web site. <https://data.oecd.org/emp/hours-worked.htm>. Published 2019. Accessed December 20, 2019.
193. Frone MR. Work-family balance. In: Quick JC, Tetrick LE, eds. *Handbook of occupational health psychology*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association; 2003:143-162.
194. Campbell Clark S. Work/family border theory: a new theory of work/family balance. *Human Relations*. 2000;53:747-770.
195. Warhurst C, Eikhof DR, Haunschild A. Work less, live more? Critical analyses of the work-life boundary. In: Warhurst CE, Doris Ruth; Haunschild, Axel, ed. *Critical perspectives on work and organisations*. London: Palgrave Macmillan; 2008.
196. Rapoport R, Bailyn L, Fletcher JK, Pritt BH. *Beyond work-family balance: advancing gender equity and workplace performance*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass; 2008.
197. National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, National Institutes of Health. Brain basics: understanding sleep. <https://www.ninds.nih.gov/Disorders/Patient-Caregiver-Education/Understanding-Sleep>. Published 2019. Updated August 13. Accessed October 23, 2019.
198. Harma M. Workhours in relation to work stress, recovery and health. *Scand J Work Environ Health*. 2006;32(6):502-514.
199. Lundberg U, Hellström B. Workload and morning salivary cortisol in women. *Work and Stress*. 2002;16(4):356-363.
200. Shields M. Long working hours and health. *Health Rep*. 1999;11(2):33-48(Eng); 37-55(Fre).
201. Virtanen M, Stansfeld SA, Fuhrer R, Ferrie JE, Kivimaki M. Overtime work as a predictor of major depressive episode: a 5-year follow-up of the Whitehall II study. *PLoS One*. 2012;7(1):e30719.

202. Chen KY, Yang CM, Lien CH, et al. Burnout, job satisfaction, and medical malpractice among physicians. *Int J Med Sci.* 2013;10(11):1471-1478.
203. Nagashima S, Suwazono Y, Okubo Y, et al. Working hours and mental and physical fatigue in Japanese workers. *Occup Med (Lond).* 2007;57(6):449-452.
204. Burke RJ, Cooper CL. *The long work hours culture: causes, consequences and choices.* Bradford: Emerald; 2008.
205. Sparks K, Cooper CL, Fried Y, Shirom A. The effects of working hours on health: a meta-analytic review. In: Cooper CL, ed. *From Stress to Wellbeing Volume 1: The Theory and Research on Occupational Stress and Wellbeing.* London: Palgrave Macmillan UK; 2013:292-314.
206. Spurgeon A, Harrington JM, Cooper CL. Health and safety problems associated with long working hours: a review of the current position. *Occup Environ Med.* 1997;54(6):367-375.
207. van der Hulst M. Long workhours and health. *Scand J Work Environ Health.* 2003;29(3):171-188.
208. Caruso CC. Possible broad impacts of long work hours. *Ind Health.* 2006;44(4):531-536.
209. Caruso CC, Hitchcock EM, Dick RB, Russo JM, Schmit JM. Overtime and extended work shifts: recent findings on illnesses, injuries, and health behaviors. *NIOSH Numbered Publications Series.* 2004;2004(143):1-37.
210. Caruso CC, Bushnell T, Eggerth D, et al. Long working hours, safety, and health: toward a National Research Agenda. *Am J Ind Med.* 2006;49(11):930-942.
211. Cooper CL, Marshall J. Occupational sources of stress: a review of the literature relating to coronary heart disease and mental ill health. In: Cooper CL, ed. *From Stress to Wellbeing Volume 1: The Theory and Research on Occupational Stress and Wellbeing.* London: Palgrave Macmillan UK; 2013:3-23.
212. Härmä M. Are long workhours a health risk? *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health.* 2003(3):167-169.
213. Virtanen M, Jokela M, Madsen IE, et al. Long working hours and depressive symptoms: systematic review and meta-analysis of published studies and unpublished individual participant data. *Scand J Work Environ Health.* 2018;44(3):239-250.
214. Virtanen M, Kivimaki M. Long working hours and risk of cardiovascular disease. *Curr Cardiol Rep.* 2018;20(11):123.
215. Kivimaki M, Jokela M, Nyberg ST, et al. Long working hours and risk of coronary heart disease and stroke: a systematic review and meta-analysis of published and unpublished data for 603,838 individuals. *Lancet.* 2015;386(10005):1739-1746.
216. Hannerz H, Albertsen K, Burr H, et al. Long working hours and stroke among employees in the general workforce of Denmark. *Scand J Public Health.* 2018;46(3):368-374.
217. Hannerz H, Larsen AD, Garde AH. Long weekly working hours and ischaemic heart disease: a follow-up study among 145 861 randomly selected workers in Denmark. *BMJ Open.* 2018;8(6):e019807.
218. Kivimaki M, Nyberg ST, Batty GD, et al. Long working hours as a risk factor for atrial fibrillation: a multi-cohort study. *Eur Heart J.* 2017;38(34):2621-2628.
219. Maslach C, Schaufeli WB, Leiter MP. Job burnout. *Annu Rev Psychol.* 2001;52:397-422.
220. Govardhan LM, Pinelli V, Schnatz PF. Burnout, depression and job satisfaction in obstetrics and gynecology residents. *Conn Med.* 2012;76(7):389-395.
221. Rodriguez-Jareno MC, Demou E, Vargas-Prada S, et al. European Working Time Directive and doctors' health: a systematic review of the available epidemiological evidence. *BMJ Open.* 2014;4(7):e004916.
222. Bannai A, Tamakoshi A. The association between long working hours and health: a systematic review of epidemiological evidence. *Scand J Work Environ Health.* 2014;40(1):5-18.
223. Dembe AE, Erickson JB, Delbos RG, Banks SM. The impact of overtime and long work hours on occupational injuries and illnesses: new evidence from the United States. *Occup Environ Med.* 2005;62(9):588-597.
224. Kivimaki M, Batty GD, Hamer M, et al. Using additional information on working hours to predict coronary heart disease: a cohort study. *Ann Intern Med.* 2011;154(7):457-463.
225. Virtanen M, Ferrie JE, Singh-Manoux A, et al. Long working hours and symptoms of anxiety and depression: a 5-year follow-up of the Whitehall II study. *Psychol Med.* 2011;41(12):2485-2494.
226. Colombo V, Cifre E. The importance of recovery of work: A review of where, how and why. *Papeles del Psicologo.* 2012;33:129-137.
227. Kivimaki M, Steptoe A. Effects of stress on the development and progression of cardiovascular disease. *Nat Rev Cardiol.* 2018;15(4):215-229.
228. Brotman DJ, Golden SH, Wittstein IS. The cardiovascular toll of stress. *Lancet.* 2007;370(9592):1089-1100.
229. Kageyama T, Nishikido N, Kobayashi T, Kurokawa Y, Kaneko T, Kabuto M. Long commuting time, extensive overtime, and sympathodominant state assessed in terms of short-term heart rate variability among male white-collar workers in the Tokyo megalopolis. *Ind Health.* 1998;36(3):209-217.

230. Nash LM, Daly MG, Kelly PJ, et al. Factors associated with psychiatric morbidity and hazardous alcohol use in Australian doctors. *Med J Aust.* 2010;193(3):161-166.
231. Artazcoz L, Cortes I, Escriba-Aguir V, Cascant L, Villegas R. Understanding the relationship of long working hours with health status and health-related behaviours. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 2009;63(7):521-527.
232. Johnson JV, Lipscomb J. Long working hours, occupational health and the changing nature of work organization. *Am J Ind Med.* 2006;49(11):921-929.
233. Basner M, Fomberstein KM, Razavi FM, et al. American time use survey: sleep time and its relationship to waking activities. *Sleep.* 2007;30(9):1085-1095.
234. Dahlgren A, Kecklund G, Akerstedt T. Overtime work and its effects on sleep, sleepiness, cortisol and blood pressure in an experimental field study. *Scand J Work Environ Health.* 2006;32(4):318-327.
235. Nakashima M, Morikawa Y, Sakurai M, et al. Association between long working hours and sleep problems in white-collar workers. *J Sleep Res.* 2011;20(1 Pt 1):110-116.
236. Harrington J. Health effects of shift work and extended hours of work. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine.* 2001;58(1):68-72.
237. Virtanen M, Ferrie JE, Gimeno D, et al. Long working hours and sleep disturbances: the Whitehall II prospective cohort study. *Sleep.* 2009;32(6):737-745.
238. Virtanen M, Singh-Manoux A, Ferrie JE, et al. Long working hours and cognitive function: the Whitehall II Study. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2009;169(5):596-605.
239. Knutson KL, Ryden AM, Mander BA, Van Cauter E. Role of sleep duration and quality in the risk and severity of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Arch Intern Med.* 2006;166(16):1768-1774.
240. Cappuccio FP, D'Elia L, Strazzullo P, Miller MA. Quantity and quality of sleep and incidence of type 2 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetes Care.* 2010;33(2):414-420.
241. Nagai M, Hoshida S, Kario K. Sleep duration as a risk factor for cardiovascular disease- a review of the recent literature. *Curr Cardiol Rev.* 2010;6(1):54-61.
242. Covassin N, Singh P. Sleep duration and cardiovascular disease risk: epidemiologic and experimental evidence. *Sleep Med Clin.* 2016;11(1):81-89.
243. Cappuccio FP, Cooper D, D'Elia L, Strazzullo P, Miller MA. Sleep duration predicts cardiovascular outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective studies. *European Heart Journal.* 2011;32(12):1484-1492.
244. Ferrie JE, Shipley MJ, Cappuccio FP, et al. A prospective study of change in sleep duration: associations with mortality in the Whitehall II cohort. *Sleep.* 2007;30(12):1659-1666.
245. Shan Z, Ma H, Xie M, et al. Sleep duration and risk of type 2 diabetes: a meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Diabetes Care.* 2015;38(3):529-537.
246. Yaggi HK, Araujo AB, McKinlay JB. Sleep duration as a risk factor for the development of type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2006;29(3):657-661.
247. Cohen S, Doyle WJ, Alper CM, Janicki-Deverts D, Turner RB. Sleep habits and susceptibility to the common cold. *JAMA Internal Medicine.* 2009;169(1):62-67.
248. Bryant PA, Trinder J, Curtis N. Sick and tired: does sleep have a vital role in the immune system? *Nature Reviews Immunology.* 2004;4(6):457-467.
249. Besedovsky L, Lange T, Born J. Sleep and immune function. *Pflugers Arch.* 2012;463(1):121-137.
250. Holtermann A, Mortensen OS, Burr H, Sogaard K, Gyntelberg F, Suadicani P. Long work hours and physical fitness: 30-year risk of ischaemic heart disease and all-cause mortality among middle-aged Caucasian men. *Heart.* 2010;96(20):1638-1644.
251. Lockley SW, Cronin JW, Evans EE, et al. Effect of reducing interns' weekly work hours on sleep and attentional failures. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;351(18):1829-1837.
252. Knauth P. Extended work periods. *Ind Health.* 2007;45(1):125-136.
253. Zhu Z, Kuykendall L, Zhang X. The impact of within-day work breaks on daily recovery processes: An event-based pre-/post-experience sampling study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology.* 2019;92(1):191-211.
254. Kim S, Park Y, Niu Q. Micro-break activities at work to recover from daily work demands. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* 2017;38(1):28-44.
255. de Bloom J, Geurts SAE, Sonnentag S, Taris T, de Weerth C, Kompier MAJ. How does a vacation from work affect employee health and well-being? *Psychology & Health.* 2011;26(12):1606-1622.
256. Bloom Jd, Kompier M, Geurts S, Weerth Cd, Taris T, Sonnentag S. Do we recover from vacation? Meta-analysis of vacation effects on health and well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health.* 2008;advpub:0812090045-0812090045.
257. Bloom J, Geurts S, Kompier M. Vacation from work as prototypical recovery opportunity. *Gedrag & Organisatie.* 2010;23:333-349.



258. de Bloom J, Geurts SAE, Taris TW, Sonnentag S, de Weerth C, Kompier MAJ. Effects of vacation from work on health and well-being: lots of fun, quickly gone. *Work & Stress*. 2010;24(2):196-216.
259. Cho S-S, Ju Y-S, Paek D, Kim H, Jung-Choi K. The combined effect of long working hours and low job control on self-rated health: an interaction analysis. *Journal of occupational and environmental medicine*. 2018;60(5):475-480.
260. Virtanen M, Ferrie JE, Singh-Manoux A, et al. Overtime work and incident coronary heart disease: the Whitehall II prospective cohort study. *Eur Heart J*. 2010;31(14):1737-1744.
261. Weiner BJ, Lewis MA, Linnan LA. Using organization theory to understand the determinants of effective implementation of worksite health promotion programs. *Health Educ Res*. 2009;24(2):292-305.
262. Schein EH. *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass; 2010.
263. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Essential elements of effective workplace programs and policies for improving worker health and wellbeing. Work Life A National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health Initiative. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. <https://www.cdc.gov/niosh/twh/essentials.html>. Published 2015. Updated November 6, 2015. Accessed August 16, 2019.
264. Magnavita N, Garbarino S. Sleep, health and wellness at work: a scoping review. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2017;14(11):1347.
265. Akerstedt T, Torsvall L. Napping in shift work. *Sleep*. 1985;8(2):105-109.
266. Rajaratnam SM, Howard ME, Grunstein RR. Sleep loss and circadian disruption in shift work: health burden and management. *Med J Aust*. 2013;199(8):S11-15.
267. Costa G. Shift work and health: current problems and preventive actions. *Safety and health at work*. 2010;1(2):112-123.
268. Dinges DF. Adult napping and its effects on ability to function. In: Stampi C, ed. *Why We Nap: Evolution, Chronobiology, and Functions of Polyphasic and Ultrashort Sleep*. Boston, MA: Birkhäuser Boston; 1992:118-134.
269. American Academy of Pediatrics. School start times for adolescents. *Pediatrics*. 2014;ped.2014-1697.
270. Spoomaker VI, van den Bout J. Depression and anxiety complaints; relations with sleep disturbances. *European Psychiatry*. 2005;20(3):243-245.
271. Taylor DJ, Lichstein KL, Durrence HH, Reidel BW, Bush AJ. Epidemiology of insomnia, depression, and anxiety. *Sleep*. 2005;28(11):1457-1464.
272. Adrien J. Neurobiological bases for the relation between sleep and depression. *Sleep Medicine Reviews*. 2002;6(5):341-351.
273. Cox RC, Olatunji BO. A systematic review of sleep disturbance in anxiety and related disorders. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*. 2016;37:104-129.
274. Alvaro PK, Roberts RM, Harris JK. A systematic review assessing bidirectionality between sleep disturbances, anxiety, and depression. *Sleep*. 2013;36(7):1059-1068.
275. von Lindern E, Lymeus F, T. H. The restorative environment: a complementary concept for salutogenesis studies. In: Mittelmark MB, Sagy S, Eriksson M, et al., eds. *The Handbook of Salutogenesis*. Cham (CH): Springer; 2017.
276. Hartig T. Restorative environments. In: Spielberger CD, ed. *Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology*. New York: Elsevier; 2004:273-279.
277. Saegert S, Winkel GH. Environmental psychology. *Annual Review of Psychology*. 1990;41(1):441-477.
278. Leka S, Jain A, World Health Organization. Health impact of psychosocial hazards at work: an overview. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2010.
279. Turner RJ, Lloyd DA. Lifetime traumas and mental health: the significance of cumulative adversity. *J Health Soc Behav*. 1995;36(4):360-376.
280. Ohly H, White MP, Wheeler BW, et al. Attention Restoration Theory: a systematic review of the attention restoration potential of exposure to natural environments. *J Toxicol Environ Health B Crit Rev*. 2016;19(7):305-343.
281. Ulrich RS, Simons RF, Losito BD, Fiorito E, Miles MA, Zelson M. Stress recovery during exposure to natural and urban environments. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*. 1991;11(3):201-230.
282. Ulrich RS. Aesthetic and affective response to natural environment. In: Altman I, Wohlwill JF, eds. *Behavior and the Natural Environment*. Boston, MA: Springer US; 1983:85-125.
283. Berto R. The role of nature in coping with psycho-physiological stress: a literature review on restorativeness. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2014;4(4):394-409.
284. Nordh H, Hartig T, Hagerhall CM, Fry G. Components of small urban parks that predict the possibility for restoration. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*. 2009;8(4):225-235.
285. Grahn P, Stigsdotter UA. Landscape planning and stress. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*. 2003;2(1):1-18.
286. Hartig T, Mang M, Evans GW. Restorative effects of natural environment experiences. *Environment and Behavior*. 1991;23(1):3-26.

287. Deng L, Deng Q. The basic roles of indoor plants in human health and comfort. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*. 2018;25(36):36087-36101.
288. Twedt E, Rainey RM, Proffitt DR. Designed natural spaces: informal gardens are perceived to be more restorative than formal gardens. *Front Psychol*. 2016;7:88-88.
289. Staats H, Jahncke H, Herzog TR, Hartig T. Urban options for psychological restoration: common strategies in everyday situations. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(1):e0146213-e0146213.
290. Staats H, Van Gernerden E, Hartig T. Preference for restorative situations: interactive effects of attentional state, activity-in-environment, and social context. *Leisure Sciences*. 2010;32(5):401-417.
291. Kabat-Zinn J. An outpatient program in behavioral medicine for chronic pain patients based on the practice of mindfulness meditation: theoretical considerations and preliminary results. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry*. 1982;4(1):33-47.
292. Kabat-Zinn J, Lipworth L, Burncy R, Sellers W. Four-year follow-up of a meditation-based program for the self-regulation of chronic pain: treatment outcomes and compliance. *The Clinical Journal of Pain*. 1986;2(3):159-774.
293. Kabat-Zinn J, Lipworth L, Burney R. The clinical use of mindfulness meditation for the self-regulation of chronic pain. *J Behav Med*. 1985;8(2):163-190.
294. Kabat-Zinn J. *Full catastrophe living: using the wisdom of your body and mind to face stress, pain, and illness*. Delacorte Press; 1990.
295. Kabat-Zinn J. Mindfulness-based interventions in context: past, present, and future. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*. 2003;10(2):144-156.
296. Wilson TD, Reinhard DA, Westgate EC, et al. *Social psychology. Just think: the challenges of the disengaged mind*. Science (New York, NY). 2014;345(6192):75-77.
297. Kemp AH, Quintana DS. The relationship between mental and physical health: Insights from the study of heart rate variability. *International Journal of Psychophysiology*. 2013;89(3):288-296.
298. Evans DL, Charney DS, Lewis L, et al. Mood disorders in the medically ill: scientific review and recommendations. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2005;58(3):175-189.
299. Katon WJ. Epidemiology and treatment of depression in patients with chronic medical illness. *Dialogues Clin Neurosci*. 2011;13(1):7-23.
300. Hofmann SG, Gómez AF. Mindfulness-based interventions for anxiety and depression. *Psychiatr Clin North Am*. 2017;40(4):739-749.
301. Piet J, Hougaard E. The effect of mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for prevention of relapse in recurrent major depressive disorder: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Psychol Rev*. 2011;31(6):1032-1040.
302. Bowen S, Witkiewitz K, Clifasefi SL, et al. Relative efficacy of mindfulness-based relapse prevention, standard relapse prevention, and treatment as usual for substance use disorders: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2014;71(5):547-556.
303. Witkiewitz K, Bowen S, Harrop EN, Douglas H, Enkema M, Sedgwick C. Mindfulness-based treatment to prevent addictive behavior relapse: theoretical models and hypothesized mechanisms of change. *Subst Use Misuse*. 2014;49(5):513-524.
304. Roemer L, Orsillo SM. Expanding our conceptualization of and treatment for generalized anxiety disorder: integrating mindfulness/acceptance-based approaches with existing cognitive-behavioral models. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*. 2002;9(1):54-68.
305. Hofmann SG, Sawyer AT, Witt AA, Oh D. The effect of mindfulness-based therapy on anxiety and depression: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*. 2010;78(2):169-183.
306. Grossman P, Niemann L, Schmidt S, Walach H. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and health benefits. A meta-analysis. *J Psychosom Res*. 2004;57(1):35-43.
307. Gu J, Strauss C, Bond R, Cavanagh K. How do mindfulness-based cognitive therapy and mindfulness-based stress reduction improve mental health and wellbeing? A systematic review and meta-analysis of mediation studies. *Clin Psychol Rev*. 2015;37:1-12.
308. Chiesa A, Serretti A. Mindfulness-based stress reduction for stress management in healthy people: a review and meta-analysis. *J Altern Complement Med*. 2009;15(5):593-600.
309. Creswell JD. Mindfulness interventions. *Annu Rev Psychol*. 2017;68:491-516.
310. Teasdale JD, Segal ZV, Williams JM, Ridgeway VA, Soulsby JM, Lau MA. Prevention of relapse/recurrence in major depression by mindfulness-based cognitive therapy. *J Consult Clin Psychol*. 2000;68(4):615-623.
311. Cohen JN, Jensen D, Stange JP, Neuburger M, Heimberg RG. The immediate and long-term effects of an intensive meditation retreat. *Mindfulness*. 2017;8(4):1064-1077.
312. Rosenberg EL, Zanesco AP, King BG, et al. Intensive meditation training influences emotional responses to suffering. *Emotion*. 2015;15(6):775-790.

313. Mrazek MD, Franklin MS, Phillips DT, Baird B, Schooler JW. Mindfulness training improves working memory capacity and GRE performance while reducing mind wandering. *Psychol Sci.* 2013;24(5):776-781.
314. Lim D, Condon P, DeSteno D. Mindfulness and compassion: an examination of mechanism and scalability. *PLoS One.* 2015;10(2):e0118221-e0118221.
315. Creswell JD, Pacilio LE, Lindsay EK, Brown KW. Brief mindfulness meditation training alters psychological and neuroendocrine responses to social evaluative stress. *Psychoneuroendocrinology.* 2014;44:1-12.
316. Spijkerman MPJ, Pots WTM, Bohlmeijer ET. Effectiveness of online mindfulness-based interventions in improving mental health: A review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Clinical Psychology Review.* 2016;45:102-114.
317. Toivonen KI, Zernicke K, Carlson LE. Web-based mindfulness interventions for people with physical health conditions: systematic review. *J Med Internet Res.* 2017;19(8):e303-e303.
318. Janssen M, Heerkens Y, Kuijer W, van der Heijden B, Engels J. Effects of mindfulness-based stress reduction on employees' mental health: A systematic review. *PLoS One.* 2018;13(1):e0191332-e0191332.
319. Luken M, Sammons A. Systematic review of mindfulness practice for reducing job burnout. *Am J Occup Ther.* 2016;70(2):7002250020p7002250021-7002250020p7002250010.
320. Zou L, Yeung A, Li C, et al. Effects of meditative movements on major depressive disorder: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *J Clin Med.* 2018;7(8):195.
321. Zou L, Zhang Y, Yang L, et al. Are mindful exercises safe and beneficial for treating chronic lower back pain? A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *J Clin Med.* 2019;8(5):628.
322. Zou L, Yeung A, Quan X, Boyden SD, Wang H. A systematic review and meta-analysis of mindfulness-based (Baduanjin) exercise for alleviating musculoskeletal pain and improving sleep quality in people with chronic diseases. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2018;15(2):206.
323. Hilton LG, Marshall NJ, Motala A, et al. Mindfulness meditation for workplace wellness: An evidence map. *Work.* 2019;63(2):205-218.
324. Wilson EO. *Biophilia.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press; 1986.
325. Kellert SR. *Birthingright: People and nature in the modern world.* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press; 2012.
326. Bringslimark T, Hartig T, Patil GG. The psychological benefits of indoor plants: A critical review of the experimental literature. *Journal of Environmental Psychology.* 2009;29(4):422-433.
327. Pearson DG, Craig T. The great outdoors? Exploring the mental health benefits of natural environments. *Front Psychol.* 2014;5:1178-1178.
328. Bowler DE, Buyung-Ali LM, Knight TM, Pullin AS. A systematic review of evidence for the added benefits to health of exposure to natural environments. *BMC Public Health.* 2010;10(1):456.
329. James P, Banay RF, Hart JE, Laden F. A review of the health benefits of greenness. *Curr Epidemiol Rep.* 2015;2(2):131-142.
330. Evans GW. The built environment and mental health. *J Urban Health.* 2003;80(4):536-555.
331. Dunnett N, Qasim M. Perceived benefits to human well-being of urban gardens. *HortTechnology.* 2000;10.
332. Loram A, Tratalos J, Warren P, Gaston K. Urban domestic gardens (X): The extent & structure of the resource in five major cities. *Landscape Ecology.* 2007;22:601-615.
333. Fuller RA, Irvine KN, Devine-Wright P, Warren PH, Gaston KJ. Psychological benefits of greenspace increase with biodiversity. *Biol Lett.* 2007;3(4):390-394.
334. Talbot JF, Kaplan R. The benefits of nearby nature for elderly apartment residents. *Int J Aging Hum Dev.* 1991;33(2):119-130.
335. Wells NM, Evans GW. Nearby nature: A buffer of life stress among rural children. *Environment and Behavior.* 2003;35(3):311-330.
336. Samet JM, Marbury MC, Spengler JD. Health effects and sources of indoor air pollution. Part I. *Am Rev Respir Dis.* 1987;136(6):1486-1508.
337. Hartig T, Evans GW, Jamner LD, Davis DS, Gärling T. Tracking restoration in natural and urban field settings. *Journal of Environmental Psychology.* 2003;23(2):109-123.
338. Beyer KMM, Kaltenbach A, Szabo A, Bogar S, Nieto FJ, Malecki KM. Exposure to neighborhood green space and mental health: evidence from the survey of the health of Wisconsin. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2014;11(3):3453-3472.
339. Shanahan DF, Bush R, Gaston KJ, et al. Health benefits from nature experiences depend on dose. *Sci Rep.* 2016;6(1):28551.
340. Largo-Wight E. Cultivating healthy places and communities: evidenced-based nature contact recommendations. *Int J Environ Health Res.* 2011;21(1):41-61.

341. Gascon M, Zijlema W, Vert C, White MP, Nieuwenhuijsen MJ. Outdoor blue spaces, human health and well-being: A systematic review of quantitative studies. *Int J Hyg Environ Health*. 2017;220(8):1207-1221.
342. Britton E, Kindermann G, Domegan C, Carlin C. Blue care: A systematic review of blue space interventions for health and wellbeing. *Health Promot Int*. 2018.
343. Grellier J, White MP, Albin M, et al. BlueHealth: A study programme protocol for mapping and quantifying the potential benefits to public health and well-being from Europe's blue spaces. *BMJ Open*. 2017;7(6):e016188-e016188.
344. Gascon M, Triguero-Mas M, Martínez D, et al. Mental health benefits of long-term exposure to residential green and blue spaces: a systematic review. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2015;12(4):4354-4379.
345. World Health Organization. Neuroscience of psychoactive substance use and dependence. Geneva, Switzerland.2004.
346. The L. Nicotine addiction, reduction, and smoking cessation. *The Lancet*. 2017;390(10096):716.
347. Picciotto MR, Mineur YS. Molecules and circuits involved in nicotine addiction: The many faces of smoking. *Neuropharmacology*. 2014;76 Pt B(0 0):545-553.
348. Benowitz NL. Nicotine addiction. *The New England journal of medicine*. 2010;362(24):2295-2303.
349. World Health Organization. Fact Sheet: Tobacco. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/tobacco>. Published 2019. Accessed May 14, 2020.
350. National Cancer Institute. The Economics of Tobacco and Tobacco Control. 2016.
351. World Health Organization. Policy Recommendations for Smoking Cessation and Treatment of Tobacco Dependence. Geneva, Switzerland.2003.
352. World Health Organization. Prevalence of tobacco smoking. World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/gho/tobacco/use/en/>. Published 2016. Accessed September 1, 2019.
353. World Health Organization. Fact sheet: tobacco. WHO Press. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs339/en/>. Published 2019. Updated July 26. Accessed August 1, 2019.
354. United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, Office on Smoking and Health. The health consequences of smoking: 50 years of progress: a report of the surgeon general. Rockville, MD2014.
355. United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, Office on Smoking and Health. History of the surgeon general's reports on smoking and health. [https://www.cdc.gov/tobacco/data\\_statistics/sgr/history/index.htm](https://www.cdc.gov/tobacco/data_statistics/sgr/history/index.htm). Published 2018. Updated December 18. Accessed August 1, 2019.
356. United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Smoking & tobacco use: fast facts. [https://www.cdc.gov/tobacco/data\\_statistics/fact\\_sheets/fast\\_facts/index.htm](https://www.cdc.gov/tobacco/data_statistics/fact_sheets/fast_facts/index.htm). Published 2019. Updated February 6. Accessed April 20, 2019.
357. Matt GE, Quintana PJE, Destailats H, et al. Thirdhand tobacco smoke: emerging evidence and arguments for a multidisciplinary research agenda. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2011;119(9):1218-1226.
358. Mohamad S, Lara AG, James FP, Peyton J, III, Brett CS, Hugo D. Formation of carcinogens indoors by surface-mediated reactions of nicotine with nitrous acid, leading to potential thirdhand smoke hazards. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 2010;107(15):6576.
359. Destailats H, Singer BC, Lee SK, Gundel LA. Effect of ozone on nicotine desorption from model surfaces: evidence for heterogeneous chemistry. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2006;40(6):1799-1805.
360. Wilson KM, Klein JD, Blumkin AK, Gottlieb M, Winickoff JP. Tobacco-smoke exposure in children who live in multiunit housing. *Pediatrics*. 2011;127(1):85-92.
361. Winickoff JP, Friebely J, Tanski SE, et al. Beliefs about the health effects of "thirdhand" smoke and home smoking bans. *Pediatrics*. 2009;123(1):e74-e79.
362. Johansson A, Hermansson G, Ludvigsson J. How should parents protect their children from environmental tobacco-smoke exposure in the home? *Pediatrics*. 2004;113(4):e291-e295.
363. National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion (US) Office on Smoking and Health. Reports of the surgeon general. In: Preventing tobacco use among youth and young adults: a report of the surgeon general. Atlanta (GA): United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2012.
364. Matt GE, Quintana PJE, Zakarian JM, et al. When smokers move out and non-smokers move in: residential thirdhand smoke pollution and exposure. *Tobacco control*. 2011;20(1):e1-e1.
365. Park HR, O'Sullivan M, Vallarino J, et al. Transcriptomic response of primary human airway epithelial cells to flavoring chemicals in electronic cigarettes. *Sci Rep*. 2019;9(1):1400.
366. Klager S, Vallarino J, MacNaughton P, Christiani DC, Lu Q, Allen JG. Flavoring chemicals and aldehydes in e-cigarette emissions. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2017;51(18):10806-10813.

367. Allen JG, Flanigan SS, LeBlanc M, et al. Flavoring chemicals in e-cigarettes: diacetyl, 2,3-pentanedione, and acetoin in a sample of 51 products, including fruit-, candy-, and cocktail-flavored e-cigarettes. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2016;124(6):733-739.
368. Farsalinos K. Electronic cigarettes: an aid in smoking cessation, or a new health hazard? *Ther Adv Respir Dis*. 2018;12:1753465817744960-1753465817744960.
369. Breland A, Soule E, Lopez A, Ramôa C, El-Hellani A, Eissenberg T. Electronic cigarettes: what are they and what do they do? *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*. 2017;1394(1):5-30.
370. Callahan-Lyon P. Electronic cigarettes: human health effects. *Tobacco control*. 2014;23 Suppl 2(Suppl 2):ii36-ii40.
371. Ransing RS, Patil DB, Desai MB, Modak A. Outcome of tobacco cessation in workplace and clinic settings: A comparative study. *J Int Soc Prev Community Dent*. 2016;6(5):487-492.
372. Hausherr Y, Quinto C, Grize L, Schindler C, Probst-Hensch N. Smoking cessation in workplace settings: quit rates and determinants in a group behaviour therapy programme. *Swiss Med Wkly*. 2017;147:w14500.
373. Fishwick D, Carroll C, McGregor M, et al. Smoking cessation in the workplace. *Occup Med (Lond)*. 2013;63(8):526-536.
374. Stolz D, Scherr A, Seiffert B, et al. Predictors of success for smoking cessation at the workplace: a longitudinal study. *Respiration*. 2014;87(1):18-25.
375. Mishra GA, Majmudar PV, Gupta SD, Rane PS, Uplap PA, Shastri SS. Workplace tobacco cessation program in India: A success story. *Indian J Occup Environ Med*. 2009;13(3):146-153.
376. Rodriguez-Artalejo F, Lafuente Urduinguo P, Guallar-Castillon P, et al. One year effectiveness of an individualised smoking cessation intervention at the workplace: a randomised controlled trial. *Occup Environ Med*. 2003;60(5):358-363.
377. Smedslund G, Fisher KJ, Boles SM, Lichtenstein E. The effectiveness of workplace smoking cessation programmes: a meta-analysis of recent studies. *Tobacco control*. 2004;13(2):197-204.
378. National Cancer Institute. Smokefree Workplace Rules and Laws. [https://progressreport.cancer.gov/prevention/smoke\\_free\\_work](https://progressreport.cancer.gov/prevention/smoke_free_work). Published 2020. Accessed May 14, 2020.
379. Chapman S. Public Health Advocacy and Tobacco Control: Making Smoking History. John Wiley & Sons; 2008.
380. Cahill K, Lancaster T. Workplace interventions for smoking cessation. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2014(2).
381. Hughes MC, Yette EM, Hannon PA, Harris JR, Tran NM, Reid TR. Promoting tobacco cessation via the workplace: opportunities for improvement. *Tobacco Control*. 2011;20(4):305.
382. Sumner W, 2nd, Walker MS, Highstein GR, et al. A randomized controlled trial of directive and nondirective smoking cessation coaching through an employee quitline. *BMC public health*. 2016;16:550-550.
383. World Health Organization. Quitting Tobacco. [https://www.who.int/tobacco/quitting/summary\\_data/en/](https://www.who.int/tobacco/quitting/summary_data/en/). Published n.d. Accessed May 14, 2020.
384. World Health Organization, World Lung Foundation, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Global Atlas Tobacco Survey,. 2015.
385. Oliveira RMD, Santos JLF, Furegato ARF. Tobacco addiction in the psychiatric population and in the general population. *Rev Lat Am Enfermagem*. 2017;25:e2945-e2945.
386. Chen J, Bacanu S-A, Yu H, et al. Genetic Relationship between Schizophrenia and Nicotine Dependence. *Sci Rep*. 2016;6:25671-25671.
387. de Leon J, Diaz FJ. A meta-analysis of worldwide studies demonstrates an association between schizophrenia and tobacco smoking behaviors. *Schizophr Res*. 2005;76(2-3):135-157.
388. de Oliveira RM, Siqueira Júnior AC, Santos JLF, Furegato ARF. Nicotine dependence in the mental disorders, relationship with clinical indicators, and the meaning for the user. *Rev Lat Am Enfermagem*. 2014;22(4):685-692.
389. Aubin H-J, Rollema H, Svensson TH, Winterer G. Smoking, quitting, and psychiatric disease: A review. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*. 2012;36(1):271-284.
390. Schroeder SA, Morris CD. Confronting a Neglected Epidemic: Tobacco Cessation for Persons with Mental Illnesses and Substance Abuse Problems. *Annual Review of Public Health*. 2010;31(1):297-314.
391. Leventhal AM. The Sociopharmacology of Tobacco Addiction: Implications for Understanding Health Disparities. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2016;18(2):110-121.
392. Ribisl KM, D'Angelo H, Feld AL, et al. Disparities in tobacco marketing and product availability at the point of sale: Results of a national study. *Preventive medicine*. 2017;105:381-388.
393. Garrett BE, Dube SR, Babb S, McAfee T. Addressing the Social Determinants of Health to Reduce Tobacco-Related Disparities. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2015;17(8):892-897.
394. Siddiqi K, Jawad M, Mushtaq N, Ali S, Khan JA. Tobacco and Health Disparities. *BioMed research international*. 2015;2015:570173-570173.

395. Koob GF, Volkow ND. Neurocircuitry of addiction. *Neuropsychopharmacology* : official publication of the American College of Neuropsychopharmacology. 2010;35(1):217-238.
396. Goldstein RZ, Volkow ND. Dysfunction of the prefrontal cortex in addiction: neuroimaging findings and clinical implications. *Nature reviews Neuroscience*. 2011;12(11):652-669.
397. Goldstein RZ, Volkow ND. Drug addiction and its underlying neurobiological basis: neuroimaging evidence for the involvement of the frontal cortex. (0002-953X (Print)).
398. Blum K, Braverman Er Fau - Holder JM, Holder Jm Fau - Lubar JF, et al. Reward deficiency syndrome: a biogenetic model for the diagnosis and treatment of impulsive, addictive, and compulsive behaviors. 2000(0279-1072 (Print)).
399. Robinson TE, Gorny G, Mitton E, Kolb B. Cocaine self-administration alters the morphology of dendrites and dendritic spines in the nucleus accumbens and neocortex. *Synapse*. 2001;39(3):257-266.
400. Robinson T, Kolb B. Alterations in the morphology of dendrites and dendritic spines in the nucleus accumbens and prefrontal cortex following repeated treatment with amphetamine or cocaine. *European Journal Of Neuroscience*. 1999;11(5):1598-1604.
401. Volkow ND, Fowler JS, Wang G-J. The addicted human brain: insights from imaging studies. *The Journal of clinical investigation*. 2003;111(10):1444-1451.
402. Leshner AI. Addiction Is a Brain Disease, and It Matters. *Science*. 1997;278(5335):45.
403. Degenhardt L, Whiteford HA, Ferrari AJ, et al. Global burden of disease attributable to illicit drug use and dependence: findings from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2010. *The Lancet*. 2013;382(9904):1564-1574.
404. Organization WH. Metrics: Disability-Adjusted Life Year (DALY). [https://www.who.int/healthinfo/global\\_burden\\_disease/metrics\\_daly/en/](https://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/metrics_daly/en/). Published 2019. Accessed.
405. Schulte MT, Hser Y-I. Substance Use and Associated Health Conditions throughout the Lifespan. *Public health reviews*. 2014;35(2):[https://web-beta.archive.org/web/20150206061220/http://www.publichealthreviews.eu/upload/pdf\\_files/20150206061214/20150206061200\\_Schulte\\_Hser.pdf](https://web-beta.archive.org/web/20150206061220/http://www.publichealthreviews.eu/upload/pdf_files/20150206061214/20150206061200_Schulte_Hser.pdf).
406. Rehm J, Shield K. Chapter 2.3: Alcohol Consumption. IARC.
407. Wood AM, Kaptoge S, Butterworth AS, et al. Risk thresholds for alcohol consumption: combined analysis of individual-participant data for 599&#x2008;912 current drinkers in 83 prospective studies. *The Lancet*. 2018;391(10129):1513-1523.
408. Bush D, Lipari R. Substance Use and Substance Use Disorder by Industry. Rockville (MD): Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration 2015.
409. Weisner C, Mertens J, Parthasarathy S, Moore C, Lu Y. Integrating Primary Medical Care With Addiction TreatmentA Randomized Controlled Trial. *JAMA*. 2001;286(14):1715-1723.
410. United States Department of Health & Human Services. Brief interventions and brief therapies for substance abuse. Rockville, MD: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration;2012.
411. American Society of Addiction Medicine. ASAM patient placement criteria for the treatment of substance-related disorders. Chevy Chase, MD: American Society of Addiction Medicine, Inc;2001.
412. Malick R. Prevention of substance use disorders in the community and workplace. *Indian J Psychiatry*. 2018;60(Suppl 4):S559-S563.
413. Pidd K, Kostadinov V, Roche A. Do workplace policies work? An examination of the relationship between alcohol and other drug policies and workers' substance use. *International Journal of Drug Policy*. 2016;28:48-54.
414. United States Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, General USOotS. Chapter 4: early intervention, treatment, and manageemnt of substance use disorders In. *Facing addiction in America: the Surgeon General's report on alcohol, drugs, and health*. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Health and Human Services; 2016.
415. Cares A, Pace E, Denious J, Crane LA. Substance Use and Mental Illness Among Nurses: Workplace Warning Signs and Barriers to Seeking Assistance. *Substance Abuse*. 2015;36(1):59-66.
416. Christie KA, Burke JD, Jr., Regier DA, Rae DS, Boyd JH, Locke BZ. Epidemiologic evidence for early onset of mental disorders and higher risk of drug abuse in young adults. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1988;145(8):971-975.
417. Nestler E, Landsman D. Learning about addiction from genome. *Nature*. 2001;409:834-835.
418. Bevilacqua L, Goldman D. Genes and addictions. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2009;85(4):359-361.
419. Biederman J, Faraone SV, Monuteaux MC, Feighner JA. Patterns of alcohol and drug use in adolescents can be predicted by parental substance use disorders. *Pediatrics*. 2000;106(4):792-797.
420. Hawkins JD, Arthur MW, Catalano RF. Preventing substance abuse. *Crime and Justice*. 1995;19:343-427.
421. Hill KG, Hawkins JD, Catalano RF, Abbott RD, Guo J. Family influences on the risk of daily smoking initiation. *J Adolesc Health*. 2005;37(3):202-210.

422. Zucker RA, Donovan JE, Masten AS, Mattson ME, Moss HB. Early Developmental Processes and the Continuity of Risk for Underage Drinking and Problem Drinking. *Pediatrics*. 2008;121(Supplement 4):S252.
423. Burns L, Teesson M. Alcohol use disorders comorbid with anxiety, depression and drug use disorders: Findings from the Australian National Survey of Mental Health and Well Being. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2002;68(3):299-307.
424. Brady K, Grice D, Dustan L, Randall C. Gender difference in substance use disorders. *The American journal of psychiatry*. 1993;150:1707-1711.
425. Wolitzky-Taylor K, Sewart A, Vrshek-Schallhorn S, et al. The effects of childhood and adolescent adversity on substance use disorders and poor health in early adulthood. *J Youth Adolesc*. 2017;46(1):15-27.
426. Wu LT, Blazer DG. Substance use disorders and psychiatric comorbidity in mid and later life: a review. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2014;43(2):304-317.

The WELL Building Standard (“WELL”) and related resources such as Evidence Box documents constitute proprietary information of the International WELL Building Institute pbc (IWBI). All information contained herein is provided without warranties of any kind, either express or implied, including but not limited to warranties of the accuracy or completeness of the information or the suitability of the information for any particular purpose. Use of this document in any form implies acceptance of these conditions.

IWBI authorizes individual use of this document. In exchange for this authorization, the user agrees:

1. to retain all copyright and other proprietary notices contained herein,
2. not to sell or modify this document, and
3. not to reproduce, display or distribute this document in any way for any public or commercial purpose.
4. To ensure that any and all authorized uses of this document, including excerpts thereof, are accompanied by attribution, including to the appropriate addendum.

Unauthorized use of this document violates copyright, trademark and other laws and is prohibited.

INTERNATIONAL WELL BUILDING INSTITUTE, IWBI, THE WELL BUILDING STANDARD, THE WELL COMMUNITY STANDARD, WELL CERTIFIED, WELL PORTFOLIO, WELL PORTFOLIO SCORE, WELL AP, THE WELL CONFERENCE, WELL Health-Safety Rating, WELL™, and others and their related logos are trademarks or certification marks of the International WELL Building Institute pbc in the United States and other countries.

#### Disclaimer

Although the information contained in WELL v2 is believed to be reliable and accurate, all materials set forth within are provided without warranties of any kind, either express or implied, including but not limited to warranties of the accuracy or completeness of information or the suitability of the information for any particular purpose. The WELL Building Standard and resources related thereto including this document are intended to educate and assist organizations, building stakeholders, real estate owners, tenants, occupants and other and related resources including this document should be considered, or used as a substitute for, quality control, safety analysis, legal compliance (including zoning), comprehensive urban planning, medical advice, diagnosis or treatment.