



The Relationship Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being Among Remote Workers in South Africa: The Moderating Role of Employee Resilience

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed to investigate the relationship between job demands and social well-being, with employee resilience as a moderator. A quantitative research design was employed to explore the associations between the study variables. A total of 173 employees working remotely or hybrid completed the online questionnaire consisting of six measures (that is workload pressure, task interdependence, professional isolation, family-to-work conflict, social well-being and employee resilience). Participants included employees from various organisations based in South Africa. The Pearson correlation analysis demonstrated a negative relationship between workload pressure and social well-being. Unexpectedly, there was a positive relationship between task interdependence and social well-being. Results revealed no relationship between social well-being and two job demands (that is, professional isolation and family-to-work conflict). As proposed, the relationship between employee resilience and social well-being was significant and positive. The moderation analyses revealed that employee resilience did not moderate the relationship between job demands and social well-being. Given these findings, it may be necessary for South African organisations to implement employee resilience-building interventions. The findings, theoretical contributions, practical implications, study limitations and recommendations for future research are discussed with reference to appropriate literature.

Key words: job demands, social well-being, remote workers, employee resilience, South Africa, COVID-19 pandemic.

CONTENTS

Introduction.....	8
Background.....	8
Problem Statement and Rationale.....	11
Chapter Summary and Dissertation Structure.....	13
Literature Review.....	13
Social Well-Being.....	13
Relationship Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being.....	17
Employee Resilience as a Moderating Variable.....	20
Theoretical Framework: JD-R Model and COR Theory.....	24
Gaps in Current Literature.....	27
Research Objectives.....	28
Methods.....	30
Research Design.....	30
Sampling Procedure.....	30
Participants.....	31
Measures.....	33
Social Well-Being.....	34
Job Demands.....	34
Workload Pressure.....	34
Task Interdependence.....	35
Professional Isolation.....	35

Family-to-Work Conflict.....	35
Employee Resilience.....	36
Data Collection Procedure.....	36
Data Analysis.....	37
Ethical Considerations.....	38
Results.....	39
Psychometric Properties of the Measures.....	39
Psychometric Properties of the Social Well-Being Measure.....	40
Psychometric Properties of the Job Demands Measures.....	41
Psychometric Properties of the Employee Resilience Measure.....	43
Descriptive Statistics.....	44
Assumption Testing.....	46
Hypotheses Testing.....	48
Relationship Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being.....	48
Best Predictors of Social Well-Being (Additional Findings).....	48
Relationship Between Social Well-Being and Employee Resilience.....	49
Employee Resilience as a Moderating Variable.....	50
Discussion.....	52
Job Demands and Social Well-Being.....	52
Workload Pressure and Social Well-Being.....	52
Task Interdependence and Social Well-Being.....	53
Professional Isolation and Social Well-Being.....	55

Family-to-Work Conflict and Social Well-Being.....	56
Employee Resilience and Social Well-Being.....	57
Employee Resilience as a Moderator Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being...	58
Theoretical Contributions and Practical Implications.....	60
Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research.....	62
Conclusion.....	63
References.....	65
Appendix A: Informed Consent.....	84
Appendix B: Demographics.....	85
Appendix C: Social Well-Being Scale.....	86
Appendix D: Workload Pressure Scale.....	87
Appendix E: Task Interdependence Scale.....	88
Appendix F: Professional Isolation Scale.....	89
Appendix G: Family-to-Work Conflict Scale.....	90
Appendix H: Employee Resilience Scale.....	91
Appendix I: Ethical Approval Letter.....	92
Appendix J: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Assumption of Normality for Social Well-Being Scale.....	93
Appendix K: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Assumption of Normality for Job Demands Scales.....	94
Appendix L: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Assumption of Normality for Employee Resilience Scale.....	96
Appendix M: Assumption of Additivity and Linearity.....	97

Appendix N: Assumption of Independent Observations.....	98
Appendix O: Assumption of Homoscedasticity.....	99
Appendix P: Assumption of Normality.....	100
Appendix Q: Assumption of no Multicollinearity.....	101

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Demographic Variables.....	32
Table 2: Reliability Analysis.....	40
Table 3: Descriptive Statistics.....	45
Table 4: Pearson's Correlation Between Social Well-Being and Job Demands.....	48
Table 5: Multiple Regression Analysis Indicating the Contribution of Each Predictor Variable.....	49
Table 6: Interaction Effect of Job Demands and Employee Resilience.....	50

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual Model Showing the Relationship Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being with Employee Resilience as a Moderating Variable.....	27
Figure 2: Hypothesised Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of the Social Well-Being Scale.....	41
Figure 3: Hypothesised Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of the Job Demands Scales.....	42
Figure 4: Hypothesised Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of the Employee Resilience Scale (all items).....	43
Figure 5: Hypothesised Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of the Employee Resilience Scale (Item 7 and 8 Removed).....	44

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) has brought about unprecedented changes in organisations worldwide. The pandemic has produced a stressful working atmosphere, with employers being pressured to conform to new methods of work and managers needing to support employees in adjusting to and dealing with radical changes in the workplace (Beland et al., 2020). South Africa was no exception: the national lockdown policies imposed by the government forced employees to deal with unfamiliar job demands due to most of them having to work from home (Jamal et al., 2021; Trougakos et al., 2020). Lockdown and other social distancing strategies implemented across the globe to mitigate the effects of COVID-19 have shifted jobs from the workplace into employees' homes. Remote working is a type of employment that allows people to work from the convenience of their own homes. It has become the new standard for ensuring company sustainability and continuity (Trougakos et al., 2020). The lockdown has led to approximately 79% of South African employees having to work from home compared to only 26% prior to lockdown (Lebopo et al., 2020).

Remote work as a result of the pandemic has created a rather stressful environment as employees are pressured to conform to new methods of work while dealing with family roles or other external responsibilities (Beland et al., 2020). Additionally, employees have experienced isolation from their co-workers, relatives and friends (Trougakos et al., 2020). This may result in feelings of loneliness, especially for employees who reside alone or away from home (Wang et al., 2020). The use of technological applications can lead to feelings of frustration due to instances where the software is slow or does not function properly. This frustration is coupled with the increased use of video communications applications such as Zoom and Microsoft Teams, which have been said to cause fatigue and low job productivity (Wang et al., 2020).

Furthermore, it has been said that remote working during the pandemic has affected all dimensions of employee well-being, which presents a major concern for both employees and organisations (Van der Elst et al., 2020). For example, low well-being has a significant impact on an organisation's performance and sustainability as well-being impacts on expenses associated with sickness, health care absences, turnover and job performance (Grawitch et al., 2006). Thus,

an organisation may suffer long-term financial and non-financial losses, which produces a decrease in organisational success. Well-being also has an impact on employee job satisfaction (Pradhan et al., 2017), employee engagement (Sivapragasam & Raya, 2017) and employee dedication (Wright, 2006). Research posits that well-being has a significant impact on an individual's stress-coping behaviour and mental and physical health. In turn, an individual's stress-coping strategies have significant implications for both work and personal life (Carver et al., 2010; Wright, 2010).

Despite extensive research efforts on employee well-being, most studies focus largely on psychological well-being and overlook social well-being (SWB) — the latter which may be significantly impacted due to the fluid nature of work the world is currently experiencing (Ceri & Cicek, 2021; Jamal et al., 2021; Meyer et al., 2021). SWB can be understood as the degree to which an employee feels a sense of belonging at work (Christianson et al., 2007). As employees are experiencing social isolation from their co-workers and families and having to communicate virtually with individuals, employee SWB is notably affected by the pandemic. The remote work system has significantly affected employees' sense of empathy towards each other, the formation of interpersonal relationships and how employees interact with one another (Saladino et al., 2020). According to Boreham et al. (2015), SWB is concerned with feeling valued as a person, colleague and/or employee. A healthy degree of SWB is derived from high-quality workplace relationships and interactions. This sense of belonging is likely to foster higher levels of engagement and, as a result, higher productivity (Boreham et al., 2015). When employees feel supported by an organisation that values them, they are remarkably more inclined to perform at their best (Boreham et al., 2015). Therefore, in order to create a workplace where employees feel included and eager about surpassing expectations, it is critical to instil a healthy degree of SWB.

Research demonstrates that challenging job demands experienced by remote workers have adverse implications for their SWB (Graves & Karabayeva, 2020; Jamal et al., 2021). It is worth mentioning, however, that reasonably high job demands can keep employees occupied and engaged in their work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The COVID-19 pandemic has led to renewed job demands which remote working employees have had to adjust to in order to ensure business continuity (Jamal et al., 2021). These changes included an increase in workload pressure (WLP), task interdependence (TID), professional isolation (PI) and family-to-work

conflict (FWC) (Jamal et al., 2021). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) argue that if high job demands are not accompanied by appropriate resources, task difficulty grows and work enthusiasm declines, consequently increasing the likelihood of absenteeism and low job performance.

In light of this, employee resilience is a potential personal resource that may buffer the negative impacts of increased job demands on employee well-being, including SWB (Riley, 2012). Employee resilience is known as an employee's capability — both facilitated and supported by the organisation — to utilise resources to continually adapt and flourish at work, even if or when faced with challenging circumstances (Naswall et al., 2015). This ability to rebound from the challenging circumstance is facilitated and supported by the organisation, such that employers provide appropriate resources and interventions that aid the development of the employee's resilience (Naswall et al., 2015). Employee resilience is known to assist in maintaining SWB in stressful situations, as resilient employees use adverse events as a positive tool to learn and develop themselves to achieve success (Naswall et al., 2015). The notion of employee resilience emanates from the positive psychology scientific approach (Seligman, 2007). Specifically, positive psychology focuses on shifting the attention away from negative human thoughts, feelings and behavioural aspects (Seligman, 2007). Positive psychology emphasises the strengths of human thoughts, feelings and behavioural aspects to promote well-being (Meyer et al., 2021). Therefore, employee resilience enables employees to master adversity and reduce the harmful effects of high work demands (Seligman, 2007). For example, in the context of remote working, resilient employees may find other ways to cope and build interpersonal relationships rather than complaining about how difficult it is to build interpersonal relationships at work. Additionally, resilient employees can adapt to changes easily and perceive change as an opportunity to grow and learn (Riley, 2012). Despite these desirable outcomes, the role of employee resilience in mitigating the negative effects of job demands is underexplored, and this field of inquiry is particularly relevant during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Bakker and Demerouti (2007) developed the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model, which stresses the role of job and personal resources in mitigating the negative effects of high job demands. *Job resources* include physical, social and organisational factors that not only assist in achieving organisational goals but stimulate personal growth, learning and development

to accomplish positive employee well-being outcomes (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). *Personal* resources, on the other hand, are subjective attributes often associated with psychological resilience such that they serve to indicate the employee's perception of his or her abilities to control his or her environment successfully (Güler & Çetin, 2019). Although previous research has mostly focused on job resources and their relation to well-being (Demerouti et al., 2017; Tadić et al., 2015), it is equally important to explore the relationship between personal resources and well-being. If employees' job demands are increasing and becoming difficult to manage due to working from home, then the development of personal resources — such as employee resilience — need to be reconsidered in terms of importance to overcome the adversity of COVID-19 shifts in the workplace. Employee resilience can enable employees to adapt to the challenges associated with high job demands.

In conjunction with JD-R, the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory by Hobfoll (1989) can also be used to explain the critical role of employee resilience as a personal resource. The overall perspective of the COR theory suggests that individuals aim to obtain, preserve, protect and sustain resources that are of value to them (Hobfoll, 1989). Hobfoll (1989) argued that personal resources (for example, employee resilience) are important to gain and maintain to have a positive impact on SWB. Employee resilience allows employees to conquer adversity such as high job demands effectively (Riley, 2012). Therefore, according to this theory, it can be argued that employees will experience a resource loss if they are not resilient, which may exacerbate the adverse impact of job demands on SWB (Bardoel et al., 2014). However, given that the pandemic has ushered in a fairly novel working environment for most employees, there is a lack of research that indicates whether employee resilience is effective during unprecedented times.

1.2 Problem Statement and Rationale

Research demonstrates that employees are experiencing challenging demands in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic (Beland et al., 2020; Jamal et al., 2021). In their study, Jamal et al. (2021) find that employee well-being has decreased significantly as job demands are different when having to adjust rapidly to remote work (Jamal et al., 2021). Research has extensively explored the effects of pandemic remote work on psychological well-being, a dimension of well-

being that should not be disregarded (Canibano et al., 2020; Jamal et al., 2021). However, two of the most challenging aspects employees are dealing with are social isolation from co-workers and virtual TID (Jamal et al., 2021). This has affected not only their psychological well-being but their social well-being significantly (Tuzovic & Kabadayi, 2020). Furthermore, remote workers are experiencing an increase in WLP as well as FWC and lack the social support necessary to assist them with these demands (Canibano et al., 2020). As a result, remote workers are feeling lonely, excluded from updates and are unable to form interpersonal relationships. They are therefore experiencing an overall decrease in their SWB.

A review of the literature reveals that being a resilient individual has been one way to overcome the challenges that COVID-19 has presented (Riley, 2012). Employee resilience enables employees to thrive under challenging circumstances and allows them to focus and dwell largely on the positive aspects of any given scenario (Naswall et al., 2015). Therefore, given the challenges of job demands and the consequent adverse effects on employee SWB, being resilient may enable employees to mitigate job demands in ways that result in finding solutions to maintain and improve their relationships, build interpersonal relationships and discover support pathways (Prime et al., 2020). Consequently, it has been suggested that SWB will be constantly maintained or improved in any given circumstance (Riley, 2012). In view of this, employee resilience can be learned and developed (Tonkin et al., 2018). Employee resilience can be learned by developing thoughts, behaviours and actions that enable employees to recover from traumatic and stressful life events (Riley, 2012). Once this is achieved, the perception of stressful events — particularly events that have unfolded in a rapid fashion — can be better dealt with by employees through positivity (Tonkin et al., 2018).

Against this backdrop, this study aims to explore the relationship between job demands and SWB, with employee resilience as a factor that affects the strength of the relationship. The researcher argues that preserving SWB and building resilience are critical for organisational success. Research suggests that job demands are the chief determinant of well-being during COVID-19. While the role of employee resilience is known to buffer the negative effects of job demands for well-being, there is a lack of research on these relationships among remote workers, particularly in South Africa. Hence, the results of this study may assist organisational leaders in identifying interventions that increase the SWB of employees in light of the new demands they

are facing. In addition, results may assist in developing organisational culture models, employee social wellness programmes and employee resilience programmes aimed at assisting employees to confront present and future changes.

1.3 Chapter Summary and Dissertation Structure

Chapter one presents the context and background. It then addressed the research problem and the research aims. Chapter two provides a review of existing literature and applicable theory to derive plausible hypotheses. Thereafter, chapter three presents the methodology section in which the research design that is most suitable for the current study as well as the sampling procedure, participants, measures, data collection procedure, data analysis and ethical considerations is described. Chapter four presents the results of the study, followed by a discussion in chapter five, that provides recommendations for future research based on limitations and practical implications of the findings. The study concludes with chapter six which is a summary of the findings.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter two presents an overview of existing literature on the research topic. First, this chapter defines and discusses the concept of well-being. Second, it defines job demands and discusses the relationship between job demands and SWB. Third, it defines employee resilience and discusses it as a moderating variable between job demands and SWB. Last, Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) JD-R Model and Hobfoll's (1989) COR Theory are discussed as theoretical frameworks that can explicitly explain the relationship between job demands, SWB and employee resilience. This is followed by the present study's formulated hypotheses, which are examined to answer the research questions.

2.1 Social Well-Being

Organisational researchers have thoroughly researched the determinants of well-being (Ceri & Cicek, 2021; Möhring et al., 2021; Riley, 2012). Well-being has been identified as a critical matter for employees, employers and society (Pradhan & Hati, 2019). With increasing evidence linking employee well-being to various performance indicators such as efficiency, employee turnover, job satisfaction, stress and work-life balance, well-being is a vital factor for

how businesses gain a competitive edge (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011; Keeman et al., 2017). During a pandemic, well-being becomes even more consequential. This is because employees are experiencing an abrupt shift to remote working and self-isolation, which brings about unanticipated psychological consequences such as anxiety, loneliness and depression (Higgins-Dunn, 2020; Sim, 2020). According to Wu et al. (2010), prior pandemics had a negative effect on the well-being of employees. Fears about being exposed to COVID-19, losing close relatives, anxiety about the future, fear of losing one's life, drastic changes in daily activities at work and at home, and social isolation have all led to a significant decrease in well-being (WHO, 2020). The literature demonstrates a number of well-being dimensions, which include psychological, social, subjective and emotional well-being, to mention but a few (Pradhan & Hati, 2019; Reh et al., 2021). The present study focuses on SWB among remote workers in South Africa. This dimension has been considered a critical factor, especially during the pandemic (Jamal et al., 2021).

It is important to note that well-being has been defined according to two distinct perspectives. The hedonic perspective defines well-being as analogous to happiness (Ryan & Deci, 2001). This perspective emphasises the importance of happiness being derived externally (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Diener and Fujita (1995) argued that the hedonic perspective is the frequent experience of pleasant emotions and moods, the rare experience of negative emotions and moods and high levels of self-avowed satisfaction. This is commonly known as subjective well-being (Diener & Fujita, 1995). In the second eudemonic approach, well-being is described in terms of self-actualisation, proposing that true happiness is found in expressing virtue (Dewe & Cooper, 2012). This viewpoint emphasises that happiness is derived internally (Dewe & Cooper, 2012). Ryff (1989) argued that this perspective focuses on how individuals strive to function fully and realise their unique abilities. This is commonly associated with psychological well-being, which consists of dimensions such as autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, personal relationships, purpose in life and self-acceptance (Hausler et al., 2017; Ryff, 1989). SWB, contrastingly, can be understood as distinct but nevertheless related to other forms of well-being. In fact, research suggests that SWB falls under the eudemonic perspective of well-being (Gallagher & Lopez, 2009; Keyes, 1998).

This study has adopted Christianson et al.'s (2007) definition of SWB. According to Christianson et al. (2007), SWB can be understood as the degree to which one feels a sense of belonging and connection to society which, in this case, would be the organisation. It has been suggested that SWB includes the stable state of an individual's relationships, social harmony, mutual respect and peace (Christianson et al., 2007). This definition is derived from Keyes' (1998) prominent conceptualisation of SWB. Keyes (1998) argues that well-being is better viewed as a social notion that transcends the psychological aspect of being an individual. He argues that SWB consists of the following dimensions: social acceptance (accepting others as they are), social actualisation (one's positive comfort level in society), social contribution (a feeling that one has a contribution to make to society), social coherence (understanding the social world as predictable and comprehensible) and social integration (feeling like a part of a community) (Keyes, 1998). Colenberg et al. (2020) researched how to conceptualise SWB in activity-based offices and found that Keyes' (1998) dimensions of SWB were important aspects in the workplace. Social acceptance of others is crucial as it allows employees to be themselves in the workplace, which broadens the diversity of organisations (Keyes, 1998). Furthermore, social actualisation is essential for the workplace as it is vital that employees feel comfortable in their job roles and with their co-workers (Keyes, 1998). Social contribution allows employees to voice their opinions freely and provide ideas without being discriminated against by their supervisor or co-workers (Keyes, 1998). Without this, employees' performance in the workplace can be negatively affected. In addition, social coherence is important for employees to understand where they belong, what is required of them and what they can expect from their co-workers (Keyes, 1998). Last, social integration is essential for employees to feel a sense of belonging in the workplace (Keyes, 1998). A lack of social integration can cause loneliness and depression among employees, especially in relation to remote work.

Employees have experienced rapid remote work adjustments such as physical distancing from co-workers and virtual teamwork (Kara et al., 2021). As a result, employees have been experiencing a heightened effect of these consequences, leading to various SWB implications (Meyer et al., 2021). This reality suggests a need to explore SWB among remote workers in South Africa during the COVID-19 pandemic. Employee SWB is vital to retain in a workplace. Social connections are important not only for the well-being of employees but for their

productivity too (Saladino et al., 2020). Healthy workplace relationships are essential ingredients to SWB, as full-time employees spend the majority of their time among their co-workers (Beland et al., 2020). Most importantly, SWB is essential to ensure social capital (Putnam, 2001). Social capital ensures that employees have shared values that allow them to work together effectively to achieve a common purpose (Putman, 2000). It has been discovered that a strong sense of social integration is a powerful intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 200). On the contrary, diminished SWB negatively affects productivity, engagement and performance (Teghe & Rendell, 2005). When employees feel like they are part of a cause larger than themselves, they are more productive. Saladino et al. (2020) explored the psychological and social impact of COVID-19 and found that while too frequent meetings can be detrimental to productivity, having meetings to discuss goals and recent accomplishments can help employees feel more engaged, valued and acknowledged. Thus, employee interactions, particularly during the pandemic, can strengthen employee relationships and concurrently enhance well-being.

Furthermore, Boreham et al. (2015) explored employment conditions and SWB and discovered that healthy SWB in the workplace helped lower stress levels. When an employee is suffering from chronic stress or occupational burnout, he or she does not function at his or her best (Boreham et al., 2015). In fact, Ramsay (2020) argues that absenteeism, frequent illness, decreased energy, and irritation are all symptoms of work-related stress. Therefore, employers can help minimise workplace stress by assisting employees in developing social relationships at work. De Jager et al. (2008) explored dimensions of SWB in a motor manufacturing organisation in South Africa and found that SWB enhances employee engagement and loyalty since employees who have friends or social relationships at work are found to be more engaged and devoted to their company. The reason for this is that strong workplace relationships aid in the development of an organisational culture that values respect, loyalty and trust (Ramsay, 2020). It is, therefore, evident that social connections foster a sense of belonging, which is critical for developing creativity, cooperation and collaboration (Ramsay, 2020). Despite this, Tuzovic and Kabadayi (2020) argued that many employees find building connections in the workplace to be daunting. Employees do not want to violate any boundaries, and it might be arduous to discover methods to develop personal bonds with co-workers. Therefore, organisations must adopt a

culture that fosters social interaction and encourages employees to form relationships to improve their SWB.

In light of this, it is essential to note the influence of the positive psychology movement and the role of employee well-being, specifically as to SWB in the workplace. A review of the literature suggests that attention to employee well-being may be especially pressing during the COVID-19 pandemic (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020; Jamal et al., 2021; Tuzovic & Kabadayi, 2020). The impact of well-being has also been demonstrated in intervention studies. Positive psychology interventions, particularly those focused on improving well-being, have proclaimed to produce positive outcomes, such as job performance (Donaldson et al., 2019). These interventions have also been associated with lower absenteeism, higher job satisfaction and increased organisational commitment (Donaldson et al., 2019). Overall, well-being and, more specifically, SWB are critical for both employees and organisational functioning. The following section discusses the relationship between job demands and SWB.

2.2 Relationship Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being

Job demands are defined as the physical, social or organisational facets of a job that necessitate sustained physical or psychological commitment and are linked to physiological and psychological efforts (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). It applies to aspects of the job that are beneficial in terms of achieving work goals or promoting employee learning and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). All employees experience several job demands that are linked to their occupation. According to Jamal et al. (2021), WLP, TID, PI, and FWC are the most prominent job demands among remote workers. Consequently, this study explores the impact of these demands on remote workers' SWB.

Remote working employees are under pressure to complete several work tasks in a certain amount of time. They are further compelled to work longer hours as a justification for saving time on travelling to and from work (Brammer & Clark, 2020). In addition, these employees are required to balance their workload with their familial roles, as the pandemic has made it difficult to separate the two (Troughakos et al., 2020). According to previous studies, employees work longer and harder when they work remotely (Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). Due to a lack of support to minimise this pressure, employees are

likely to experience a decrease in their SWB and higher stress levels (Duxbury & Halinski, 2014). Additionally, the increase in WLP means that employees have a reduced amount of time to provide support or connect with their co-workers (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). Canibano et al. (2020), who explored the demands of working virtually in a team during the COVID-19 pandemic, argued that the initial use of new technological applications also created a sense of WLP among remote workers.

Task interdependence refers to the degree to which a job necessitates the execution of multiple tasks by multiple employees (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). When a role involves a high level of coordination among employees, it is argued to be highly interdependent. Previous research has consistently indicated that performing interdependent tasks while physically isolated is challenging, and that remote working is undesirable for such functions (Biron & van Veldhoven, 2016; Kaplan et al., 2018). Jamal et al. (2021) suggested that high TID can trigger stress for remote workers because it entails regular communication and information exchange. Virtual or internet communication for information exchange makes cooperation difficult for physically dispersed teams (Golden & Veiga, 2005). This has adverse effects on their SWB as they are unable to communicate with co-workers physically and may quickly become uninterested as virtual communication can be tiring (Jamal et al., 2021). Contrastingly, Klonek et al. (2021) argued that remote workers become accustomed to virtual TID as the pandemic progresses. These divergent viewpoints suggest a need to delve into this subject area further and explore the impact of TID on well-being, particularly among employees working remotely.

Professional isolation is often described as the most significant disadvantage of remote work, with more severe consequences in the case of full-time remote working because isolation acutely limits opportunities for interaction among employees (Golden et al., 2008; Morganson et al., 2010). This assertion was put forward by Jamal et al. (2021) on the basis that an individual's perception of being isolated from co-workers means that the he or she feels there are fewer opportunities to communicate and form interpersonal relationships with them. According to Golden et al. (2008), PI may contribute to lack of interest in or rejection by co-workers, as well as alienation, anxiety, occupational burnout and a general decrease in SWB. This phenomenon can often result in decreased productivity (Hoornweg et al., 2016). Employees with higher degrees of interdependence are particularly vulnerable to the effects of PI. Highly interdependent

jobs involve constant communication among employees, and if an employee feels professionally isolated and information exchange is hindered, adverse outcomes may occur.

Furthermore, family-to-work conflict is defined as the degree to which one domain's functioning (for example, family) has a negative effect on the other (for example, work) (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Research demonstrates that COVID-19 organisational changes have heightened the conflict between familial and work roles such that employees experience an increase in family demands which negatively affects their work performance (Trougakos et al., 2020). Due to the elimination of physical boundaries separating the office and home, the pandemic situation eliminates the temporal boundary experienced by a remote worker, causing tension between familial and work roles (Beland et al., 2020). Apart from the difficulty in distinguishing family from professional life, the unplanned closing of schools and childcare centres — as well as not being able to receive assistance from family or friends — has raised parental pressures on employees, blurring the boundaries between family and work life and affecting SWB more intensely (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). Research has shown that FWC has brought about a decrease in productivity and an increase in stress, which has affected employee well-being (Galanti et al., 2021). For that reason, work-to-family conflict was not explored as this the experience of increase work demands which negatively affects family (Trougakos et al., 2020). Although these FWCs tend to be more demanding on the well-being of employees with children, childless employees are not resistant to the adverse effects of the changing work environment (Beland et al., 2020). They may experience FWC with their parents, siblings and other family-related responsibilities (Beland et al., 2020). Therefore, remote workers face greater role overload and role conflict due to the concurrent demands from family and work (Moore, 2006). This could result in stress as employees may not be able to receive support from relatives or friends due to COVID-19 social isolation restrictions.

Many companies lack a structured remote working strategy, and companies were unprepared for the widespread shift to remote work (Canibano et al., 2020). Since organisations never intended to go completely virtual, there were no plans, tools or management strategies in place to cope with the pandemic (Jamal et al., 2021). As Mahler (2012) argues, remote working is not only a novel way of working; it is also a new organisational culture in which job demands are not the same, strategic alliances are complicated, and management roles are interpreted

differently. Although there is substantial research supporting the use of remote working for business continuity in pandemic circumstances (Wu et al., 2010), there has hardly been research focusing on the job demands that such circumstances impose and their effects on SWB. Overall, working from home adds another dimension to how work is accomplished.

The organisational changes associated with the COVID-19 pandemic can significantly impact on SWB. While technological advances keep co-workers connected, the quality and quantity of informal interactions that occur outside of work can easily decrease due to physical separation. In fact, Canibano et al. (2020) propose that virtual teamwork can be a job demand that is a stressor in and of itself. Likewise, Thielsch et al. (2021) argue that the use of virtual teamwork breaks down effective co-worker support that employees obtain in the workplace, thus affecting their SWB. Additionally, De Dreu and Weingart (2003) find that increasing social conflicts as a result of task-related or interpersonal disputes can put a strain on team members and lead to a decline in SWB.

Evidently, research has found that high job demands negatively affect general employee well-being and, more specifically, SWB (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Tooren & Jong, 2013). Existing research explicitly demonstrates the effect of job demands on SWB; however, there seems to be a lack of research that examines the association of these constructs within the COVID-19 context (Canibano et al., 2020; Saladino et al., 2020; Thielsch et al., 2021). Taken together, it is apparent that in order to provide support to remote workers, effective resources should be provided to mitigate the detrimental effect that job demands have on employee well-being, including SWB, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic. Various personal resources can be adopted to alleviate the effects of job demands on SWB. A resource that is known to conquer challenges such as the demands of the pandemic on remote workers is employee resilience. Consequently, the following section discusses the moderating role of employee resilience.

2.3 Employee Resilience as a Moderating Variable

Employee resilience is explored as a moderator variable as it is believed to strengthen the relationship between job demands and social well-being (Field, 2018). Whereas, if employee resilience was explored as a mediator variable, it would indicate why or how there is a

relationship between job demands and social well-being (Field, 2018). The latter is not applicable as the main objective of the study was to test the moderating role of employee resilience. Studies have shown that job demands have been shown to negatively impact well-being (Ceschi et al., 2017; Shatté et al., 2017). There are many studies that demonstrate the positive relationship between ER and well-being (Cooper et al., 2014; Robertson et al., 2015). However, some studies demonstrate that ER can buffer against the negative effects of job demands on well-being as a mediator (Maidaniuc-Chirilă, 2015; Roemer & Harris, 2018). However, it is argued in this study that the relationship between job demands and social well-being is not caused by employee resilience.

Resilience is described as the ability to adjust well in the face of adversity, such as trauma, disaster, threats, familial and relationship issues, serious health issues, or occupational and financial difficulties (Tonkin et al., 2018). Resilience is commonly known as one of the behavioural aspects belonging to the group of psychological capital resources (Luthans et al., 2007). Psychological capital consists of a set of resources that can assist an individual's psychological state of development (Luthans et al., 2007). In addition to resilience, psychological capital includes optimism, hope and self-efficacy (Luthans et al., 2007). The present study focuses explicitly on employee resilience, which is the ability to overcome hardship or crisis while operating in an often-unfamiliar territory to accomplish organisational and personal priorities (Seville et al., 2006). Naswall et al. (2015, p.1) provide a formal definition of employee resilience and assert that employee resilience is an 'employee capability, facilitated and supported by the organisation, to utilise resources to continually adapt and flourish at work, even if/or when faced with challenging circumstances. In line with this definition, Lengnick-Hall et al. (2011) understand employee resilience as a transformative process in which employees not only adapt and effectively deal with change but also learn from it and respond to the situation accordingly (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011). The COVID-19 pandemic has been onerous and complex for all employees to adapt to and overcome. While it is important to understand employees' well-being, it is also crucial to comprehend the link between an individual's inner motivation and drive, as well as his or her ability to overcome challenging situations at work and at home.

Many psychologists and other researchers have studied the positive effects of human behaviour in the last decade and why some individuals endure and succeed in the face of hardship while others wane (Cooper et al., 2014; Tonkin et al., 2018). According to Cooper et al. (2014), resilient people are highly driven to succeed, frequently set ambitious goals and have a good work ethic. They tend to have an internal locus of control as well as supportive friends, relatives and co-workers (Cooper et al., 2014). A resilient person uses traumatic or adverse events as a springboard for personal development, which boosts his or her performance; this, in turn, tends to improve his or her ability to cope with future adverse events (Bonanno, 2004). Given that employee resilience allows employees to conquer adversity swiftly, research suggests that resilient employees are better able to balance work demands, consequently reducing the adverse effects of the demands on their SWB (Riley, 2012). Individuals, families and organisations that are resilient have a cumulative, interactive and interconnected synergistic impact (Riley, 2012). When an employee is confronted with a stressful or traumatic experience at work, he or she may draw on his or her internal resources as well as those of family members and co-workers. This employee resilience transference indicates that resilience is a significant personal resource that employees can capitalise on, and which can buffer the adverse effects of professional demands.

Previous literature has extensively researched the outcomes and effects of resilience. Shatté et al. (2017) explored the positive impact of resilience on stress and business outcomes in demanding work environments. They found that employees with higher levels of resilience had better outcomes in demanding work environments. The results of Shatté et al.'s (2017) study indicated that resilience protects against a variety of consequences. This mentioned study concluded that when job demands are high, resilience has a strong, positive impact on well-being and productivity and may help prevent absenteeism (Shatté et al., 2017). Similarly, Ceschi et al. (2017) studied the role of resilience in demanding work environments. Ceschi et al. (2017) found resilience to be a moderator in the relationship between job demands and well-being. Nevertheless, some studies do not demonstrate resilience as a significant moderator. For instance, Traunmüller et al. (2021) found that resilience does not moderate the relationship between the psychological impact of COVID-19 and some mental health indicators, which include stress and depression.

Despite the above-mentioned divergent findings, resilience can be understood as a vital characteristic in the context of high job demands, particularly in the context of a pandemic. New difficulties and complexities have already inundated strained levels of engagement in the virtual environment (Canibano et al., 2020). Employee resilience has numerous benefits, which is why organisations should seek to understand the factors that contribute to employee resilience and begin implementing employee resilience-building initiatives. Robertson et al. (2015) explored employee resilience training in the workplace from 2003 to 2014 and found that employee resilience enhanced overall employee well-being. Resilient significantly enhances employees' SWB by allowing them to reframe their experience of stress and motivates them to make an effort to communicate with their support systems to alleviate stress (Robertson et al., 2015). Likewise, Bardoel and Drago (2021) observe that resilience enables employees to adjust swiftly to any challenging workplace changes. Thus, developing employee resilience in leaders, managers, and employees is essential for navigating the milieu of change — which is unavoidable in today's fast-paced corporate environment — and the rapid shift to remote work (Robertson et al., 2015).

Hartmann et al. (2020), who explored employee resilience in the workplace, also discovered that resilience promoted learning and innovation. Most businesses must innovate their employees frequently to survive in today's business environment (Hartmann et al., 2020). This means that employees must strive to maintain and develop their skills by adopting changes that promote the organisation's long-term survival. This is particularly pertinent to the pandemic, as many organisations in South Africa are suffering due to economic constraints and lockdown restrictions (South African Government, 2021). Therefore, resilience can be employed to improve professional cooperation, particularly virtual teamwork (Wilson & Ferch, 2005). It can also be argued that the resource of resilience can modify negative behaviours and minimise negative sentiments among team members while simultaneously enhancing team relations. Accordingly, the principle of employee resilience must be investigated in this context. Furthermore, Riley (2012) argues that employee resilience is relevant beyond the pandemic context as resilience has been found to sustain and/or improve SWB regardless of the pandemic. Overall, employee resilience is essential in organisations and may assist employees in coping and

dealing with rampant organisational changes and job demands. The following section deals with the two theoretical frameworks adopted in this study.

2.4 Theoretical Frameworks: Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model and Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory

This research study adopts Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) widely used JD-R Model and Hobfoll's (1989) COR Theory to understand the associations between the study variables. According to the JD-R Model, job demands include a demanding workload; emotional, physical and psychological pressures; and the stress levels of a job, all of which trigger psychological or physical strain, resulting in a decrease in employee well-being (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Although Schaufeli and Taris (2014) also pointed out the downfalls of the JD-R theory which include the conceptual difference between job demands and job resources is not as clear-cut as it may seem at first glance and that the JD-R model suggests that the health impairment and motivational processes are independent, but it is quite possible that they represent two sides of the same coin.

According to the JD-R Model, job resources that may be effective in mitigating job demands are linked to various components of employee well-being, including SWB (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In light of this, Jamal et al. (2021) argue that certain demands and resources are appropriate among remote workers during a pandemic. The job demands for this study are: TID, WLP, PI and FWC (Jamal et al., 2021). The personal resource is employee resilience, which could be employed to mitigate the adverse effects of job demands.

The JD-R Model describes the impact of high job demands on a health impairment process in which demands lead to strain and thus a rise in adverse consequences (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Contrastingly, job or personal resources result in positive outcomes (that is, improved SWB) through a motivating process (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Existing research clearly demonstrates this phenomenon. Research shows that job demands have a detrimental effect on employee health and well-being (van den Tooren & de Jong, 2014). A study conducted by Tims et al. (2013) also discovered that job demands were related to a decrease in job performance and engagement. These demands deplete employees' physical, psychological and social resources and may therefore result in a state of exhaustion (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

This depletion of energy eventually results in impoverished well-being, including SWB. The present study argues that if not properly managed, job demands (that is, WLP, TID, PI and FWC) deplete remote employees' mental, social and physical resources, leading to low SWB (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In fact, studies demonstrate that these demands are negatively related to SWB (Duxbury & Halinski, 2014; Golden et al., 2008; Jamal et al., 2021).

On the other hand, job and personal resources are the aspects of a job that make it easier for people to perform and mitigate psychological or physiological decline, as well as help with personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). Both job and personal resources improve an employee's well-being and alleviate stress, which enhances positive employee outcomes while weakening adverse outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti., 2018). Personal resources differ from job resources such that they are aspects of the self that are linked to resiliency and refer to an individual's sense of his or her ability to control and make an effective impact on his or her environment (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). As already mentioned, job demands are likely to decrease employee SWB through the impairment process. Nevertheless, employee resilience as a personal resource may assist remote workers significantly in maintaining SWB and coping better with their job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Resilience enables employees to overcome challenging situations such as the rapid adjustment to remote work and the demands that accompany remote work (Naswall et al., 2015). To resilient employees, adversity becomes a learning opportunity rather than an inconvenience.

The COR theory proposed by Hobfoll (1989) can additionally be used to explain the associations among study variables. COR is based on the idea that people are driven to conserve existing resources (that is, conservation) and acquire new resources (that is, acquisition) (Hobfoll, 1989). Although studies show that this theory is subjective to experience and priorities, it is deemed useful for this study as it numerous studies have indicated that it can be used to explain the relationships that this study is exploring (Hobfoll, 2018; Teghe & Rendell, 2005).

In this theory, resources are defined broadly as objects, situations, circumstances and other things that people value (Hobfoll, 1989). Individuals' perceptions of resource value are influenced by their unique experiences and circumstances. To assist in the understanding of the intricacy of the resource investment process, Hobfoll et al. (2018) identified four main principles.

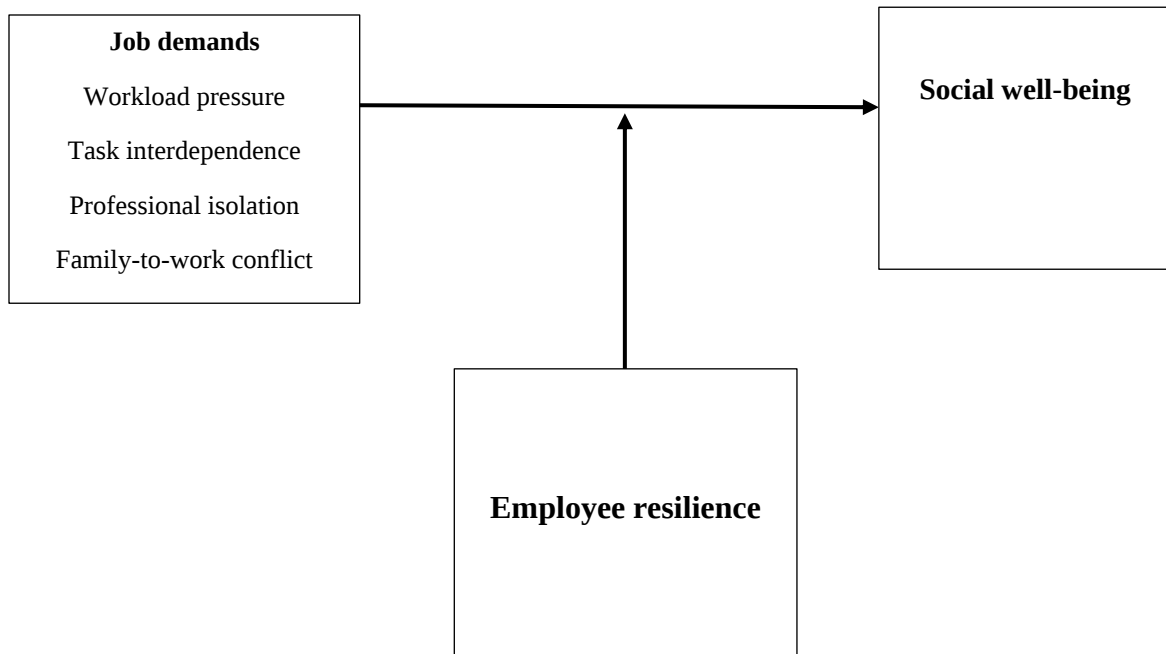
The first principle states that when a person loses a resource, they are more deprived, and therefore the repercussions will exceed the satisfactory results (Hobfoll et al., 2018). For instance, an employee who is not resilient or does not apply resiliency while adapting to COVID-19 job demands is likely to experience a more substantial negative impact on their SWB. Therefore, with low resilience and high job demands, employees are more likely to experience low SWB, producing more adverse outcomes such as low performance and engagement (Teghe & Rendell, 2005).

According to the second principle, individuals invest in resources to guard against the loss of resources, to restore resources after the loss of resources and to obtain resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). For example, employees must be open to investing in building their resilience to accumulate other resources (that is, SWB) and guard against the negative effects of high job demands. Indeed, resilience training programmes have been found to enhance overall employee well-being (Robertson et al., 2015). The third principle contends that when resource loss is severe, resource gains become more critical (Hobfoll et al., 2018). For instance, when employees are having challenges with adapting to high job demands and maintaining positive workplace relationships, building employee resilience becomes more critical. This principle emphasises the importance of resource gain. When employees gain resources (for example, resilience), they are more likely to rebound and gain the necessary momentum and strength (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Last, the under-researched fourth principle argues that when people's resources are stretched or expended, they go into a defensive mode to protect themselves, which is frequently defensive, aggressive and illogical. Thus, individuals may try to employ defensive mechanisms to conserve their resources or use alternative coping strategies, which are often maladaptive (Hobfoll et al., 2018). For example, when employees are not resilient, they may enter a defensive mode where they attempt to conserve their strengths or employ alternative strategies to cope.

Overall, the JD-R and the COR explicitly explain the associations between the study variables. See Figure 1 below for a graphical representation of the conceptual model of this study. The following section reiterates the gaps in current literature.

Figure 1

Conceptual Model Showing the Relationship Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being With Employee Resilience as a Moderating Variable



2.5 Gaps in Current Literature

In light of the existing literature that has been discussed, it appears that there is a potential relationship between job demands and SWB, with employee resilience as a moderating variable. Preserving employee SWB is important for organisational success, as healthy SWB increases happiness, lowers stress levels and increases employee engagement (Krekel et al., 2019). Most importantly, healthy SWB promotes social cohesiveness among co-workers and team members. If organisations do not attend to the SWB of remote working employees, the potential consequences are increases in stress, loneliness and an overall decrease in job performance — all of which affect organisational productivity (Wang et al., 2020). In view of this, research has suggested that the rapid adjustment to new job demands is the main aspect that has affected employee well-being during COVID-19. While there is plenty of research on how

rapid adjustment to remote work has affected psychological well-being, there is a lack of research on how it has affected SWB.

The SWB of remote workers has been overlooked during the COVID-19 pandemic, and social isolation has possibly been the most challenging adjustment that remote workers have had to adapt to. While the role of employee resilience is known to buffer the negative effects of job demands on employee well-being, there is a lack of research on these relationships among remote workers in South Africa (Tonkin et al., 2018). The COVID-19 pandemic has been detrimental to organisations whose employees have mostly been working remotely. This research addresses this gap in the literature with the aim of assisting organisational leaders in several manners. First, the present study can assist human resource management (HRM) in developing and reinforcing policies that emphasise and support resilience and SWB. Second, it can educate managers on the SWB of remote workers so that management can effectively support employees by ensuring that they have sufficient resources to enable them to do their jobs to the best of their ability. Finally, it can assist in developing interventions such as employee assistance programmes (EAPs) that are centred around providing effective virtual support to remote workers; this has the potential to buffer feelings of isolation and disconnection.

2.6 Research Objectives

This study investigates the relationship between job demands and SWB among remote workers in South Africa, with employee resilience as a moderating variable. It seeks to fulfil five core objectives. The first objective is to investigate the psychometric properties of the study measures. The second objective is to examine the relationship between job demands (that is, WLP, TID, PI, FWC) and SWB. Third, this study will determine which job demands best predict SWB. The fourth objective is to investigate the relationship between resilience and SWB. Last, this study will examine the moderating role of employee resilience in the relationship between job demands and SWB. In light of the above literature review discussed in section 2.5., the following hypotheses are posed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a negative relationship between job demands (that is, workload pressure, task interdependence, professional isolation and family-to-work conflict) and social well-being.

Hypothesis 1a. There is a negative relationship between workload pressure and social well-being among remote workers in South Africa.

Hypothesis 1b. There is a negative relationship between task interdependence and social well-being among remote workers in South Africa.

Hypothesis 1c. There is a negative relationship between professional isolation and social well-being among remote workers in South Africa.

Hypothesis 1d. There is a negative relationship between family-to-work conflict and social well-being among remote workers in South Africa.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between employee resilience and social well-being among remote workers in South Africa.

Hypothesis 3: Employee resilience moderates the relationship between job demands and social well-being:

Hypothesis 3a: Employee resilience moderates the relationship between workload pressure and social well-being among remote workers in South Africa.

Hypothesis 3b: Employee resilience moderates the relationship between task interdependence and social well-being among remote workers in South Africa.

Hypothesis 3c: Employee resilience moderates the relationship between professional isolation and social well-being among remote workers in South Africa.

Hypothesis 3d: Employee resilience moderates the relationship between family- work conflict and social well-being among remote workers in South Africa.

The following chapter discusses the methods employed in this study.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

This chapter addresses the research design, sampling procedure, participants, measures, data collection procedures, data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

The nature of the research question explored the relationship between job demands and social wellbeing with employee resilience as moderating variable. Therefore, a cross-sectional, correlational research design was the most suitable for this study. A cross-sectional study takes place over a single point in time, which in this case was over one year (Walker, 2005). Even though this design cannot determine a cause and effect, it determines relationships between variables (Walker, 2005). Moreover, this design is unable to establish what variables have the most influence (Walker, 2005). However, the results are easy to classify in terms of direction and strength, can be easily generalised, is cost effective, can be easily developed and can be used to prove or disapprove assumptions (Walker, 2005). The exploration of the variables is studied without manipulating the independent variable (IV) (for example, SWB) or randomly assigning participants to different conditions. Therefore, in using a correlation design, a quantitative approach was adopted, which allows for statistical analyses and unbiased interpretations to be established (Walker, 2005). As this study adopted a quantitative approach, a positivism paradigm was used as the researcher's positioning in the study. A positivist paradigm states that the world is objective and uses empirical observations of individual behaviour to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic relationships to predict patterns of human activity (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020). A quantitative method of data collection was preferred to allow the researcher to analyse the relationships in an objective manner (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020). Additionally, quantitative data was best suited for the study as it is allowed the researcher to survey a large sample of participants in a short time (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

3.2 Sampling Procedure

The population included remote and hybrid working employees in South Africa. Remote workers consisted of employees who work from home full-time, whereas hybrid workers consisted of employees who occasionally work from home as well as at the office. Three non-probability sampling methods were employed in this study. This included purposive, convenience and snowball sampling. The study employed purposive sampling, where the researcher relied on their own judgement when choosing participants of the population based on particular characteristics (Aguinis et al., 2019). This sampling technique was used as the research

required remote and hybrid workers, specifically. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where samples are selected from the population that are conveniently available to the researcher (Aguinis et al., 2019). Due to time constraints and the restrictions imposed by the COVID-19 pandemic, this approach was appropriate as it allowed the researcher to access remote and hybrid working employees who were easily accessible and available. The questionnaire was shared on social media platforms such as LinkedIn, WhatsApp, and Instagram. The study also used a snowball sampling approach, where participants were asked to recommend and pass on the questionnaire to other remote and hybrid working employees. A snowball sampling approach is a recruitment technique in which the participants of the study are asked to assist the researcher in recommending other potential participants (Aguinis et al., 2019). This approach, in conjunction with a convenience and snowballing sampling approach, resulted in the recruitment of a fairly large population.

3.3 Participants

A priori power analysis was conducted to determine the sample size required. This is a method used on G*Power to determine the smallest sample size possible to establish the effect of a test at the desired level of significance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In order to detect the sample size required for a Pearson's correlation coefficient of $r = .3$ with 80% power ($\alpha = .05$, two-tailed), G*Power suggested that the study would need 84 participants. Additionally, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state that adequate sample size for a regression analysis can be determined by using the formula $N > 50 + 8(m)$, where m is the number of IVs. The number of IVs in the present study was four (that is, WLP, TID, PI and FWC). Thus, the required sample size for the regression model is 82 participants. A total of 196 participants responded to the questionnaire, which indicates that the sample size was adequate. Twenty-three participants were removed as they failed to complete a minimum of at least one of the scales included in the questionnaire. Therefore, the final sample consisted of 173 participants. For the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Hu et al. (1992) revealed that samples with $N > 500$ perform well. However, there is evidence that samples larger than 100 cases would be adequate to perform a satisfactory CFA (Hu et al., 1992). In order to be eligible to participate in this study, participants had to be South African employees that were currently working in remote or hybrid working conditions. In addition, participants had to be full-time employees in any career discipline.

Although this study did not focus on a specific population, demographic questions such as age, race, gender, marital status, living conditions, parent or guardian to a child or children under the age of 18, working conditions, and whether they started their current job during COVID-19 were asked to improve the replicability and future recommendations of this study (Le Roux & Parry, 2018).

The frequency of the demographic variables of the participants is presented in Table 1 below. It was interesting to note that females made up 64% ($N=111$) of the sample in the study, while males only made up 35% ($N=61$) of the sample. Moreover, 51% ($N=89$) of the participants worked remotely, whereas 48% ($N= 83$) worked in hybrid conditions. Of the sample that completed the questionnaire, 65% ($N= 113$) did not have children under the age of 18, whereas 35% ($N= 60$) had children under the age of 18. Most interestingly, more than half of the sample (78%, $N= 134$) were living with family while 12% ($N= 20$) were living with individuals they are not related to, and 11% ($N= 19$) were living alone. Lastly, the majority of the sample started their current job before the COVID-19 pandemic (59%, $N= 102$), while 41% ($N= 71$) started during COVID-19.

Table 1

Frequency of the Demographic Variables of the Participants

Demographic	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Total
Age	20-29	63	36	173
	30-39	58	34	
	40-49	25	15	
	50-59	21	12	
	60+	6	4	
Race	Black	25	15	173
	Coloured	62	36	
	White	45	26	
	Indian	27	16	

	Asian	2	1	
	Mixed race	5	3	
	Prefer not to say	7	4	
Gender	Male	61	35	173
	Female	111	64	
	Non-binary	0	0	
	Prefer not to say	1	.6	
Marital status	Single	83	48	173
	Married	80	46	
	Divorced	5	3	
	Widowed	0	0	
	Prefer not to say	5	3	
Living conditions	Alone	19	11	173
	With family	134	78	
	With other individuals	20	12	
Parent/guardian of child or children under the age of 18	Yes	60	35	173
	No	113	65	
Working conditions	Remote	89	51	172
	Hybrid	83	48	
Started current job during COVID-19	Yes	71	41	173
	No	102	59	

3.4 Measures

Primary data was collected electronically, which consisted of job demands, social well-being and employee resilience instruments described below. The questionnaire also included ethical information or informed consent form (see Appendix A) and demographical information (see Appendix B).

3.4.1 Social Well-Being

To measure SWB, the study used Pradhan and Hati's (2019) employee wellbeing scale. The original scale measures four dimensions of well-being which were psychological wellbeing, social wellbeing, workplace wellbeing, and subjective wellbeing. For the purposes of this study, only the SWB subscale was used. This scale uses a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. This scale focuses specifically on SWB in the workplace. It consists of items related to social acceptance, social actualisation, social contribution and social integration. This factor consists of 10 items. For example, '*I love to spend time with my teammates*' (see Appendix C for all items). The scale reflects a high SWB, therefore, a higher score corresponds with a higher level of SWB, and a lower score corresponds with lower levels of SWB. The scale reported a good internal consistency as the Cronbach's alpha coefficient has been found to be .72 in previous research studies (Pradhan & Hati, 2019). This scale has been used among various employees, including HRM practitioners, academics and employees in the service industry (Pradhan & Hati, 2019).

3.4.2 Job Demands

To measure job demands, this study utilised the scales used in Jamal et al.'s (2021) study. The present study explored the impact of job demands on social well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic. Jamal et al. (2021) argued that four dimensions of job demands are important to explore among remote working employees. These dimensions include workload pressure, task interdependence, professional isolation and family-to-work conflict. The scale uses a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree.

3.4.2.1 Workload Pressure. WLP was measured using Amabile et al.'s (1996) scale. It is generally defined as an increased number of tasks to be completed such that it creates pressure on employees (Amabile et al., 1996). The scale consists of 3 items- for example, '*I have sufficient time to do my project(s)*' (see Appendix D for all items). It is important to note that the items in this measure were reverse coded for the conduction of the analyses. The scale reflects low levels of pressure regarding workload; therefore, a higher score corresponds with lower levels of WLP, and a lower score corresponds with higher WLP. The internal consistency was reported as .77 (Jamal et al., 2021). This scale was deemed appropriate for this study as

researchers have argued that employees that work remotely experience higher levels of WLP (Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Jamal et al., 2021; Kelliher & Anderson et al., 2015).

3.4.2.2 Task Interdependence. TID was measured using the scale developed by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006). This dimension is generally defined as the degree to which a job requires tasks to be done by multiple co-workers to be completed (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). The scale consists of 3 items- for example, *'My job depends on the work of many different people for its completion'* (see Appendix E for all items). The scale reflects a high level of TID. Therefore, a higher score corresponds with higher levels of TID, and a lower score corresponds with lower levels of TID. The internal consistency of this scale has been reported as .78 (Jamal et al., 2021). This scale was appropriate for this study as researchers have argued that it is often difficult to perform interdependent tasks while working remotely (Biron & van Veldhoven, 2016; Kaplan et al., 2018). Therefore, TID can be considered as a job demand of remote workers.

3.4.2.3 Professional Isolation. PI was measured using the scale developed by Golden et al. (2008). The dimension is defined as an individual's perception that one is distanced from colleagues, stemming from lesser chances to interact and form interpersonal relationships with them while working remotely (Golden et al., 2008). The scale consists of 4 items- for example, *'I am missing face-to-face contact with coworkers'* (see Appendix F for all items). The scale reflects a high level of PI. Therefore, a higher score corresponds with higher levels of PI, and a lower score corresponds with lower levels of PI. The internal consistency of the scale has been estimated at .85 (Jamal et al., 2021). Thereby demonstrating acceptable internal consistency. This scale was appropriate for this study as remote workers have all experienced isolation due to COVID-19 lockdown (Jamal et al., 2021).

3.4.2.4 Family-to-Work Conflict. FWC was measured using the scale developed by Netemeyer et al. (1996). The dimension is defined as the interference of family responsibilities and roles in work responsibilities often experienced by remote workers due to the concurrent demands emanating from family and work spheres (Moore, 2006; Netemeyer et al., 1996). The scale consists of 4 items- for example, *'The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities'* (see Appendix G for all items). The scale reflects a high level of

FWC. Therefore, a higher score corresponds with higher levels of FWC, and a lower score corresponds with lower levels of FWC. The internal consistency of the scale has been reported as .87 (Jamal et al., 2021). Therefore, it is deemed as an acceptable internal consistency.

3.4.3 Employee resilience

To measure employee resilience, this study utilised Naswall et al.'s (2015) Employee Resilience Scale. Employee resilience is generally defined as employee capability, facilitated and supported by the organisation, to utilise resources to continually adapt and flourish at work, even if or when faced with challenging circumstances (Naswall et al., 2015). The scale uses a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1= Never to 7= Almost always. The scale consists of 9 items- for example, *'I effectively collaborate with others to handle unexpected challenges at work'* (see Appendix H for all items). The scale reflects a high level of employee resilience. Therefore, higher scores correspond with a high level of employee resilience, and lower scores correspond with a low level of employee resilience. The internal consistency is estimated at .91 (Naswall et al., 2015). Naswall et al. (2015) argue that the scale can be used to examine links between employee resilience and other constructs such as job demands and SWB. Tonkin et al. (2018) used this employee resilience scale among government departments and tertiary educators and stated that it enabled them to identify areas contributing to the development of employee resilience.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

Once permission was granted from the University of Cape Town's Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee (EiRC) (see Appendix I for the ethical approval letter), the researcher created an online questionnaire using an application called Qualtrics. Qualtrics is a reliable and secure web-based software that allows individuals to effectively create surveys and generate reports. Before the data collection proceeded, a pilot study was conducted where 10 participants were asked to identify any issues and errors with the questionnaire. The participants provided constructive feedback on the interpretation of the questionnaire in the pilot study, of which all were included in the data. Once the pilot study was completed, the data collection procedure began. The questionnaire was distributed electronically. The link to the questionnaire was posted on social media platforms such as LinkedIn, WhatsApp, and Instagram, as this is

where it was the easiest to access remote and hybrid workers. Participants were asked to kindly forward the link of the questionnaire to other possible participants that they know of who were applicable for this study. Once participants accessed the link, the aim, benefits and ethical adherence was conveyed in a short message. The participants were then given the option to provide informed consent. If consent was not provided, the questionnaire ended. The responses were automatically recorded on Qualtrics. The data collection process took two months to complete.

3.6 Data Analysis

Prior to conducting the analyses, the data was cleaned. This process consisted of removing the responses of participants that completed less than one measure in the online questionnaire. From this process, 23 responses were removed as they were incomplete. Once the data was cleaned, it was exported from Qualtrics to Microsoft Excel. This arranged the data accordingly so that it could be analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) version 26. Preceding the conduction of the analyses, there were assumptions that had to be met. Field (2018) argues that if one or more of the assumptions are violated, there are higher chances of making an error and reaching inaccurate conclusions. These assumptions include having an adequate sample size, appropriate measurement scales (i.e., interval or ratio scales), the assumption of additivity and linearity, an assessment of extreme outliers, independence of observations, the assumption of homoscedasticity and multicollinearity (Field, 2018). Section 4.3. discusses these assumptions in more detail.

The analyses used descriptive statistics to quantify and summarise the results obtained. Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability of the instruments. Cronbach's alpha measures how closely related a set of items are as a group (Cronbach, 1951). Furthermore, a CFA was used to determine the validity of the instruments. A CFA was conducted to test whether data perfectly fit the hypothesised theoretical models (Hair et al., 2010). It describes how measured variables reflect constructs in a theoretical model logically and methodically (Hair et al., 2010). In other words, it provides a set of relationships that imply how measurable variables represent a latent construct that cannot be explicitly assessed (Hair et al., 2010). This analysis can be distinguished from the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), which simply

identifies the relationships among scale items in order to identify underlying factors (Hair et al., 2010).

The CFA is most appropriate for this study as it allowed the researcher to validate the measures and produce the most applicable model suitable for the study sample. Additionally, Pearson's correlation was used to determine the relationship between job demands and SWB. A correlation analysis was appropriate to use as this study aimed to assess the strength and direction of the linear relationship between job demands and SWB and between employee resilience and SWB (Walker, 2005). To assess the best job demand predictors of SWB, a multiple regression analysis was employed. Furthermore, a series of moderation analyses were conducted, which involved the use of Hayes Process Macro (2013) extension in SPSS to quantify the effect of the moderating variable (Dawson, 2013). Moderation infers an interaction effect in which the introduction of a moderating variable will alter the magnitude or direction of a relationship between variables (Dawson, 2013). In this study, the moderating variable is employee resilience, as the study proposed that resilience can be a significant personal resource that could buffer the adverse effects of job demands on SWB.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

To ensure an ethical research process, the researcher implemented the guidelines for ethics given by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee (EiRC). The research process only began once ethical approval was obtained from the Commerce Faculty EiRC. Participation was voluntary, and participants could withdraw from the study at any time. This information was detailed on the first page of the online questionnaire, which also included a summary of the study's purpose and a consent form. Participants were also informed that no significant risks or benefits come with their participation. In addition, the researcher's and supervisor's contact information was given in case of participant inquiries. Participants were informed that their information was kept private, with only trends being published and IP addresses being deleted from databases to ensure the anonymity of participants. Furthermore, to ensure confidentiality, the raw data was stored on the researcher's personal computer, to which they only had access and backed up by their password-protected OneDrive account for safekeeping.

The following chapter presents the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Chapter four presents the findings of the study. Firstly, the psychometric properties of the instruments are presented. A CFA and Cronbach's alpha coefficient was employed to investigate the reliability and validity of the measures. Thereafter, the descriptive statistics of the findings are outlined, followed by the correlation analyses results. Multiple regression analysis is presented next to examine the best job demand predictor of SWB. Lastly, the findings of the moderation analysis using Hayes Process Macro is presented to determine the potential moderating role of resilience on the relationship between each dimension of job demands and SWB.

4.1 Psychometric Properties of the Measures

Prior to conducting the statistical analyses to determine the study's hypotheses, the psychometric properties (that is, validity and reliability) of the scales were examined. The CFA and the internal consistency of each scale was assessed using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α). The findings are presented below.

For the CFA, the following assumptions need to be met; normality of data and sufficient sample size (Hair et al., 2010). The normality of data was assessed with the use of Normal Q-Q Plots. As previously mentioned, Hu et al. (1992) revealed that samples with $N > 500$ perform well, however, there is research evidence indicating that samples larger than 100 cases would be adequate to perform a satisfactory CFA. Therefore, in the present study, the sample size is sufficient enough to conduct a CFA ($N = 173$). The models were evaluated using the following fit measures: The Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (Hair et al., 2014). Although chi-square statistics is one of the goodness of fit criteria, it was not utilised in this study since it is heavily influenced by sample size (Hair et al., 2014). Values greater than .90 for the TLI and CFI indicate a good fit (Hair et al., 2014). An RMSEA value of less than .05 indicates a good model fit, while values between .05 and .08 indicate a moderate fit, and values more than .10 indicate a weak model fit (Hair et al., 2014; Kline, 2014).

To interpret Cronbach's alpha, Nunnally's (1978) guideline was used where $\alpha < .50$ = unacceptable internal consistency, $.50 > \alpha > .60$ = questionable internal consistency, $.60 > \alpha > .70$ = acceptable internal consistency, $.70 > \alpha > .80$ = good internal consistency, and $\alpha > .90$ = excellent internal consistency. In addition, corrected item-total correlation analyses were conducted to determine total correlations greater than .30 as recommended by Field (2018). The Cronbach's alpha values exceeded the level of acceptance and displayed sufficient corrected item-total correlations of the SWB, WLP, TID, PI, FWC and employee resilience scales (see Table 2).

Table 2

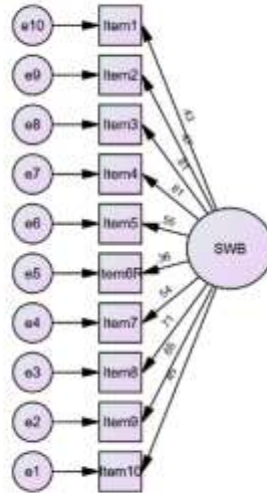
Results of the Reliability Analyses

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	<i>n</i>	Corrected Item-Total Correlations	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Social well-being	.83	173	.40 < <i>r</i> < .73	.80 < <i>r</i> < .83
Job demands				
Workload pressure	.85	164	.60 < <i>r</i> < .82	.68 < <i>r</i> < .88
Task interdependence	.76	164	.47 < <i>r</i> < .65	.59 < <i>r</i> < .79
Professional isolation	.80	163	.47 < <i>r</i> < .68	.70 < <i>r</i> < .81
Family-to-work conflict	.84	162	.53 < <i>r</i> < .75	.76 < <i>r</i> < .86
Employee resilience (original, 9-items)	.80	164	.33 < <i>r</i> < .54	.78 < <i>r</i> < .79
Employee resilience (7-items)	.78	164	.43 < <i>r</i> < .58	.74 < <i>r</i> < .77

4.1.1 Psychometric Properties of the Social Well-being Scale. To examine the validity of the SWB scale, a CFA was conducted using AMOS. The assumption of normality has been met using a Q-Q plot derived from SPSS (see Appendix J). The data was imported into AMOS and specified as continuous. The hypothesised model is presented in Figure 2. In this model, one factor is hypothesised, which is a SWB factor (with 10 items). Therefore, it was assumed that the covariance (or correlation) among items is due to a single common factor.

Figure 2

Hypothesised Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of the Social Well-Being Scale



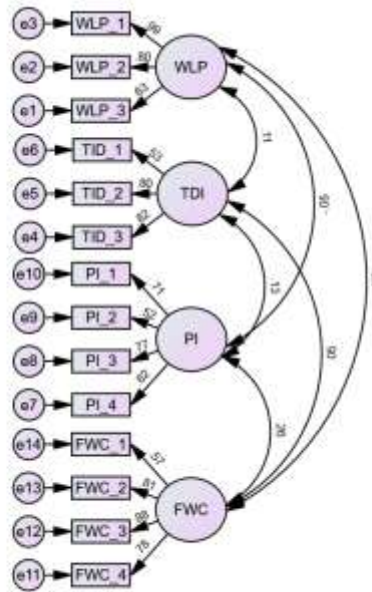
The one-factor model was shown to be not perfect but adequate, as per the applied goodness of fit indices; $\chi^2 (35) = 98.4$, $p < .00$, CFI = .88, TLI = .85 and RMSEA = .10. The factor loadings met the minimum level as specified by Hair et al. (2014) and ranged from .36 to .81 and were all significant at $p < .001$. From Table 2, it is apparent that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this scale was $\alpha = .83$, the mean inter-item correlation being $r = .57$, with the values ranging from .40 to .73

4.1.2 Psychometric Properties for Job Demands Measures. A four-factor model was specified to test the discriminant and convergent validity of the job demands measures. Discriminant validity provides evidence that measures that are not meant to be related are, in fact, unrelated (Field, 2018). Whereas convergent validity takes measures that are supposed to be measuring the same construct and shows that they are related (Field, 2018). Prior to conducting the CFA, the assumption of normality was determined and met (see Appendix K for Q-Q plots of WLP, TI, PI and FWC). The four-factor model was shown to be a perfect fit as per the applied goodness of fit indices; $\chi^2 (71) = 120.65$, $p < .00$, CFI = .95, TLI = .92 and RMSEA = .06. The factor loadings met the minimum level as specified by Hair et al. (2014) and ranged from .63 to .99 for WLP, .53 to .82 for TID, .52 to .82 for PI and .57 to .88 for FWC and were all significant

at $p < .001$. The model showed that these factors are independent, with weak correlations observed between WLP and FWC and between PI and FWC.

Figure 3

Hypothesised Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of the Job Demands Scales



The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the workload pressure scale was $\alpha = .85$, the mean inter-item correlation being $r = .71$, with the values ranging from .60 to .82. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the task interdependence scale was $\alpha = .76$, the mean inter-item correlation being $r = .56$, with the values ranging from .47 to .65. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the professional isolation scale was $\alpha = .80$, the mean inter-item correlation being $r = .58$, with the values ranging from .47 to .68. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the FWC conflict scale was $\alpha = .84$, the mean inter-item correlation being $r = .66$, with the values ranging from .53 to .75.

4.1.3 Psychometric Properties for Employee Resilience Scale. A one-factor model was specified. Prior to conducting the CFA, the assumption of normality was determined and met (see appendix L). The original employee resilience scale with 9 items, did not demonstrate a good fit to the data with $\chi^2 (27) = 155.36$, $p < .00$, CFI = .69, TLI = .45 and RMSEA = .17. The model was modified, where items with low factor loadings were removed (that is, Item 7 and item 8). Items with low factor loadings are deemed ineffectual to measure the particular construct (Field, 2018). Keeping ineffectual items in a model affects the fitness index of the model (Field, 2018). The model with 7-items was re-estimated and showed a fairly good fit to the data, even though it was not perfect as per the goodness of fit indices $\chi^2 (14) = 36.53$, $p < .00$, CFI = .91 TLI = .82 and RMSEA = .09. This 7-item employee resilience scale was used in subsequent analyses. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the 7-item resilience scale was $\alpha = .78$, the mean inter-item correlation being $r = .51$, with the values ranging from .43 to .58.

Figure 4

Hypothesised Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of the Employee Resilience Scale (all items)

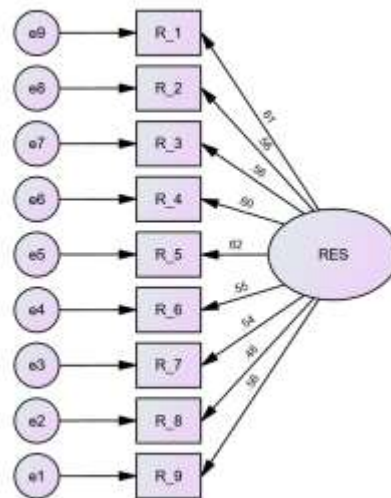
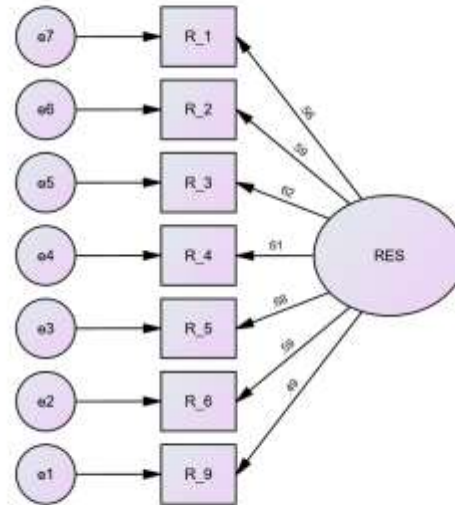


Figure 5

Hypothesised Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of the Employee Resilience Scale (Item 7 and 8 Removed)



4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 3 displays the descriptive data for each of the scales utilised in the study. The means of each item on the scales were used to generate total mean scores for each scale. The mean score of each measuring scale was compared to the scale's midpoint. All of the scales utilised (SWB, WLP, TID, PI, FWC, and employee resilience) had a midpoint score of 3. As a result, a mean score larger than 3 indicated higher levels of the variable of interest, while a mean score less than 3 showed lower levels of the variable of interest. Skewness (that is, distribution symmetry) and kurtosis (that is, the height of the distribution) measurements were utilised to analyse the data distributions (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Values above or below zero indicate a deviation from normality (Field, 2018).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for the Social Well-Being, Workload Pressure, Task Interdependence, Professional Isolation, Family-to-Work Conflict and Employee Resilience Scales

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skewness		Kurtosis	
						Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
Social well-being	173	3.86	.69	2	5	-.66	.19	.16	.37
Job demands									
Workload pressure	165	3.03	1.15	1	5	.12	.19	-.91	.38
Task interdependence	164	3.55	.98	1	5	-.40	.19	-.39	.38
Professional isolation	164	2.90	.98	1	5	-.19	.19	-.52	.38
Family-to-work conflict	164	2.22	.92	1	5	.57	.19	-.21	.38
Employee resilience	165	4.14	.55	2	5	-.57	.19	2.90	.38

Notes. *N* = number of participants; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; Min = minimum; Max = maximum; SE = standard error of mean.

From Table 3 presented above, it is apparent that the mean score for SWB is above 3. This indicates that remote workers in South African experience relatively high levels of SWB ($M = 3.86$; $SD = .69$). It is also apparent that participants in this study experienced above-average to high level of WLP ($M = 3.03$; $SD = 1.15$) and TID ($M = 3.55$; $SD = .98$). Nevertheless, the levels of PI and FWC were relatively low. Results showed that study participants experience a low level of PI ($M = 2.90$; $SD = .98$) and FWC ($M = 2.22$; $SD = .92$) Most interestingly, participants demonstrated high levels of employee resilience ($M = 4.14$; $SD = .55$). With regards to skewness and kurtosis, Field (2018) states that these are the two main ways in which distributions can deviate from a normal distribution. In terms of normality, the distribution scores for SWB (-.66), TID (-.40), PI (-.19), and ER (-.57) are slightly negatively skewed, indicating that there were frequent high scores in the distribution (Field, 2018). FWC and WLP, on the other hand, was slightly positively skewed, which indicates that there were frequent low scores in the distribution (Field, 2018). In terms of kurtosis, the distribution deviates slightly from the norm as it is platykurtic (fewer values in the tails and fewer values close to the mean) for the WLP (-.91), TID

(-.39), PI (-.52) and FWC (-.21) scales. However, in the SWB (.16) and ER (2.90) scales the distribution is leptokurtic (more values in the distribution tails and more values close to the mean) in shape as the kurtosis statistics were greater than zero (Field, 2018).

4.3 Assumption Testing

This study explored the relationship between social well-being and job demands among remote workers in South Africa with the moderating role of employee resilience. To test the hypotheses for this study, a Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted in order to determine the relationship between social well-being and job demands. Thereafter, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to further investigate whether the IVs of job demands (that is, WLP, TID, PI and FWC) predicts SWB. Lastly, a series of moderation analyses using Hayes Process Macro was conducted to determine whether resilience moderates the relationship between job demands and SWB. However, prior to conducting the analyses, the following assumptions had to be met to determine whether hypotheses the correlation and multiple regression analyses could be tested:

For both a correlation and multiple regression analysis, the following assumptions had to be met. Outliers were determined using boxplots. From the SWB dataset, four outliers were identified. From the TI dataset, three outliers were identified. From the employee resilience dataset, two outliers were identified. The rest of the datasets had no outliers. To address the presence of outliers, best practice guidelines by Aguinis et al. (2013) were followed, with the potential presence of extreme outliers tested by examining the z-scores. The results suggested that no cases represented extreme outliers (cases with a z-score > 3.29 , $p < .001$). Therefore, no outliers were removed. Field (2018) states that study variables should be measured on the interval or ratio scales. Even though all of the measures in this study utilise a Likert scale (that is, categorical data), Johnson and Creech (1983) argue that a Likert scale with 5 or more categories can be used as continuous without any harm to the analysis. Therefore, the assumption has been met.

To meet the assumption of additivity and linearity, the relationship between the outcome variable and predictor variable needs to be linear using a matrix scatterplot (Field, 2018). This means that the data points need to be following a straight line. In this case, the relationship

between the outcome variable of SWB and the predictor variables of job demands (WLP, TID, PI and FWC) was linear. This assumption has been met (see Appendix M for matrix scatter plot). According to Field (2018), the independent observation's assumption means that the errors in the regression models should not be related to each other. This is tested using the Durbin-Watson statistic. The statistic ranges between 0 and 4 such that values less than 1 and greater than 3 indicates a serial correlation between observations, and values close to 2 indicates no correlation between the errors. This assumption was met as the regression model's Durbin-Watson statistic was 1.9 (see Appendix N).

According to Field (2018), the homoscedasticity assumption states that the errors should have equal variance across each value of job demands. Homoscedasticity defines a scenario in which the error term (i.e., 'noise') or random disorder in the relationship between the IVs and the DV is the same across all values of the IVs (Field, 2018). This was determined using scatterplots where the data points must be evenly and randomly dispersed (Field, 2018). If there is a cone-shaped pattern, it means the data is heteroscedastic instead of being homoscedastic (Field, 2018). This assumption has been met for the regression analyses (see Appendix O).

Penultimately, Field (2018) argues that the assumption of normality is required to make valid inferences from the regression models. Thus, the residuals (errors) should follow a normal distribution. The residuals are the differences between the observed value of SWB and of job demands. This assumption was determined by examining the distribution on a histogram. In addition, P-P plots were used in which the data points need to follow the linear line. This assumption has been met (see Appendix P). Lastly, Field (2018) states that an assumption of multicollinearity should be assessed for a multiple regression analysis. Multicollinearity refers to when your predictor variables (IVs) are highly correlated with each other (Field, 2018). This is an issue, as the regression model will not be able to accurately associate variance in the outcome variable with the correct predictor variable, leading to incorrect inferences. This assumption can be evaluated using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) value in which values greater than 10 indicates that there is multicollinearity (Field, 2018). VIF values indicate the collinearity of the IVs with the other variables in the model (Field, 2018). Additionally, it can be evaluated using the tolerance values which should be close to 1 (Field, 2018). The tolerance values ranged from

.88 to .98, and the VIF values ranged from 1.02 to 1.13; therefore, this assumption has been met (see Appendix Q).

4.4 Hypotheses Testing

4.4.1 The Relationship Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being

A Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted to explore the relationship between the variables of interest. The study interpreted the strength of the correlation coefficients using Cohen's (1988) recommendations. A correlation coefficient of .01 to .29 represents a weak relationship, .30 to .45 represents a moderate relationship, and .50 to 1.0 represents a strong relationship (Cohen, 1988). From Table 4, it is apparent that the findings of this study demonstrated a weak negative relationship between SWB and WLP ($r = -.27, p < .01$). Therefore, hypothesis 1a was supported. In addition, results demonstrated a weak, positive relationship between SWB and TID ($r = .18, p < .05$), which does not confirm hypothesis 1b. However, there was no relationship between SWB and PI ($r = -.02, p = .81$). Likewise, there was no relationship between FWC and SWB ($r = -.08, p = .33$). Therefore, hypotheses 1c and 1d were not supported.

Table 4

Pearson's Correlation Between Social Well-Being and Job Demands

	Workload pressure	Task interdependence	Professional isolation	Family-to-work conflict
Social well-being	-.27**	.18*	-.02	-.08

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

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

4.4.2 Best Predictors of Social Well-Being (Additional Findings)

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the best job demand predictors (WLP, TI, PI and FWC) of SWB. The purpose of this analysis was to establish total variance in SWB that was explained by WLP, TID, PI and FWC.

The multiple regression analysis findings of the study presented an R^2 value of .09 which means that WLP, TID, PI and FWC accounts for 9% of the variation in SWB. This means that 91% of the variation in SWB remains unaccounted for (Field, 2018). The findings showed that the overall model was significant, indicating that job demands (WLP, TI, PI and FWC) significantly predicts SWB $F(4, 163) = 4.07, p < .05$. However, results demonstrated that only WLP and TID made a statistically significant unique contribution to explaining SWB. Table 5 below shows that WLP ($\beta = -.24$) made a stronger contribution than TID ($\beta = .16$).

Table 5

Multiple Regression Analysis Indicating the Contribution of Each Predictor Variable

Predictor	B	SE(B)	95% CI	β	t	p
(Constant)	4	.29	[3.47, 4.55]		13.94	.00
Workload pressure	-.15	.05	[-. 24, -. 05]	-.24	-3.1	.00
Task interdependence	.11	.05	[.00, .22]	.16	2.03	.04
Professional isolation	-.01	.06	[-.12, 1.00]	-.02	-.22	.83
Family-to-work conflict	-.01	.06	[-.13, .11]	-.02	-.18	.85

Notes. $R^2 = .09$; B = unstandardised beta coefficient; SE(B) = standard error of the unstandardized beta coefficient; CI = confidence interval for the unstandardised beta coefficient; t = t-statistic; p = probability.

4.4.3 The Relationship Between Social Well-Being and Employee Resilience

Another Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted to explore the relationship between social well-being and employee resilience. The study interpreted the strength of the correlation coefficients using Cohen's (1988) recommendations as stated above. It was hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between SWB and employee resilience. The findings of this study confirmed this hypothesis (that is, hypothesis 2) as they revealed a positive relationship between these variables ($r = .42, p < .01$).

4.4.4 Employee Resilience as a Moderating Variable

A moderating variable is used to identify conditions under which a particular predictor is associated with an outcome (Dawson, 2013). A series of moderation analyses were performed to determine whether employee resilience moderated the relationship between job demands (WLP, TID, PI and FWC) and SWB. Employee resilience is a personal resource that may buffer the negative effect of job demands on SWB (Riley, 2012). It refers to an individual's ability to use challenging circumstances as a positive experience in which they learn how to adapt efficiently (Naswall et al., 2015). Therefore, it is being explored as a moderating variable as remote workers are experiencing various job demands that they have not dealt with prior to the pandemic (Jamal et al., 2021).

According to Field (2018), moderation is indicated by a significant interaction. It is important to note that bootstrapping samples (of 5000) was implemented in each moderation analysis. Bootstrapping is a resampling technique that is used to estimate statistics on a population by sampling a data set with replacement (Field, 2018). It is used to assess the accuracy of an estimate based on a sample of data from a larger population (Field, 2018). Bootstrapping is a simple method used to derive estimates of errors and confidence intervals for complex analysis (Karazsia et al., 2014). Additionally, it is a method used to control and check the stability of the results while avoiding the cost of repeating data collection to more participants (Karazsia et al., 2014). This analysis was conducted to determine to assess hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c and 3d.

Table 6

The Moderating Role of Resilience in the Relationship Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being

Job Demand Dimension	Variable	B	SE(B)	t	p
Workload pressure and employee resilience					
	Constant	2.06	1.03	2.00	.05
	Workload pressure	-.08	.33	-.24	.81

	Employee resilience	.54	.24	2.20	.03
	Workload pressure x employee resilience	-.01	.08	-.17	.87
Task interdependence and employee resilience					
	Constant	1.78	1.15	1.10	.27
	Task interdependence	-.00	.33	.26	.80
	Employee resilience	.44	.28	1.57	.12
	Task interdependence x employee resilience	.02	.08	.26	.80
Professional isolation and employee resilience					
	Constant	2.09	.99	2.11	.04
	Professional isolation	-.14	.34	-.42	.67
	Employee resilience	.44	.24	1.86	.07
	Professional isolation x employee resilience	.03	.08	.39	.70
Family-to-work conflict and employee resilience					
	Constant	1.00	.88	1.14	.26
	Family-to-work conflict	.35	.38	.91	.36
	Employee resilience	.72	.21	3.42	.00
	Family-to-work conflict x employee resilience	-.09	.09	-1.02	.31

Notes. Dependent variable = social well-being; B = unstandardised beta coefficient; SE(B) = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient; t = t-statistic; p = probability.

From Table 6 it is apparent that the interaction effect between job demands (i.e., WLP, TID, PI and FWC) was not significant. Thus, it was found that employee resilience did not moderate the relationship between each job demand and SWB that is, WLP ($b = -.01$, CI [-.16, .14], $t = -.17$, $p = .87$); TID ($b = .02$, CI [-.14, .18], $t = .26$, $p = .80$); PI ($b = .03$, CI [-.13, .19], $t =$

.39, $p = .70$) and FWC ($b = -.09$, CI $[-.27, .09]$, $t = -1.02$, $p = .31$). Consequently, hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c and 3d were not supported.

The following chapter discusses the study findings with reference to appropriate literature.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This study aimed to explore the relationship between job demands and SWB among remote workers in South Africa, with employee resilience as a moderator. This chapter presents the discussion of the findings regarding the hypotheses formulated. This is followed by the practical implications, limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

5.1 Job Demands and Social Well-Being

Hypothesis 1 proposed that there would be a negative relationship between job demands (that is, WLP, TID, PI, and FWC) and SWB among remote workers in South Africa. Each job demand was explored in relation to social well-being.

5.1.1 Workload Pressure and Social Well-Being

Hypothesis 1a proposed that there would be a negative relationship between WLP and SWB. The results indicate that this hypothesis is supported, as the correlation analysis shows that there is a weak negative relationship between these two variables. These findings were also emphasised in the multiple regression analysis, where WLP was identified as the negative predictor of SWB. This shows that as WLP increases, there appears to be a marginal decrease in SWB. This finding corroborates existing literature. Research demonstrates that employees work longer and harder when working remotely (Duxbury & Halinski, 2014). In the context of COVID-19, this may be due to remote workers having to adapt to new working environments and methods of working (Canibano et al., 2020). Employees were required to rapidly learn how to use applications and platforms to complete tasks as well as learn how to communicate effectively with their co-workers using technology (Canibano et al., 2020). In addition, remote workers experience higher WLP when they are expected to balance their professional roles with their personal responsibilities, as the boundaries between the two domains become blurred (Jamal et al., 2021; Trougakos et al., 2020). Some entire families coexist in the same household during working hours, and the need to balance work-family or personal life is more pressing than

ever (Troughakos et al., 2020). Thus, WLP is experienced when employees feel as though there is more work to be done than they have time for (Amabile et al., 1996). Consequently, these new adjustments may create a sense of pressure, leading to a decrease in SWB.

The COVID-19 pandemic has been a circumstance with which most employees have not been faced. Therefore, this created a job demand in which employees had to present their abilities in a new environment, increasing their workload (Jamal et al., 2021). As a result of this, employees' SWB has been affected as they found it challenging to develop or continue building interpersonal relationships with their co-workers (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). In addition, they had no time to provide support to their co-workers as they had stressors to deal with (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). This may have resulted in remote workers experiencing a disconnection between themselves and their co-workers. The WLP experienced may have minimised the time available to maintain good SWB. A substantial number of studies reveal how WLP has affected well-being during COVID-19, particularly among employees with other roles to fulfil (Collins et al., 2020; Craig & Churchill, 2020; Ogurlu et al., 2020). For instance, Collins et al. (2020) found that females experience more WLP compared to males during COVID-19. Similarly, Craig and Churchill (2020) found that employees who are parents experience an increase in WLP during the pandemic compared to those who are not parents.

Moreover, the relationship observed in this study also confirms the assertions of the JD-R Theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This theory posits that when employees experience high job demands such as WLP, their well-being decreases, as has been observed in this study (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

5.1.2 Task Interdependence and Social Well-being

Hypothesis 1b proposed that there would be a negative relationship between TID and SWB. Unexpectedly, findings demonstrated a weak positive relationship between these variables, and thus the hypothesis was not supported. In the multiple regression analysis, TID was also shown to be the best predictor of SWB. These findings indicate that as TID increases, a slight increase in SWB becomes apparent. This is an interesting finding as most pre-COVID-19 literature contradicts the findings of this study. Prior research that was conducted using remote workers demonstrated that high TID decreased SWB (Biron & van Veldhoven, 2016; Kaplan et

al., 2018; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). These studies concluded that doing highly interdependent tasks while working remotely was stressful, as such tasks entailed regular communication via technological platforms, which could be tiring (Biron & van Veldhoven, 2016; Kaplan et al., 2018). Similarly, Jamal et al. (2021) argued that technological interactions resulted in employees becoming unenthusiastic about building interpersonal relationships with their co-workers, leading to a decrease in SWB.

Nevertheless, this unexpected weak, positive relationship can be explained. It is a well-known fact that remote workers are isolated from their co-workers, which may result in an increase in loneliness (Trougakos et al., 2020). Thus, it is possible that TID increases SWB as workers are given an opportunity to socialise and connect with their co-workers via online platforms. Arguably, this may provide remote workers with social support and the ability to build and maintain interpersonal relationships with their managers and co-workers. Furthermore, it is possible that remote workers have successfully adapted to the demands of TID. This notion is supported by a study conducted by Klonek et al. (2021) during the COVID-19 pandemic. This study compared the difference in TID at the beginning of lockdown and in the post-transition phase of lockdown and found that remote workers showed better levels of virtual team interdependence during the post-transition phase (Klonek et al., 2021). As the present study's data collection took place in the post-transition phase in South Africa (June 2021 to August 2021), the findings of this study are substantiated by Klonek et al.'s (2021). Thus, it is likely that employees' SWB had slightly increased at the post-transition phase, making them feel connected to their co-workers.

Another possible explanation for the positive relationship observed in the present study may be the included study participants' circumstances. This study comprises remote workers and a portion of participants who had already transitioned from remote working to hybrid working conditions. This means that several employees were working in conditions where they were occasionally working on a task with their co-workers physically. Research has shown that when TID occurs physically, employees experience an increase in SWB as they are not emotionally exhausted from interacting online (that is, the job demand has lessened) (Kirkman et al., 2004).

5.1.3 Professional Isolation and Social Well-being

Hypothesis 1c proposed that there would be a negative relationship between PI and SWB. This hypothesis was not supported as the correlation presented insignificant results. Therefore, there is no relationship between PI and SWB. The present study expected an increase in the sudden demand of isolation from co-workers, leading to a significant decrease in SWB as remote workers no longer interact or connect with their co-workers physically. This argument was derived from research stating that isolation was the most significant drawback of remote work as it limited opportunities for face-to-face interaction among employees (Morganson et al., 2010). Similarly, Golden et al. (2008) argued that isolation contributed to a loss of enthusiasm and rejection by co-workers, which negatively affects SWB. A study conducted by Mäkineniemi et al. (2021) explored loneliness and well-being during the COVID-19 pandemic, with the moderating roles of personal, social and organisational resources on perceived stress and exhaustion. This study emphasised the importance of resources to mitigate the unfavourable effects of isolation on stress and SWB (Mäkineniemi et al., 2021). This is in line with Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) JD-R Theory, which explains that valuable resources mitigate the detrimental effects of high job demands on well-being. Therefore, a possible explanation for this study's insignificant results, which were not necessarily accounted for, was other potential resources that assisted remote workers in the face of increasing demands of isolation.

Another possible explanation for the findings of this study is that a sizeable number of the participants had already transitioned to hybrid working conditions such that PI was no longer a demand experienced. This indicates that the participants were not always isolated from their co-workers, as they were allowed to interact with them face-to-face when on-site. This explanation is supported by Diab-Bahman and Al-Enzi (2020), who explored the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on conventional work settings and found that the majority of employees enjoyed the flexible working conditions that a hybrid setting provided. Consequently, the employees' SWB was positively rather than negatively affected. In addition, Ramsay (2020) explored integrating working conditions and SWB through hybrid business models post-COVID-19 and found that despite employees occasionally being isolated from their co-workers, they preferred these working conditions compared to pre-COVID-19 working environments. This is possibly the reason employees do not necessarily feel disconnected from their co-workers and

still have an opportunity to build and maintain interpersonal relationships. From the findings of Ramsay (2020), it is apparent that the relationship between isolation and SWB needs to be explored, with psychological resources serving as moderating variables using different samples (that is, remote and hybrid working employees).

5.1.4 Family-to-Work Conflict and Social Well-Being

Hypothesis 1d proposed a negative relationship between FWC and SWB. This hypothesis was also not supported as the correlation produced insignificant results. This finding contradicted what was expected based on previous literature. FWC has been an aspect that has been extensively explored, particularly in terms of COVID-19 research (Beland et al., 2020; Trougakos et al., 2020). This is because blurring boundaries exist between family and work life during a pandemic (Jamal et al., 2021). Trougakos et al. (2020) found that although FWC was more of a demand for employees who were parents, employees that do not have children at this time, were not impervious to this demand. Childless employees' well-being has been negatively affected as there has been a distinct lack of support due to lockdown restrictions (Beland et al., 2020). Similarly, Galanti et al. (2021) explored working from home throughout the pandemic and its impact on productivity, engagement and stress. As expected, the results of this study showed that FWC negatively affected productivity and stress, which was detrimental to employee well-being (Galanti et al., 2021). This was further supported by Carnevale and Hatak (2020), who explored employee adjustment and well-being in the era of the COVID-19 pandemic. Their results indicated that remote workers felt disconnected from their co-workers and that FWC demands had drastically increased. Evidently, the findings of the present study oppose previous literature; however, there are many possible reasons for this.

At the time of the study, the lockdown restrictions in South Africa had lessened, allowing schools to transition back to face-to-face learning (South African Government, 2021). Additionally, the restrictions allowed individuals to socialise with precautions (South African Government, 2021). These were conditions that the study could not control for, which perhaps led to contradictory results. Perhaps if South Africa had remained under a 'hard' lockdown or was experiencing heightened lockdown restrictions at the time of data collection, the proposition would have been supported. Therefore, it could be that remote workers at the time of data

collection were not experiencing the difficulty of concurrent professional and personal demands, which did not negatively affect their SWB. While this possible explanation is unable to be confirmed in this study, it emphasises the importance of experiences of job demands and well-being during different contextual realities imposed by COVID-19 regulations.

5.2 Employee Resilience and Social Well-Being

Hypothesis 2 proposed that there would be a positive relationship between employee resilience and SWB among remote workers in South Africa. The results of the correlation analysis demonstrated a positive relationship between employee resilience and SWB, and thus the hypothesis is confirmed. The results indicate that as employee resilience increases, so does SWB.

Employee resilience is a resource that assists individuals with overcoming hardships (the COVID-19 pandemic in particular) to accomplish both organisational and personal goals (Seville et al., 2006). Research has extensively explored this resource in relation to well-being among employees prior to the pandemic (Cooper et al., 2014; Riley, 2012; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Despite this extensive research, it was important to explore employee resilience in relation to well-being in a pandemic context. Hartmann et al. (2020) explored employee resilience in the workplace in a multilevel review and synthesis and found that studies have emphasised the importance of employee resilience interventions when wanting to increase employees' well-being. Similarly, Paredes et al. (2021) explored the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on subjective mental well-being. Resilient employees are less susceptible to mental health problems caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. Evidently, the hypothesis is in line with previous literature. This is because employee resilience is considered to be a domain of psychological capital which assists individuals with maintaining and increasing their well-being when experiencing hardships (Seligman, 2007).

This significant positive relationship between employee resilience and SWB strongly supported the assertions of the COR theory proposed by Hobfoll (1989). The COR theory is based on the notion that individuals are driven to conserve existing resources and acquire new resources, which results in various well-being outcomes (Hobfoll, 1989). It is important to note that employee resilience is considered a personal resource in the present study. The results of this

hypothesis can be explained using principles one and three of the COR. Principle one states that when a person loses a resource, he or she is more deprived, and therefore the negative repercussions will exceed the positive results (Hobfoll et al., 2018). This lies in accordance with the present study, such that an employee who lacks resilience or does not apply resiliency is likely to experience a decrease in his or her SWB (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Likewise, principle three contends that when resource loss is severe, resource gains become more important (Hobfoll et al., 2018). The results of this hypothesis can be explained in such a manner that employee resilience is a crucial resource with respect to maintaining high SWB (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

Furthermore, this finding is also supported by a wide body of positive psychology literature (Seligman, 2007; Tonkin et al., 2018). Resilient individuals are able to use rapid adjustments in their lives as an opportunity to aid their inner motivation and drive to view difficulties as a learning curve (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011). Therefore, a possible explanation for this finding is that remote workers have dealt with and accepted the challenges that accompanied the COVID-19 pandemic. Resilient employees have the ability to continually adapt and flourish in all of their roles (Naswall et al., 2015). They are able to maintain high SWB despite the challenges experienced. In view of this, it can be argued that employee resilience-based interventions are relevant for organisations to implement to ensure that employee well-being is maintained.

5.3 Employee Resilience as a Moderator Between Job Demands and Social Well-Being

Hypothesis 3 proposed that employee resilience would moderate the relationship between job demands and SWB. A series of moderation analyses were carried out to explore whether employee resilience moderated the relationship between each job demand and SWB. Therefore, hypothesis 3a proposed that employee resilience moderated the relationship between WLP and SWB. Hypothesis 3b proposed that employee resilience moderates the relationship between TID and SWB. Hypothesis 3c proposed that employee resilience moderated the relationship between PI and SWB, and finally, hypothesis 3d proposed that employee resilience moderated the relationship between FWC and SWB. Moderating variables are intended to provide additional insight into the association between variables of interest by altering the relationship between the

independent and dependent variables by either strengthening or diminishing the relationship (Dawson, 2013).

Employee resilience was expected to moderate the relationship between job demands and SWB, such that the relationship between job demands and SWB would be weaker. Results of this study demonstrated that employee resilience does not moderate the relationship between any of the job demands and SWB as expected. This finding contradicts a vast body of research that has found that employee resilience has effectively assisted employees through stressful circumstances and change (Forbes & Fikretoglu, 2018; Ishak & Williams, 2018; Riley, 2012). For instance, Ceschi et al. (2017) researched how resources protected organisations from demanding work environments and found that employees who experienced high job demands often relied on employee resilience to cope in order to maintain their well-being. Furthermore, these findings do not support both Bakker and Demerouti (2007) JD-R theory and the COR theory. According to the JD-R Theory, when job demands are high, appropriate resources can assist in mitigating the negative states of well-being that high job demands causes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In the present study, it is apparent that resilience as a personal resource did not assist with mitigating the harmful effects of job demands. On the other hand, the COR theory argues that individuals invest in resources to guard against the loss of resources, to restore resources after the loss of resources, and to get resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). However, in the present study, employees do not seem to be driven towards gaining and retaining employee resilience to mitigate the effects of job demands to maintain SWB.

The lack of a moderating role of employee resilience can be explained by several factors. First, it could be due to the unique South African context. In Western countries, employee resilience has been identified as a vital factor in overcoming adversities (Seville et al., 2006). For instance, employee resilience moderated negative outcomes from stress during the COVID-19 pandemic in Norway, and it moderated the relationship between the psychological impact of COVID-19 and anxiety in Austria (Havnen et al., 2020; Traunmüller et al., 2021). Nevertheless, these findings may not be generalisable to the South African sample as the antecedents to individual differences in participants' perceived employee resilience and their relation to employee well-being may not have been the same as those in Western contexts. Although the feedback received during the pilot study did not present concerns for the scales used, the sample

may have experienced difficulty in responding to the questionnaire. Theron (2012) explored resilience in South African youth and argued that the operationalisation of employee resilience in South Africa was different compared to Western ideologies of the concept. Theron's (2012) findings emphasise the importance of resilience research to consider the role of social ecologies, measure employee resilience accurately according to these ecologies, engage in evidence-based practice, and account for how culture and context can affect employee resilience processes. Social ecologies can be understood as the setting and context in which the employee is actively involved (Theron, 2012). Therefore, there is a possibility that employee resilience could have been interpreted in a different manner compared to a Westernised understanding of it. As mentioned, the relationship hypothesised is yet to be explored in South Africa, and perhaps the present study alluded to the possibility that employee resilience does not moderate the relationship between job demands and SWB. Similarly, employees could have experienced SWB differently given the context of the COVID-19 pandemic compared to what was asked in the questionnaire. Employees could also have had other ways in which they demonstrated their ability to be resilient in the workplace. While this may be the first study exploring the proposed hypotheses, it emphasises the need for context-specific questionnaires to be developed.

5.4 Theoretical Contributions and Practical Implications

The findings of this study contribute to the growing body of literature surrounding remote work during the COVID-19 pandemic and how remote work affects well-being. This study's findings could be of value to organisations and policymakers. The results of this study suggest that WLP decreases SWB among remote workers, supporting the JD-R theory developed by Bakker and Demerouti (2007). This contributes to the knowledge of employee well-being declining when their job demands increase. However, the findings also suggest that TID is positively related to SWB. As this body of literature is fairly novel, it contributes to the importance of further exploration of methods that assist employees in maintaining increased SWB during COVID-19. Perhaps there is a need for TID to assist remote workers with their SWB as group work affords them the opportunity to socialise and maintain interpersonal relationships with their co-workers.

The current study expands on the literature on employee resilience and well-being as it has confirmed that employee resilience assists remote workers by increasing their SWB. This alludes to the importance of personal resources among employees and emphasises the need for organisations to consider employee resilience interventions, as resilience is considered a skill that can be honed (Cooper et al., 2004). Riley (2012) argues that employee resilience-building interventions enable employees to conquer adversities in such a manner that adversity creates an opportunity for growth and development. Additionally, employee resilience allows employees to balance work demands with personal demands, which in turn reduces the adverse consequences for their SWB (Riley, 2012). As a result, organisations will be able to maintain their performance, as resilient employees are highly driven to succeed and have a positive work ethic (Cooper et al., 2014).

Interestingly, the results of this study show that employee resilience does not moderate the relationship between job demands and SWB. This unexpected finding contradicts the JD-R theory by Bakker and Demerouti (2007), as employee resilience does not seem to weaken the relationship between job demands and SWB. The finding also contradicts the COR theory by Hobfoll (1989), as employees do not appear to aim to gain and retain resilience to increase their SWB. This may give an indication that in the COVID-19 context and/or perhaps the South African context at large, there are numerous factors that assist employees in developing their well-being that were not explored in this study. Youssef-Morgan and Luthans (2015) argue that other dimensions of psychological capital such as hope, optimism and self-efficacy can also assist in moderating the relationship between job demands and SWB.

The present study has discovered that perhaps job demands and SWB experiences vary according to whether the country is in the initial phase of lockdown or the post-transition phase of lockdown. Given that remote and/or hybrid working conditions have been in practice for a considerable amount of time now, this study's findings may be helpful for HRMs and industrial psychologists. Overall, the findings suggest that strategies to mitigate WLP among remote workers is important. Additionally, HRMs and industrial psychologists may want to incorporate well-being into their company culture to create work environments that are supportive of the job demands experienced by both remote and hybrid workers. These strategies could include regular check-ins to assess how employees are coping and workshops to assist employees with

unfamiliar demands experienced while working from home. To increase TID, as suggested by the study findings, HRMs and industrial psychologists could implement more activities that involve working and coordinating as a team. This can include informal virtual lunches and team competitions to grow employee SWB and boost morale. Consequently, these strategies may mitigate the negative effects of loneliness.

5.5 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The present study is not without its limitations. The study uses cross-sectional data which implies that responses regarding all variables were taken at the same time; for this reason, time precedence of IVs cannot be guaranteed in establishing causal relationships (Walker, 2005). This research method design was used due to time constraints for the present study. However, as the pandemic may continue for some time, it is expected that remote working will become easier as employees adjust to their new working arrangements or may worsen for some employees due to inability to cope with job demands (Jamal et al., 2021). Therefore, a longitudinal research design may offer more clarity such that it will be able to observe how remote workers' job demands affect their SWB as the pandemic progresses (Walker, 2005). Longitudinally studying employees over time will make an essential contribution to remote working literature by highlighting perceptual differences.

Another limitation is the use of variables that are relatively subjective (that is, the experiences of job demands and SWB could vary and depend on multiple moderating factors) (Field, 2018). Quantitative data was used due to COVID-19 lockdown restrictions. Lockdown restrictions rendered it challenging to collect data that was qualitative in nature. Although it is important to collect quantitative data for findings to be easily generalisable (which can assist organisations with effective interventions), it is recommended that future research conduct a mixed-methods study (Field, 2018). Mixed-methods research will allow researchers to gather subjective data of remote workers' job demands and SWB experiences (qualitative), as well as objective data using scales (quantitative) (Pradhan & Hati, 2019). It is essential that subjective experiences are used in conjunction with objective data to generate an in-depth understanding of participants' experiences. In this way, well-being and employee resilience participants will be better targeted with respect to remote work's specific job demands.

Even though this study argued that employee resilience was the most appropriate variable to explore as a moderator between the job demands and SWB relationship during COVID-19, it did not have the expected moderating effect. In view of this, it is recommended that future research be conducted on the combined moderating effect of psychological capital constructs such as hope, optimism and self-efficacy. It has been found that the combined effect of these constructs has a positive impact on employees and may produce more meaningful results (Herbert & Gorgens, 2012).

Future studies should expand on job demands not explored in the present study (such as long working hours or time pressure) as these are demands that remote workers may also have experienced (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). It is worth mentioning, however, that shortly after this study was conducted, vaccines became widely available in South Africa, and many organisations required employees to make use of them (Cooper et al., 2014). This pertains to the fact that many employees are or will be transitioning from remote to fully hybrid working conditions. For example, even though 51 per cent of the study's sample were remote workers, 48 per cent of the sample were already working in hybrid conditions. Therefore, future studies should explore the relationship between job demands and SWB and explore sample differences (for example, remote workers versus employees in hybrid working conditions).

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

Given the increase in remote working conditions during the COVID-19 pandemic, it has resulted in employees having to rapidly adjust to new job demands. The job demands explored in this study were WLP, TID, PI, and FWC. The JD-R theory explains that an increase in job demands leads to decrease well-being when adequate resources are not implemented to provide assistance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The COVID-19 pandemic has led to a decrease in all dimensions of well-being. Literature has mainly focused on the detrimental effects of the pandemic on psychological well-being. However, this study presents the importance of the SWB of remote workers as employees were required to conform to new ways of connecting with their co-workers. Using Hobfoll's (1989) COR theory, employee resilience was a resource explored as a moderating variable as it was argued to assist remote workers with overcoming the adversities experienced in their job demands.

The findings indicated that the relationship between WLP and SWB was negative and linear. Additionally, WLP significantly predicted SWB. However, the relationship between TID and SWB was in an unexpected direction such that it was positive and linear. TID also significantly predicted SWB. PI and FWC were neither related to nor predicted SWB. Furthermore, it was interesting to note that the results indicated a significant relationship between employee resilience and SWB. However, employee resilience did not moderate the relationships between all of the dimensions of job demands and SWB.

These findings alluded to the possibility of there being a difference in the job demands, SWB, and employee resilience between remote workers and hybrid workers as well as a difference in experiences of these variables during the initial lockdown and post-transition phase of lockdown in South Africa. Despite the limitations of the present study, the findings may provide valuable insights into the relatively new notion of remote working during the COVID-19 pandemic in South Africa as well as its associated well-being outcomes. This may be used in the development and implantation of workplace strategies that aim to reduce levels of job demands and provide effective employee resilience-building interventions. Additionally, this may be useful in the long term by providing knowledge of how to assist employees when coping with rapid adjustments in the workplace, promoting well-being, and emphasising the importance of resources within South African organisations.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent



Dear participant,

I invite you to partake in my dissertation which I am completing as part of my Master's degree in Industrial/Organisational Psychology at the University of Cape Town. This research has been approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee at the University of Cape Town.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between job demands, social well-being and employee resilience among remote workers in South Africa. Therefore, only remote and hybrid workers (remote and at the office) can complete this questionnaire. You are required to complete a questionnaire which will take 5-10 minutes to complete. Please be as honest as possible in your answers. You will not be requested to supply any identifiable information, which ensures anonymity of your responses. The information will be kept private, with only trends being published and IP addresses being deleted from databases so that your answers are not identifiable.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any time (even if you started the questionnaire). There are no risks associated with taking part in this study.

Should you have any question or concerns regarding this questionnaire or the study please email me at BRWAME002@myuct.ac.za or my supervisor, Zonke Zungu at zonke.zungu@uct.ac.za.

Yours sincerely,

Ameerah Brown

Appendix B

Demographical Information

Age: ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60+

Race: ☐ Black ☐ White ☐ Coloured ☐ Indian ☐ Asian ☐ Mixed race ☐ Prefer not to say

Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male ☐ Transgender ☐ Prefer not to say

Marital status: ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Widow

Living conditions: ☐ Alone ☐ With family ☐ With other individuals

Working conditions: ☐ Remote ☐ Hybrid (remote and at the office)

Have you started working at your current company during COVID-19? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Appendix C

Social Well-Being Scale (Pradhan & Hati, 2019)

1. I am an important part of my team and organisation.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

2. People are trustworthy in my team/organisation.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

3. I am close to my teammates in my organisation.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

4. My team is a great source of social support.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

5. My views are well accepted by my teammates.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

6. People in my team don't help each other in difficult times.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

7. I take active part in important decision-making activities of my team.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

8. I love to spend time with my teammates.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

9. I can freely share my work problems with my colleagues.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

10. My day-to-day activities contribute towards the benefits of my team.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

Appendix D

Workload Pressure Scale (Amabile et al., 1996)

1. I have sufficient time to do my project(s).

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

2. My organization is keeping realistic expectations regarding work.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

3. I do not feel a sense of time pressure in my work.

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neutral ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

Appendix E

Task Interdependence Scale (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006)

1. Unless my job gets done, other jobs cannot be completed

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

2. My job depends on the work of many different people for its completion

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

3. My job cannot be done unless others do their work

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

Appendix F

Professional Isolation Scale (Golden et al., 2008)

1. I am missing face-to-face contact with coworkers

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

2. I am feeling left out of the loop

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

3. I am missing the emotional support of coworkers

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

4. I am missing informal interaction with my co-workers

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

Appendix G

Family-to-Work Conflict Scale (Netemeyer et al., 1996)

1. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

3. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

4. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties

☐ Strongly disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Sometimes ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly agree

Appendix H

Employee Resilience Scale (Naswall et al., 2015)

1. I effectively collaborate with others to handle unexpected challenges at work

☐ Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Almost always

2. I successfully manage a high workload for long periods of time

☐ Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Almost always

3. I resolve crises competently at work

☐ Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Almost always

4. I learn from mistakes at work and improve the way I do my job

☐ Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Almost always

5. I re-evaluate my performance and continually improve the way I do my work

☐ Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Almost always

6. I effectively respond to feedback at work, even criticism

☐ Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Almost always

7. I seek assistance to work when I need specific resources

☐ Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Almost always

8. I approach managers when I need their support

☐ Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Almost always

9. I use change at work as an opportunity for growth

☐ Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Almost always

Appendix I

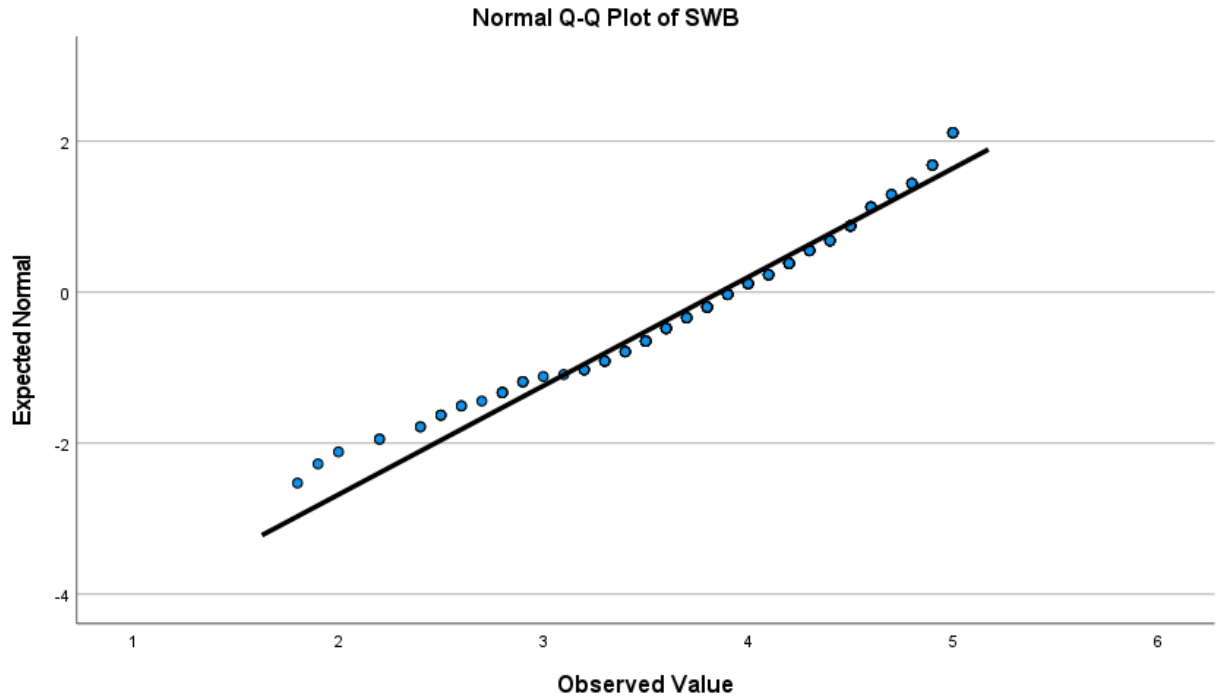
Ethical Approval Letter

	Faculty of Commerce Private Bag X3, Rondebosch, 7701 2.26 Leslie Commerce Building, Upper Campus Tel: +27 (0) 21 650 4375/ 5748 Fax: +27 (0) 21 650 4369 E-mail: jacques.rousseau@uct.ac.za Internet: www.uct.ac.za  @Commerce UCT  UCT Commerce Faculty Office
Ameerah Brown 25 06 2021 School of Management Studies University of Cape Town REF: REC 2021/06/011 Job Demands and Social Well-being among remote workers in South Africa: The Moderating Role of Resilience	
We are pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved. Unless otherwise specified this ethical clearance is valid until 31-Jul-2022. Your clearance may be renewed upon application. Please be aware that you need to notify the Ethics Committee immediately should any aspect of your study regarding the engagement with participants as approved in this application, change. This may include aspects such as changes to the research design, questionnaires, or choice of participants. The ongoing ethical conduct throughout the duration of the study remains the responsibility of the principal investigator. We wish you well for your research.	
	2021.06.25 19:28:44 +02'00'
Jacques Rousseau Commerce Research Ethics Chair University of Cape Town Commerce Faculty Office Room 2.26 Leslie Commerce Building Office Telephone: +27 (0)21 650 2695 / 4375 Office Fax: +27 (0)21 650 4369 E-mail: jacques.rousseau@uct.ac.za Website: http://www.commerce.uct.ac.za/com/Ethics-in-Research	
"Our Mission is to be an outstanding teaching and research university, educating for life and addressing the challenges facing our society."	

Appendix J

CFA Assumption Testing of Normality

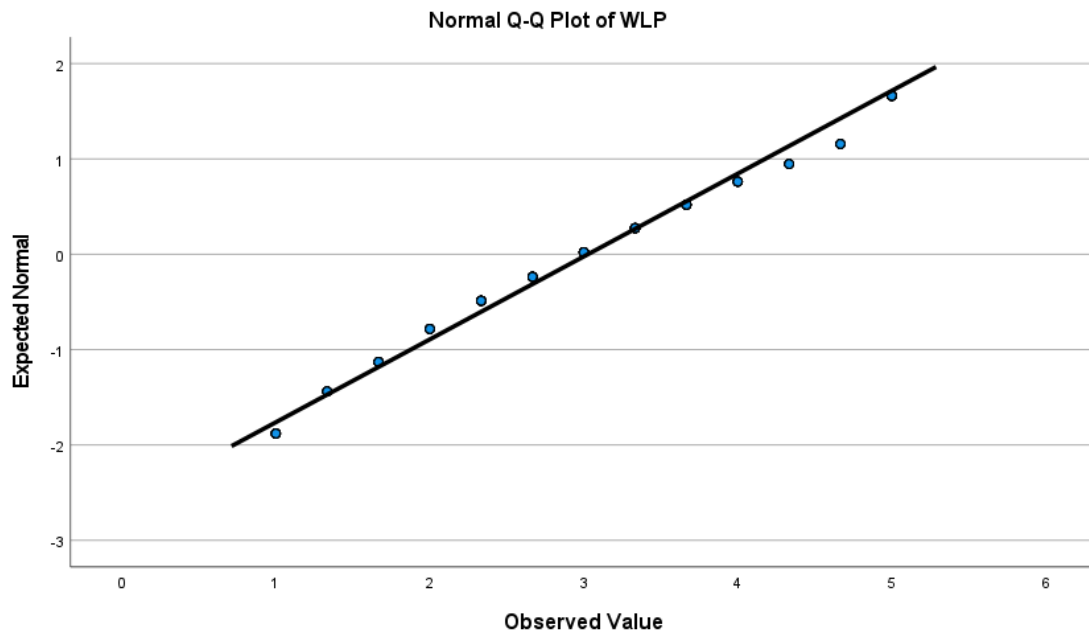
Normal Q-Q Plot of the Social Well-Being Scale Indicating Normality for a Confirmatory Factor Analysis



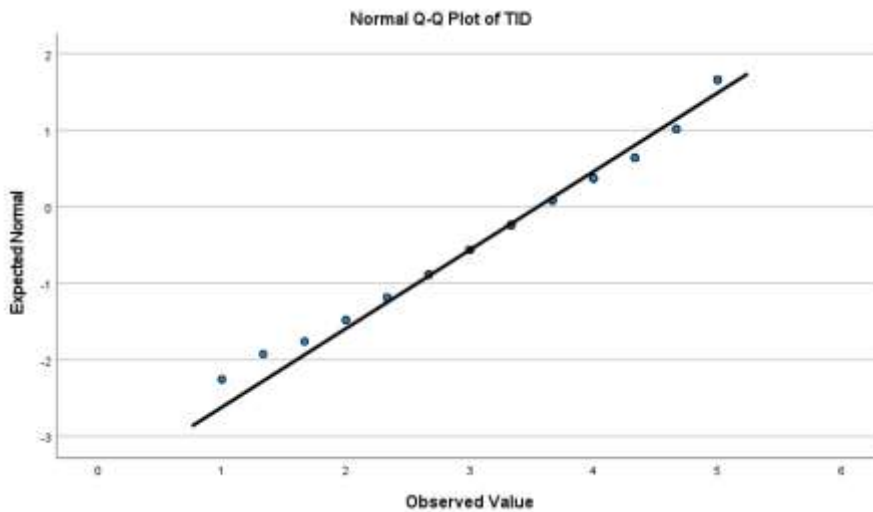
Appendix K

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Assumption Testing of Normality

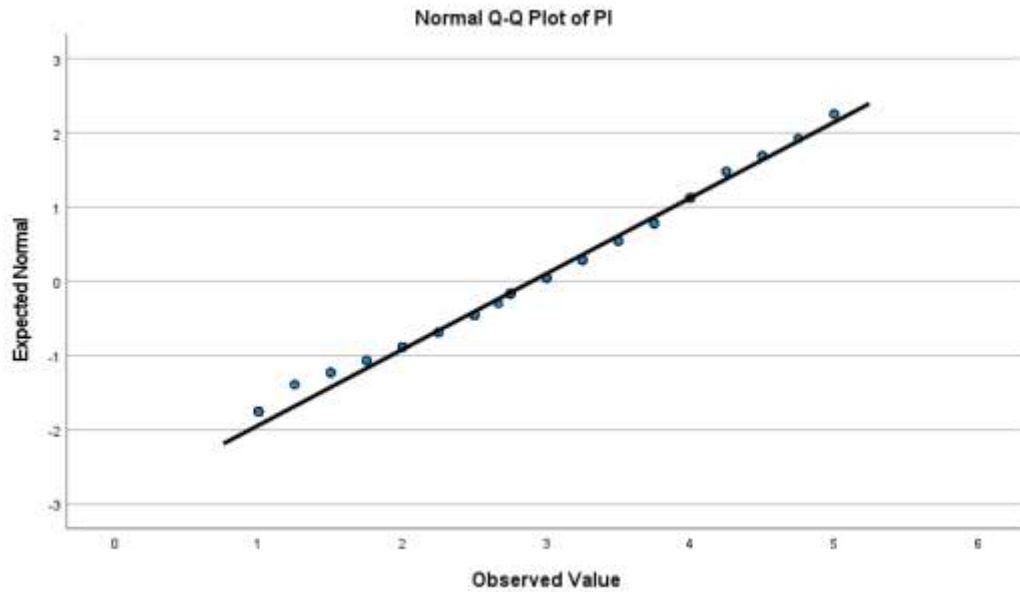
Normal Q-Q Plot of the Workload Pressure Scale Indicating Normality for a Confirmatory Factor Analysis



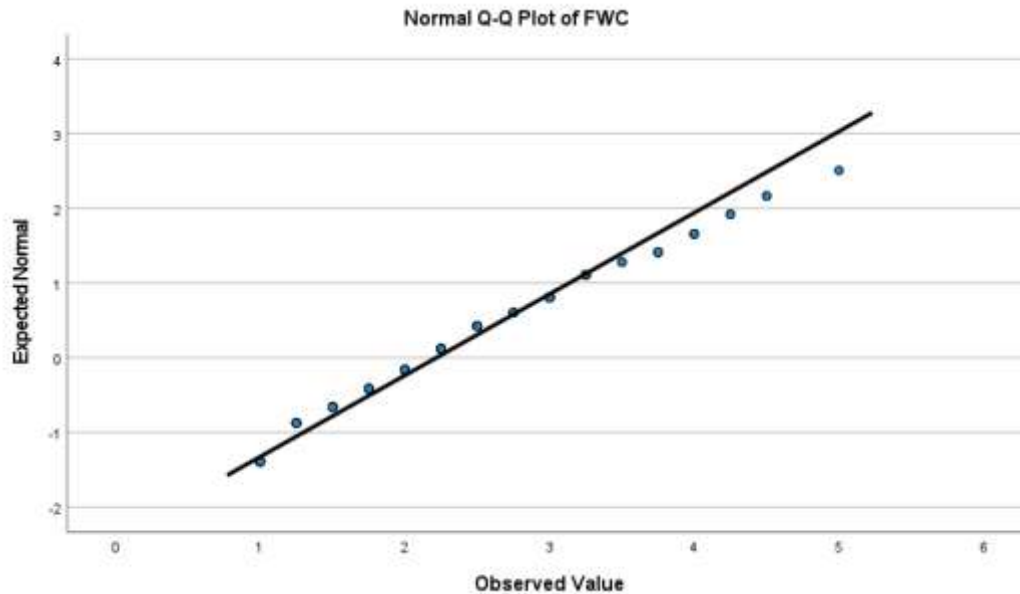
Normal Q-Q Plot of the Task Interdependence Scale Indicating Normality for a Confirmatory Factor Analysis



Normal Q-Q Plot of the Professional Isolation Scale Indicating Normality for a Confirmatory Factor Analysis



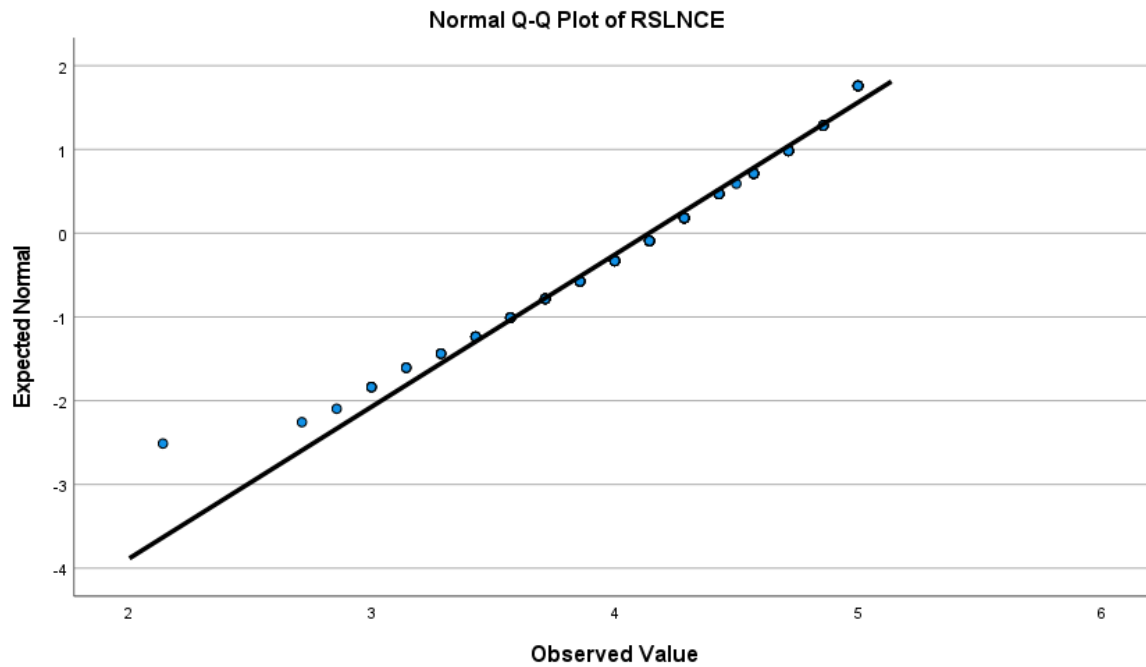
Normal Q-Q Plot of the Family-to-Work Conflict Scale Indicating Normality for a Confirmatory Factor Analysis



Appendix L

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Assumption Testing of Normality

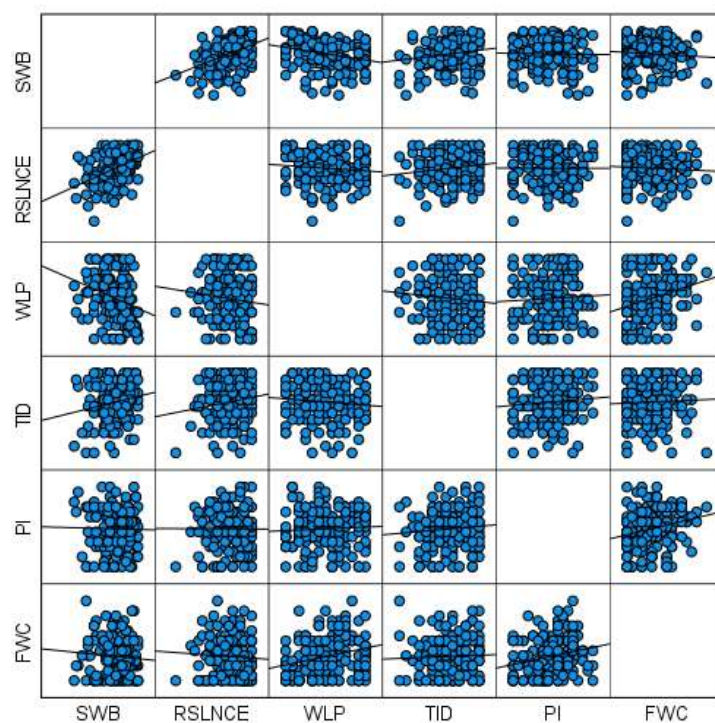
Normal Q-Q Plot of the Employee Resilience Scale Indicating Normality for a Confirmatory Factor Analysis



Appendix M

Assumption of Additivity and Linearity

Matrix Scatterplot Indicating Additivity and Linearity



Appendix N

Independent Observations

Durbin-Watson Statistic Indicating Independent Observations

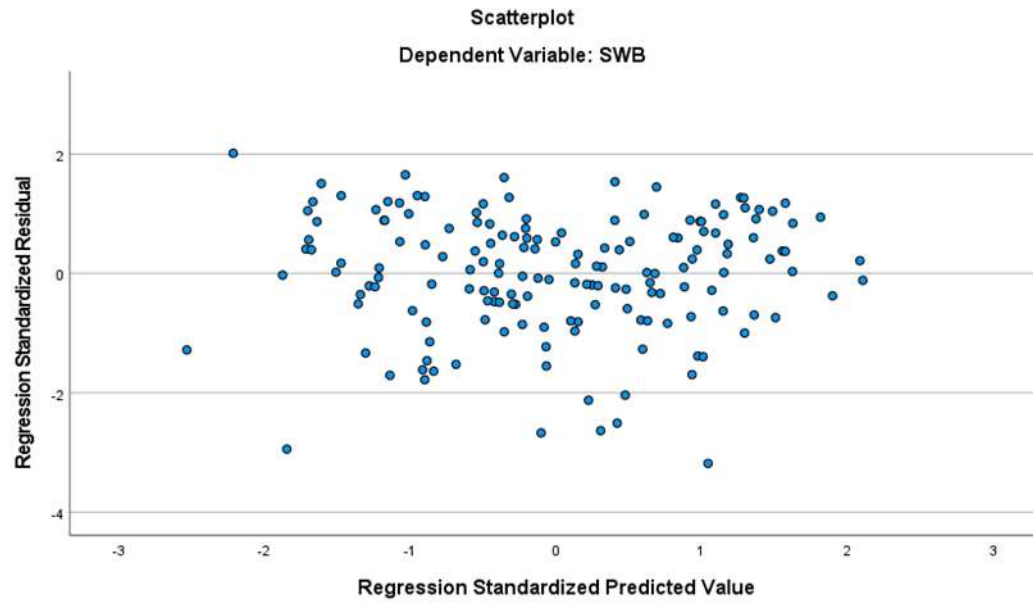
R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
.31	.09	.07	.66	1.9

Notes. Predictors: FWC, TID, PI and WLP. Dependent variable: SWB.

Appendix O

Homoscedasticity

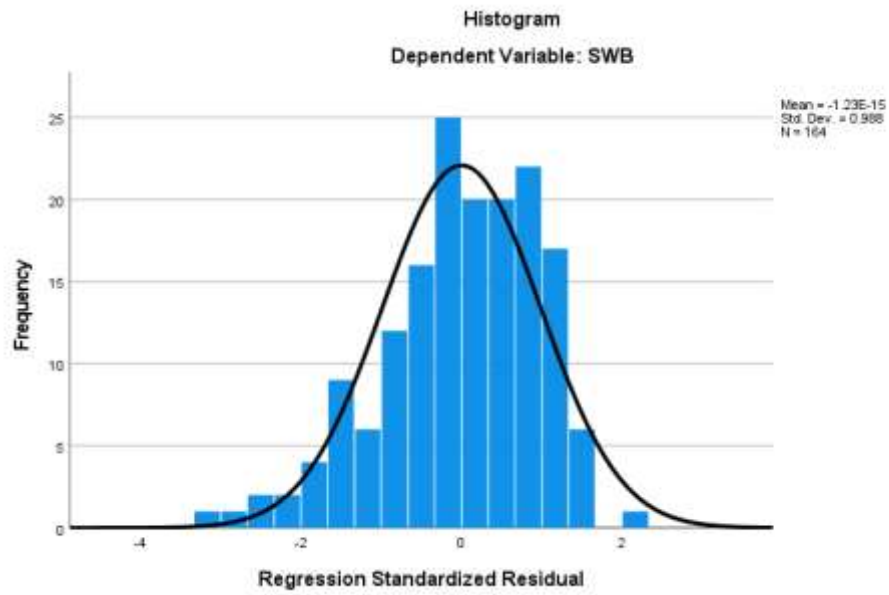
Scatterplot Indicating Homoscedasticity



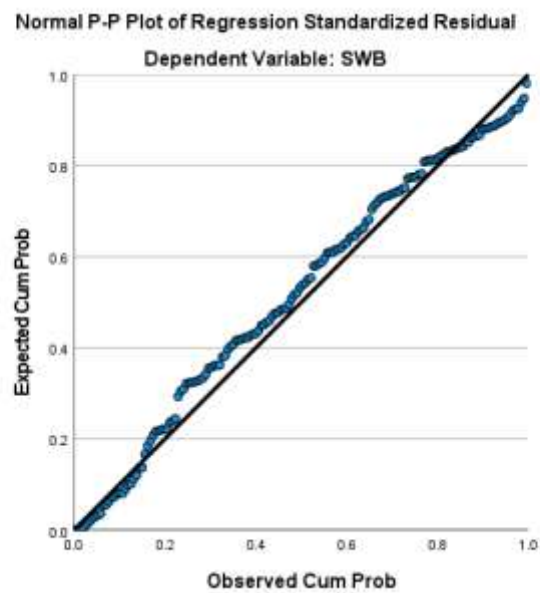
Appendix P

Normality

Histogram Indicating Normality



P-P plot Indicating Normality



Appendix Q

Multicollinearity

Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor Values Indicating no Multicollinearity

Predictor	B	SE(B)	β	t	p	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	3.08	.31		9.94	.00		
Workload pressure	.14	.05	.22	2.83	.01	.92	1.09
Task interdependence	.13	.06	.17	2.24	.03	.98	1.02
Professional isolation	-.02	.06	-.03	-.38	.70	.94	1.06
Family-to-work conflict	-.00	.06	-.01	-.07	.95	.88	1.13