The relationship between organisational justice perceptions, organisational trust and willingness to engage in protest action for higher wages among low-income employees in South Africa

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Compulsory Declaration

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people has been attributed, cited and referenced.

Signature: Signed by candidate Date: 05 February 2020

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Abstract

While common in South Africa, workplace protest actions frequently lead to losses on both sides: productivity losses for organisations and loss of income for protesting employees. It is therefore important to investigate which factors may contribute to low-income workers' decision to protest for higher wages. Based on the theoretical integration of social exchange theory and fairness heuristic theory it was argued that fairer treatment (organisational justice) decreases workers' willingness to engage in protest actions through its positive influence on organisational trust. The researcher examined employees' perceptions of fairness shown by their employer, supervisor and co-workers. A descriptive, cross-sectional research design was employed to test this assumption. Data was collected from low-income employees working in South African factories and retail stores who completed a self-report survey (N = 147). The results of a regression analysis confirmed that employees' perceptions of organisational justice predicted their willingness to engage in protest actions for higher wages when gender and previous involvement in protest actions were kept constant. Perceptions of interpersonal justice as shown by the supervisor was the unique predictor of willingness to engage in protest action, indicating that the decision to protest is not primarily driven by monetary concerns (distributive justice) but rather by how low-income workers feel treated in the workplace. Mediation analysis results revealed that the relationship between organisational justice and willingness to engage in protest action is not through mutual trust. Taken together, this research demonstrated that there is a need for organisations to invest in fairness in the workplace. Most specifically, organisations could focus on training supervisors to treat employees with respect and dignity as it could contribute to employees' decision to refrain from protesting at work.

Keywords: Organisational justice, organisational trust, willingness to engage in protest action, counterproductive workplace behaviour, low-income workers, South Africa.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Even though high levels of unemployment are a core reason for poverty in South Africa, among the poor are a large number of working individuals (Leibbrandt, Finn & Woolard, 2012; Van der Berg, 2011). The working-poor earn not only low incomes but also possess little power in the employment relationship. Unlike highly sought-after professionals, low-income employees are easily replaced owing to their low formal skills and education levels, while at the same time being particularly reliant on their jobs for survival (Ehrenreich & Siebrase, 2014; Visser & Meléndez, 2015). To counter the resulting power differential amongst low-income workers and employers, the South African labour legislation, under specific conditions, allows trade unions to mobilise their members to engage in protest actions (Labour relations Act, 1995). While common, protest actions frequently lead to losses on both sides: productivity losses for organisations and loss of income for protesting employees. For example, in 2014 the South African mining industry alone lost just over 7 billion Rand because of protest actions that lasted five-month, and during that time protesting employees did not earn an income (William, 2017). De Wet (2012) also found that employees generally do not believe that engaging in protest action is financially rewarding.

Sociologist such as Von Holdt et al. (2011) have argued that protest actions are regular in South Africa because the country has a 'protest culture'. Their argument derives from the fact that throughout the second half of the 20th century, protest actions in the form of strikes and boycotts were used as a means to fight the apartheid system. The same means of expressing dissatisfaction are still used today – and frequently so (Alexander, 2013; Von Holdt et al., 2011; William, 2017). Evidence of this increase can be found in the Industrial Action Annual Report (Department of Labour, 2018), which illustrates that there were 132 recorded strikes in 2017, which is 8% more than in 2016. The number of strikes in 2016 had already increased by 20% compared to 2015. An in-depth analysis of the Industrial Action Annual Reports revealed that most protest actions are work-related. In 2017, approximately 79% of all protest actions in South Africa were work-related. Interestingly, in the year 2016 the Industrial Action Annual Reports also shows that 85% of all protests or work stoppages had been wage-related (778,874 out of a total of 946,323 workdays lost), and the average proportion between 2009 and 2016 was 87% (Department of Labour, 2016). The latter statistics imply that the South African working population is highly dissatisfied with their wages. As mentioned above, amongst the poor are a substantial number of working individuals, it is thus evident that most work protests are wage-related. Alexander's (2013, p. 613) has labelled the current surge of protest actions "a

rebellion of the poor" to highlight that the there is a crisis amongst the working poor and that they are currently crying for help.

Protest action in the workplace occurs when employees withhold their labour power to entice their employer to solve unresolved dissatisfactions. Refusing to work, however, harms the organisation because it results in no production. In this light, workplace protest actions fit into the concept of counterproductive workplace behaviour (CWB). This is because CWB is described as an overarching characterisation of behaviours aimed that hindering the progress of an organisation (Spector & Fox, 2010). Studies on CWB are, however, problematic because they have primarily been considered from a managerial perspective and thus often focuses exclusively on the dysfunctionality of these types of behaviours (Kelloway, Francis, Prosser & Cameron, 2010). When taking protest actions at work, for instance, a review of the literature revealed that most articles tend to focus on the negative impact that it has on the organisation, the society and the economy at large (McHugh, 1991; Gruber & Kleiner, 2012; Mokati, 2017, December, 29; William, 2017). In the South African context, for example, William (2017) showed how the monitory loss that the mining industry incurred because of protest actions highly impacted the country's economy because it is built around the mining sectior. On the other hand, Mokati (2017, December 29) mentioned that violent workplace protest often leads to injury or death of protestors and sometimes members of the general public. The problem with research that only focuses on the negative impact of protest actions is the "danger of a single story" (Adichie, 2009, p. 3). That is to say that solely expending knowledge on the negative impact of protest actions may dissuade people from wanting to understand the real reasons why low-income workers may choose to engage in protest actions for higher wages. Consequently, the question of 'why employees choose to protest for higher wages even though they are aware that they will incur income loss during that period?' may never be answered.

This paper is, therefore, based on the premises that understanding CWB from the workers' perceptive can result in immediate and long-term benefits for the organisation (Kelloway, et al., 2010). To be more specific, the current surge of protest actions that Alexander (2010, p. 3) labelled the 'rebellion of the poor' tells us that there is a need to broaden the narrative and to understand protest action for higher wages from low-income workers' perspectives. This new perspective could engender interventions aimed at pre-empting and preventing the well-researched negative impact that protest action has on employees, organisations and on the general public. With that said, one possible empirical approach to understanding low-income employees' intention to engage or not to engage (the behaviour)

would be to determine how it correlates with imperially researched workplace factors that influence employees' behaviour. Organisational justice and organisational trust have vigorously been researched as workplace factors that predict or influence employees' behaviour and organisational outcomes (Cropanzano et al., 2011; Erasmus, Gilson, Govender & Nkosi, 2017). For example, researchers have found that organisational justice and organisational trust influence turnover intentions, cyberloafing, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB), and job satisfaction (i.e. Choi, 2011; Cropanzano et al., 2011; Erasmus et al., 2017; Farndale, Hope-Hailey & Kelliher 2011; Qureshi, Frank, Lambert, Klahm & Smith, 2017). Therefore, the researcher anticipates that just as turnover intentions, cyberloafing or organisational commitment, employees' intentions to engage in protest action at work would also be related to organisational justice and organisational trust.

It is interesting to note that although there is an extensive body of literature on organisational justice and organisational trust, very few of these studies were conducted within a South African context (Erasmus et al., 2017; Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008). Much of these steams of research have primarily been conducted in the United States of America (USA), Europe or Australia (Caza, McCarter & Northcraft, 2015; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017). Therefore, drawing on Hofstede's (1980) theory of national culture, which suggest that countries may generally behave differently in similar situations. There are growing questions about the extent to which findings from the USA or Europe can be applied to an African population (Arya, Mirchandani & Harris, 2019; Fendler, 2006).

Very recently, researchers in the field of sociology, economics and law attempted to suggest potential factors that may contribute to the surge in protest actions (Alexander, 2010; Von Holdt et al., 2011; Webster & Sikwebu, 2010). As of yet, no organisational psychologist researcher in South Africa has attempted to investigate workplace protest actions as an organisational outcome even though it is a surging phenomenon that is costing organisations and employees much money. The current study, therefore, seeks to contribute to the organisational justice and trust literature by investigating these constructs within the South African context while using an industrial and organisational psychologist perspective. Furthermore, this research seeks to provide new insights on workplace protest action by determining factors that may contribute to low-income workers' intention to engage in protest actions for higher wages even though they do not earn wages while protesting.

1. **The specific research question explored in this study is thus:**

What is the relationship between organisational justice perceptions, organisational trust and willingness to engage in protest actions for higher wages among low-income employees in South Africa?

2. Structure of the Dissertation

This chapter served as an introduction to the current study and delineated its rationale and research questions. The subsequent chapter provides an in-depth review of relevant theory and existing literature to build the conceptual framework and derive plausible hypotheses for this study. After that, the method chapter describes the research design, participants, sampling, measures, procedure, ethical considerations and statistical analyses. The findings of the study are then presented in the results chapter. A concluding discussion relates the results to existing research and details theoretical and practical implications, followed by an overview of the study's limitations and suggestions for future research.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter presents the literature review, and it first begins with a literature search that outlines the various tools that the researcher used to conduct the literature review. This is followed with an overview of existing literature related to the three variables of interest Willingness to Engage in Protest Actions (WEPA), Perceived Organisational Justice (POJ) and Organisational Trust (OT). Next, the study's theoretical basis, fairness heuristic and social exchange theory are discussed and used to hypothesis the interaction between the three variables. The chapter concludes with a summary and the research's conceptual framework.

1. Literature search b

The literature reviewed results from a ten-month (February to December 2019) comprehensive search. The researcher made use of online academic databases such as Business Source Premier, Academic Search Premier, PsycArticles, PsycINFO and Google Scholar ©. Where applicable and possible, the research restricted the search to peer-reviewed journals only. The following are examples of the search terms used to identify published research: organisational justice, organisation fairness, trust, organisational trust, trust in the workplace, wage strikes, wage dissatisfaction, protest in South Africa, workplace dissatisfaction, counterproductive workplace behaviour. The researcher repeatedly conducted searches using derivatives of these search terms and a series of Boolean 'and/or' operators and asterisk wildcards to locate relevant and most up-to-date research. One also inspected each article's references to obtain further primary studies.

2. Willingness to engage in protest actions (WEPA)

This section presents the existing literature on protest action. First, the definition and importance of protest action are outlined. The next part allows the reader to understand that South African researchers from various disciplines are increasingly interested in understanding factors that may contribute to the current surge in protest actions to mitigate the current crisis.

2.2 Definition of work protest action

According to the South African Labour Relations Act (LRA) (1995, p. 242) protest action in the workplace is defined as "the partial or complete refusal to work, or the retardation or obstruction of work, to promote or defend the socio-economic interests of workers". Theoretically, protest actions are forms of pressure tactics that employees use against their employers to express unresolved work dissatisfactions (Bendix, 2010; Cloutier, Denis & Bilodeau, 2013). One should note that protest actions can also happen outside of the workplace

(in communities) for the same purpose of promoting or defending the interest of a socio-economic a group (Alexandra, 2010; Von Holdt et al., 2011). Though work protest actions are primarily a mean for employees to express their dissatisfaction, the action of protesting tends to result in losses for the organisation, employees, economy and society at large (Alexandra, 2012; Brown & Chaulk, 2008; Barling & Milligan, 1987; Von Holdt et al., 2011; William, 2017).

2.3 Protest actions in the South African context

In light of the increased number of protest action in South Africa (South African Annual Quarterly report), and its negative impact (Brown & Chaulk, 2008; Barling & Milligan, 1987; William, 2017). Researchers for a variety of disciplines such as sociology, economics and law are increasingly showing interest in finding factors that may contribute to the rising number of protest actions in the country (Alexandra, 2010; Béliard, 2016; Southall, 2012; Von Holdt et al., 2011; Webster & Sikwebu, 2010). On the one hand, sociologists, have tried to understand the rising trend by comparing the waves of protest actions throughout history to the country's social and political state (Alexandra, 2010; Béliard, 2016; Von Holdt et al., 2011). For example, Alexandra (2010) categorised protest actions into two eras called the Mbeki-era and the Zuma-era protests. His research found similarities and difference between the two eras and, as such, concluded that protest actions are the consequences of "the fruit of democracy" (Alexandra, 2010, p. 37). Another Sociologist Béliard (2016) focused on workplace protest action and analysed it against protests that occurred before 1994, such as the Rand Revolt. He concluded that the current surge of violent workplace protest action reflects struggles that the population is facing because they are trying to find their places in the new (post-apartheid) South Africa.

On the other hand, researchers from law and economics disciplines such as Webster and Sikwebu (2010) have argued that shortfalls of the present industrial relation system could explain the current surge in protest actions. They additionally argued that the legislation not only leads to more protest action but also increases the number of unprotected protest actions because procedures outlined in Section 77 of the LRA, are time-consuming and disfavour protestors. Consequently, employees often chose to engage in unprotected protest strike actions to escape from falling victims of the labour relation system (Webster, 2013). Moreover, the current industrial relations system is inadequate because trade unions fail to represent a large and growing number of the working population (Webster, 2013). In 2010 only 23.3% of the total number of employed populations were registered trade union members, a decline from

45.25% in 1997 (Southall, 2012). Webster (2013) concluded that understanding the current problems with the law and trade unions may provide a window of opportunity to designing strategies to combat the current rise in protest actions in South African.

From an industrial psychologist perceptive, workplace protest action is an organisational outcome which arises from the interaction between different people in the workplace. Though no research in South Africa examined factors that may contribute to protest action from an industrial psychologist perceptive, other country such as the USA have explored some of these factors. Early work psychology studies in the USA tended to focus on the negative impact work protest actions had on the organisation. For example, Barling & Milligan (1987) found that protest actions harmed employees' psychological wellbeing and workplace dynamic. Brown and Chaulk (2008) found that protect actions in the workplace negatively affected the relationship between employees and their employer or unions. A most recent research from an industrial psychologist Cloutier et al. (2013) argued that previous researchers' approach on the topic of workplace protest actions do not provide insight to the reasons employees may decide to engage in protest actions. Cloutier et al., (2013) further added that this approach is problematic because it disregards the primary purpose of protest actions, which is to provide employees with a mean to express their dissatisfactions on unresolved issues. Consequently, they decided to conduct research that could provide insight into factors that may influence unionised employees to vote for or against striking. The current research, thus, follows from Cloutier et al., (2013) because first, it recognises that protesting for higher wages is a mean for employees to express their dissatisfaction about their current income. Second, the current research aims to understand the factors that may contribute to workers' intention to engage in protest actions for higher wages, even if it means not earning an income while they are protesting.

It is worth mentioning at this point that the current study is mainly interested in workers' willingness to engage in protest actions (WEPA) because willingness is the mental factor that enables an individual to act (Scarpa & Willis, 2010). If one is not willing to do something, it is unlikely that an activity is started or carried through. Therefore, willingness is required before workers decide to join a union or physically take part in protest actions. In the flowing sections, the searcher will discuss why POJ and OT were found to be suitable factors that may contribute to low-incomes workers' WEPA.

3. Perceived Organisational justice (POJ)

This section presents exiting research on organisational justice (OJ) and discusses why it is an essential variable within the context of this study. It starts by presenting the conceptualisation of OJ using seminal research and resent literature to illustrate the importance of measuring all four dimensions of organisational justice. In the next section, the author focuses on South African literature around fairness and organisational justice to illustrate the significance of studying POJ concerning WEPA within the South African context.

3.1 Dimensions of perceived organisational justice

OJ refers to individuals' perception of fairness in an organisation. OJ was first conceptualised in the mid-20th century by Adams (1965) and Homans (1961) who solely focused on the fairness of decision outcome named *distributive justice*. These authors used equity theory to argue that individuals react to outcome allocations by comparing the input-output ratio of the outcome that they received to a relevant comparison person or group. The individual thus feels a sense of equity if their input-output ratio matches that of the comparison group. Over the years and as interest in organisational behaviour developed, theorists suggested that other rules such as equality and need norms can be used to understand and explain distributive fairness in certain situations. For example, Deutsch (1975) and Leventhal (1976) argued that when focusing on group harmony or welfare, equality and need norms are most suitable than equity theory to explain peoples' perceptions of fairness. The combination of the above insights characterised the first dimension of OJ – distributive justice – as the degree to which decision-makers comply with the correct allocation norm or rule in a given decision-making context (Greenberg, 1987).

Research has shown that perceptions of distributive justice are linked to several employee-related outcomes such as pay satisfaction (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992); satisfaction with leaders (Tyler & Caine, 1981); and employee turnover intentions (Choi, 2011; Poon, 2012). Researchers often argue that perceived fair distributive justice is necessary because the lack thereof tend to lead to unfortunate consequences in the organisation (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Karriker & Williams, 2009; Poon, 2012). Examples of such consequences include distrust, disputes, disrespect and other social problems among employees and their managers or the organisation (Gilin Oore et al., 2010). Although there is no research on OJ and WEPA, studies on OJ and CWB revealed that employees are less likely to engage in CWB when they perceive that their organisations are fair in terms of

how outcomes are distributed (Beauregard, 2014; Holtz & Harold, 2013; Wilkin & Connelly, 2015). It is reasonable to consider that employees would demand higher wages by protesting because they perceive a lack of distributive justice.

A separate stream of work by Thibaut and Walker (1975) who worked at the intersection of law and social psychology conceptualised another dimension of OJ termed *procedural justice*. Procedural justice is defined as the fairness concerning the mechanism and processes or methods used to determine outcomes (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Thibault & Walker, 1975). In their series of studies on the fairness of decision-making processes, Thibaut and Walker (1975) found that participants viewed procedures to be fair when they could voice their concerns to influence the outcome. On the other hand, Leventhal (1980) research found that participants perceived procedure to be fair when the examined procedure adhered to the norms or rules of consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, correctability and ethicality. Tyler (1987) puts forward that individuals use one or more of the procedural rules to determine whether the procedures used were fair or unfair. Therefore, he argued that Thibaut and Walker (1975) and Leventhal (1980) procedural justice rules are complementary to one another.

The integration of these perspectives, thus, led to the concept of procedural justice as we know it today. Literature has found that procedural justice not only affects organisational outcome such as job satisfaction, but it also affects higher-order commitment (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler & Martin, 1987) and trust in the organisation (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). These higher-order attitudes can be critical for the successful implementation of strategies that require the buy-in and mobilisation of employees (Daly & Geyer, 1994; Kim & Mauborgne, 1991). It is, therefore, essential to involve employees in the decision-making process by asking employees for their views and taking into consideration their suggestions. With this kind of organisational attitude, employees may be encouraged to support a given severe outcome because they feel that the organisation has their best interest at heart. In times of economic crisis such as the one South Africa is currently facing (Baxter, 2009; Fadeyi, Sedibe, van der Westhuizen & Igene, 2019), withstanding a wage increment could be an organisation's financial strategy to overcome the crisis. In such a situation, the organisation may require employees' buy-in to prevent them from wanting to engage in protest actions; this could be achieved by improving employees' perception of procedural justice.

Bies and Moag (1986) broadened the conceptualisation of OJ while examining fairness in the recruitment context. The two authors observed that decision events do not only have two

facets - a procedure, an outcome (distributive). A third facet, which involves the interpersonal interaction between the decision-maker and recipient is equally significant because of the impact it has on organisational outcomes (Bies & Moag, 1986). The authors named the third facet of decision making as *interactional justice*. They additionally argued that authorities prompted interactional justice when they communicated procedural details respectfully and adequately and further justified decision using accurate and truthful information. In a subsequent chapter, Greenberg (1993) argued that the respect and propriety norms are distinct from the justification and truthful norms, thus labelling the respect and propriety rules as *interpersonal justice* and the latter *informational justice*.

Interpersonal justice is defined as the degree to which a person is treated with respect, politeness and dignity by authorities involved in determining outcomes (Colquiit, 2001). According to Bies (1986), the onus is on the decision-maker to ensure that adequate interpersonal communication is present in an interaction, the recipient would thus associate the behaviour with an overall fair or unfair interpersonal treatment. Frazier, Johnson, Gavin, Gooty and Bradley Snow (2010) also point out that interpersonal justice is concerns with the characteristics and the attitudes of the person who is allocating resources and how he/she behave toward the recipients. Literature has often associated interpersonal justice with trust. For example, early works of Shapiro, Sheppard and Cheraskin, (1992) showed that courtship, regular and adequate communication could contribute to knowledge-based trust. Further research from Lind (2001a, 2001b) noted that people use overall impressions of fairness treatment (interpersonal justice) as a proxy for interpersonal trust. In a study on organisational citizenship behaviour, Choi (2011) found that interpersonal justice uniquely contributed to workers' OCB through the interaction that the construct has with trust. Through the same logic, the researcher expects that the interaction between interpersonal justice and trust would contribute to employees' willingness to engage in protest actions for higher wages.

On the other hand, informational justice refers to conveying information with honesty, clarity and truthfulness (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1993). Frazier et al. (2010) summarised informational justice as the organisational justice dimension that looks at the nature of the explanation that individuals receive about why certain decisions were made. Researchers have suggested that the level of transparency that fair informational justice engenders contributes to the decision-makers' trustworthiness (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Zapata, Olsen & Martins, 2013; Frazier et al., 2010). In other words, open and truthful communication contributes to establishing trust because the decision-makers' effort to explain the outcome allows the

recipient to perceive them as trustworthy (Colquitt et al., 2001). Furthermore, Colquitt (2001) suggested that collective esteem is linked to informational justice because individuals judge their status collectively by observing how trustworthy authorities are. Therefore, it could be anticipated that informational justice would also influence employees' willingness to engage in protest action through the relationship it has with trustworthiness and trust.

Although the four dimensions of organisational justice were already present in literature towards the end of the 20th century, items were often highly intercorrelated with one another (Colquitt, 2001). There is evidence in the literature that the intercorrelation was due to how items were phases, thus leading participants to misconstrue items from one dimension to measure rules of other dimensions. For example, items in Folger and Konovsky's (1989) procedural justice scale also assessed Bies and Moag's (1986) respect, propriety, justification and truthfulness which are interpersonal justice and informational justice norms. It is, therefore, not until the start of the 21st century that Colquitt's (2001) research clarified these issues by validating a new justice measure which used accurate items based on the amalgamation of rules from Adams (1965) and Homans (1961), Thibaut and Walker (1975), Leventhal (1980), and Bies and Moag (1986). Colquitt's (2001) research further suggested that OJ is best conceptualised as four dimensions and collapsing any two dimensions may mask significant differences. The current research, therefore, examined the four dimensions of organisational justice to obtain a holistic picture of low-income employees' perceptive of justice in their respective organisations and in relation to WEPA.

3.2 Perceived organisation justice (POJ) research in the South African context

The South African's history is marked by apartheid which was a system of social and racial segregation. The apartheid system promoted unfair treatments and discrimination of black, coloured, Indian, females and people with disabilities who could, consequently, not have access quality education or occupy high posts in organisations (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008; Fadeyi et al., 2019; Leibbrandt et al., 2012). The end of apartheid in 1994 was followed by the promulgation of several laws such as the Employment Equity Act (EEA), the Basic Condition of Employment Act (BCEA) to redress the imbalances of the past and to promote fairness in the workplace. Based on the country's history, it was assumed that research on fairness and organisational justice would proliferate organisational psychology literature. However, there is a paucity of organisational justice research in the South African context. The few existing research focus on the relationship between organisational justice and employment equity (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008), disciplinary procedures (Van der Bank, Engelbrecht &

Strumpher, 2008), organisational attractiveness (Pilvinyte, 2013), pay satisfaction based on gender and personality traits (Arya et al., 2019) and organisational change (De Ruiter, Schalk, Schaveling & Van Gelder, 2017). All these researches used elements of the mentioned OJ's conceptualisation. However, none measured all four dimensions of organisational justice.

4 Organisational Trust (OT)

This section presents exiting literature on organisational trust in two parts. The first part presents a summarised history of the concept of trust to provide the reader with an understanding of why this research defined trust as the willingness to be vulnerable in the absence of the ability to monitor or control the other party. The second part focuses on the importance of organisational trust, particularly within the South African context and how organisational trust relates to other variables.

4.1 Trust: what it is and what it is not

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) reviewed over four decades of research on trust. Their meta-analysis concluded that trust was a difficult concept to define because it is complicated and multifaceted. Trust also has different bases and degrees, depending on the context within which the trust relationship is assessed. Bussing (2002, p. 36) supported their view by stating that trust is "not at all a straightforward and clearly defined concept."

Early research on trust stemmed from various disciplines such as sociology, industrial psychology, anthropology and political science, and as a result, different definitions of trust were put forward (Bhattacharya et al., 1998). Some scholars have defined trust as confidence or predictability (Cook & Wall, 1980; Gabarro & Athos, 1976; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). For example, Robinson (1996, p. 576) said that "trust is a person's confidence, expectations or beliefs that another person's future actions will be favourable, beneficial or at least not detrimental to one's interests". The problem with these definitions of trust is that they often fail to capture the trust concept in its entirety. In an attempt to solve issues around the conceptualisation of trust, Mayer, David and Schoorman (1995) suggested the following. First, although trust and confidence refer to expectation that may lead to disappointment, the distinction between the two lies in the person's perception and attitude. In other words, trust requires previous recognition and acceptance that the risk exists, and yet choosing the risky option that may lead to disappointment. Confidence, on the other hand, is the certainty of choosing a particular outcome without considering the alternative and the possibility that the chose may lead to disappointment. Furthermore, predictability is an insufficient definition of

trust because it does not account for the trustees' vulnerability and willingness to take risks. A detailed explanation of these differences can be found in Mayer et al. (1995). Based on their findings, Mayer and his colleagues concluded that trust is the trustor's willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of a trustee. The ability to be vulnerable is based on the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action, irrespective of the trustor's ability to control or monitor the trustee.

4.2 Trust over trustworthiness and propensity to trust

A review of the literature prompted the researcher to measure trust instead of measuring trust propensity or trustworthiness for the following reasons. First, trust propensity is defined as the trustor's personality traits that make him/her more or less likely to trust others (Mayer et al., 1995). According to Colquitt, Scott and Lepine (2007), trust propensity is a stable individual difference that affects one's likelihood to trust others. Although this concept is essential to the current concept of trust because it recognises that often the decision about trust must be made before enough time has passed to gather sufficient information about a person's characteristics. Colquitt et al. (2007) found that one's childhood experiences primarily influence trust propensity. Therefore, it is unlikely that organisational justice would contribute to or influence an individual's personality traits.

On the other hand, trustworthiness is defined as the trustees' characteristic, i.e. benevolence, ability and integrity, that inspires trust. As indicated, trustworthiness may be related to informational justice; hence, the researcher was initially interested in assessing trustworthiness as well as trust. However, scholars have found that the trustworthiness construct tends to overlap with organisational justice and thus result in findings that overestimate the importance of some dimensions of organisational justice (Coquitt et al., 2007; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Akgunduz & Cin, 2015). For this reason, it was found suitable not to measure trustworthiness in the current study because the researcher was more interested in obtaining data on OJ that is enhanced by other variables. Furthermore, the conceptualisation of trust that this study used captures the interplay between the trustee and the trustor's characteristics (Mayer at al., 1995). In other words, items in the trust as willingness to be vulnerable scales are constructed in ways that recognise the interaction between trustworthiness and trust propensity without directly measuring them (Mayer & Davis, 1999; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Schoorman, Mayer & Davis, 2007).

4.3 Organisational trust and its significance within the South African context

Practitioners often indicate that trust is one of the most significant factors for their businesses (Bergh, Thorgen, & Vincent, 2012; Gounaris, 2005). Lai, Chen, Chiu, Pai, & Management (2011) suggested that organisational trust has become a significant contributor to the organisation's success because it provides organisations with a competitive advantage in the current labour war. Moreover, Hay (2002) and Lämsä and Pučėtaitė (2006), argued that the importance of trust in organisations is likely to increase over the next few years. In South Africa, Bews and Rossouw (2002) support that the importance of trust in organisations is likely to increase by arguing that the implementation of employment equity is likely to change workforce composition and trust will play a mandatory role during the transition phase. Furthermore, a study conducted by Klein (2008) indicated that in 2008 the level of trust that the South African population had on its government had dropped by 7.91% since April 2006. Though there are no follow up research on the South African population level of trust, the identified declined calls for more research on trust. Von der Ohe, Martins and Roode (2004 (2004) also noted that organisations tend to overlook the impact that their actions and behaviours may have on the level of trust in the workplace and how it could affect organisational outcomes.

Studies have illustrated a clear link between employees' perception of organisational trust and organisational behavioural outcomes such as performance, turnover intentions or organisational commitment (Akgunduz & Cin, 2015; Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Bal, de Lange, Ybema, Jansen, & van der Velde, 2011; Gounaris, 2005; Mahajan, Bishop & Scott, 2012). Jung & Avolio (2000) pointed out that, managers can develop or improve employees' perception of organisational trust by showing concern for their subordinate welfare and by treating them with respect and dignity. Their views are supported by Erasmus et al. (2017) who conducted research within the South Africa context and found that the trust that employees have on their manager contribute to how well a policy is implemented in an organisation. Other researchers have argued that perceived organisational justice is an antecedent of trust (Aryee et al., 2002; Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013; Colquiit, 2011). Therefore, if employees believe that their organisation is treating them fairly in terms of how decisions are made, they will trust and expect that future decision will be fair (Banerjee & Banerjee, 2013).

5 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

The current section is divided into two parts to present the two theoretical frameworks that helped the researcher develop hypotheses to answer the research question. The first part introduces the literature on fairness heuristic theory, and the hypotheses around the relationship between POJ and WEPA is developed. The second part presents literature on social exchange theory and hypotheses around the relationship between POJ, OT and WEPA are derived.

5.1 POJ predicting WEPA: Fairness Heuristic theory

Fairness heuristic theory is concerned with how individuals in the workplace react to outcomes that derive from their interaction with authorities. The theory suggests that individuals in organisations are faced with a "fundamental social dilemma" (Van den Bos, 2001, p. 73). This dilemma arises from employees' concerns over whether they should cooperate with authorities because cooperation can lead to better organisational outcomes but can also increase the risk of exploitation (Lind, 2001a; Van den Bos, 2001). To cope with this dilemma, individuals use a 'fairness heuristic' as a shortcut to determine whether or not to cooperate with authorities. Furthermore, Lind (2001a) and Van den Bos (2001) argued that people tend to form justice judgment relatively quickly because justice is gauged in terms of rules (norms) such as accuracy, consistency, correct ability, justification and respect. These rules are frequently encountered and often easily interpreted (Bies & Moag, 1986; Leventhal, 1980). Therefore, employees can quickly develop perceptions of distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational fairness from authorities after their first few experiences of the employment relationship.

Fairness heuristic theory details two general phases of the working life, namely a 'judgmental phase' and a 'use phase'. The judgmental phase is relatively short, while the use phase is longer (Lind, 2001a; Van den Bos, 2001; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011). During the judgmental phase, individuals quickly arrive at a general fairness judgment of the authority by evaluating immediately available information. That information could be procedural, distributive, interpersonal, or informational (Lind, 2001a; Van den Bos, 2001). The theory argues that individuals will use the most interpretable information they first encounter to arrive at a judgment. In the use phase, they assume this general heuristic to be accurate and, as a result, it impacts daily attitudes and behaviours. Based on this theory, one may say that employees will develop a perception of fairness on authorities based on the primary interaction; and over time, these perceptions are confirmed or disconfirmed. Consequently, employees' behaviour would align with how they perceive fairness from the authority figure. In

organisations, people with a position of authority are supervisors/managers and employers (Van Dijke, De Cremer & Mayer, 2010).

Recent studies have used the fairness heuristic theory to examine the predictive capacity of perceived organisational justice on work-related outcomes such as commitment, turnover intention and job satisfaction (Bal et al., 2011; Caza et al., 2015; Klendauer & Deller, 2009). For example, Bal et al. (2011) argued that when employees' overall perception of the department is that it is unjust, they are more likely to leave the organisation than request a transfer to another department because they believe that the other department will also be unjust. On the other hand, Whitman, Caleo, Carpenter, Horner and Bernerth (2012) meta-analysis found that a shared positive perception of OJ enhances employees' collective loyalty to the organisation. Other researchers have suggested that mutual loyalty is negatively related to counterproductive workplace behaviours (Cropanzano et al., 2011; Du, Shin & Choi, 2015). Therefore, it is anticipated that perceptions of OJ are negatively related to employees' WEPA. In line with this theory and previous research, the author hypothesised that:

H_1: As employees' positive perceptions of organisational justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice) increases, their willingness to engage in protest action will decrease.

5.2 Trust Mediating the POJ, WEPA interaction: Social Exchange theory

Another theory that contains propositions relevant to the POJ-WEPA connection is the Social Exchange Theory. Blau (1964) defined social exchange theory as an individual's voluntary actions that derive from the expectation that what they give will result in a return. Blau's (1964) definition of social exchange theory is famous in the organisational behaviour literature because, first, he argued that social exchange involves long-term and continual unnamed exchange of both tangible and intangible obligations. Salary and wages are examples of tangible resources, whereas repect, commitment and turnover intentions are examples of intangible resources. Secondly, his definition recognises the importance of the norm of reciprocity and trust in social exchanges (Blau, 1964; Colquit & Rondell, 2011; Farndale et al., 2011).

Blau (1964, p. 94) claimed that "since there is no way to assure an appropriate return for a favour, social exchange requires trusting others to discharge their obligations". In other words, social exchange required trusting others for the norms of reciprocity to be initiated (Lioukas & Reuer, 2015). In support of Blau's claim, Zeffane, Ibrahim and Al Mehairi (2008)

argued that in the absence of some foundation of trust, it would be difficult to develop social relationships. It is worth noting that Blau's (1964) description of trust seems quite similar to Mayer and colleagues' (1995) willingness to be vulnerable, as it implies accepting vulnerability because one expects that an action will occur irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other's behaviour.

Many researchers have used Blau's theorisation to argue that the reciprocal relationship between perceived organisational justice and organisational outcomes is based on trust (e.g. Aryee et al., 2002; Farndale et al., 2011; Kougiannou, Redman & Dietz, 2015). For example, Farndale et al. (2011) argued that employees would trust that since current organisational decisions are fair, future organisational decisions will be fair and reciprocate by showing a high level of commitment. Another research by Awang and Ahmad (2015) also found that employees were more likely to demonstrate OCB when they trusted and perceived that their organisation used fair procedures. Therefore, as hypothesised earlier, if employees' perceptions of fair treatment contribute to their behaviour and WEPA; then, based on the social exchange theory, employees need to first trust in the exchange partner for the exchange between perceived fairness and behaviour to be initiated. The researcher contends that to the extent that trust is a manifestation of social exchange and social exchange underpins the expression of fairness, trust will mediate the relationship between organisational justice and the employee work-related attitudes and behaviours (WEPA).

H_2: Trust mediates the relationship between low-income workers' perceptions of organisational justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice) and their willingness to engage in protest actions.

Social exchange theory provides additional insight into the POJ-WEPA relationship because it acknowledges that the employment relationship is certainly not limited to the relationship between employees and their supervisors (Hom et al., 2009). As illustrated above, fairness heuristic theory is only concerned with how employees' perceptions of fairness towards a person of authority influence their behaviours and attitudes in the workplace (Lind, 2001a; Van den Bos, 2001). Social exchange theory, on the other hand, provides bases for understanding and explaining employees' perception of fairness towards any person or group of people with whom they have a social exchange in the workplace (Aryee et al., 2002; Blau, 1964). This is not to say that the fairness heuristic theory is irrelevant for this research, on the contrary, it has provided a framework for understanding the predictive capacity of POJ on

WEPA outside it interaction with trust. Nonetheless, because this research is first to explore the relationship between POJ, OT and WEPA, it was deemed necessary to include a theoretical framework that would not limit the research to perceptions of fairness towards a person of authority (supervisors and employers). Furthermore, it is necessary to assess employees' perception of organisational justice concerning different actors because scholars have found that there is a systematic difference in how perceptions of justice towards different actors influence workplace outcomes (Devonish & Greenidge, 2010; Molina et al., 2015; Le Roy, Bastounis & Poussard, 2012; Priesemuth, Arnaud & Schminke, 2013). For example, Priesemuth et al. (2013) found that the collective perception of overall injustice at work shapes negative group behaviours. In other words, injustice shown by the supervisor was a strong predictor of CWB toward the individual and the organisation (Devonish & Greenidge, 2010). On the other hand, fairness shown by co-workers enhanced CWB because it increases employees' sense of immunity (Priesemuth et al., 2013).

5.2.1. Referents of trust and POJ. Researchers on organisational trust seem to mainly focus trust in supervisor/manager because there is evidence of the influence that the supervisor-employee relationship has on employees' behaviour in the workplace (Conway, 2011; Li & Tan, 2013; Costigan, Insinga, Berman, Kranas & Kureshov, 2011). This extensive focus on supervisors is problematic for advancing literature on trust in the organisation. Early workers of Becker, (1992) and Reichers (1985) showed that employees differentiate between multiple exchange partners in the workplace – supervisors, employers and co-workers. In a recent systematic review, Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) distinguished between three categories of referents of trust, namely interpersonal, team and organisation. The interpersonal category includes trust in supervisor, an employer or a single co-worker. The team referent refers to trust in a collective form, i.e. a workgroup that works on achieving a shared goal. Finally, the organisation as a referent refers to trust in the organisation as a whole. Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) further argued that understanding the referents of trust is theoretically relevant because it allows researchers to tease out employees' trust desires as it uniquely and distinctly relates to their co-workers, supervisors, and organisations. The current research will, therefore, attempt to tease out low-income employees' needs by examining whether trust in supervisor, employer and co-workers mediated the POJ-WEPA relationship.

The current research is specifically interested in the interpersonal and collective referents of trust. The interpersonal referent of trust is examined against POJ and WEPA because there is empirical evidence that different level of management affects employees'

behaviour differently (Erdem & Özen-Aytemur, 2014; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Mahajan et al., 2012; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). Mahajan et al. (2012) argued that trust in top management – CEOs, boards of directors, employer—is vital because it contributes to organisational commitment and performance. They further argued that since decisions from an organisation's top management influence the organisations' policies, culture, and whether employees remain employed or lose their jobs. A lack of trust in top management would likely leave employees spending time, during working hours, speculating about their futures in the company or the future of the company itself. Conversely, trust in top management may allow employees to focus on the work at hand, instead of worrying about issues such as the viability of their employment.

Neves and Caetano (2009), on the other hand, found that trust in the immediate supervisor is related to numerous work-related outcomes because of the close relationship between the two parties. Li and Tan's (2013) research specifically showed that employees who trusted their immediate supervisors performed better because the trust relationship fostered a pleasant work environment. Based on the above findings, the researcher expects that employees who trust in their supervisors and employer will spend less time speculating about their income and will be less interested in engaging in protest actions for higher wages.

H_{3a}: As trust in supervisor decrease, willingness to engage in protest action increases.
H_{3b}: As trust in employer decrease, willingness to engage in protest action increases.

As mentioned above, the researcher is also interested in the collective referent of trust because there is empirical evidence that trust increases group coalition (Stoverink, Umphress, Gardner & Miner, 2014; Tan & Lim, 2009). Co-workers refer to members of an organisation who hold relatively equal power and with whom an employee interact with daily at work (Lin Dar, 2009). It is reasonable to believe that trust in co-workers would be positively related to willingness to engage in protest action because employees would trust that their colleagues will support the idea and protest alongside them. Although Lin Dar's (2009), research found that trust is negatively related to CWB, the CWB that he examined was directed at co-workers, i.e. pranking or sabotaging a co-worker's workstation, which ultimately negatively affects the organisation. The CWB explored in this research (protest action) requires solidarity amongst employees (Akkerman, Born & Torenvlied, 2013). Therefore, based on Tan and Lim's (2009) argument that trust increases group coalition, the following hypothesis is developed.

H_{3c}: As trust in co-workers increase, willingness to engage in protest action increases.

As indicated earlier, there is numerous research on the relationship between organisational trust and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover intention and OCB (Bal, et al., 2011; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Cook & Wall, 1980); Katou, 2013; Farndale et al., 2011). Vanhala and Ahteela (2011) argued that organisational justice has a positive influence on trust in managers. Colquitt and Rodell (2011) research support their argument by illustrating that all four dimensions of organisational justice are positively related to trust in supervisors. Other studies have shown that organisational justice is positively related to trust in top management or employer (Costigan et al., 2011; Akgunduz & Cin, 2015). Though there is a paucity of research on the relationship between organisational justice and trust in co-workers, Pearce, Bigley, and Branyiczki (1998) have argued that organisational justice influence employees' trust in co-workers. Their research found that fair procedures affect trust in a top-down manner, creating trust in the organisation and trust in co-workers. Following from the above literature, the researcher hypothesised that:

H_{4a}: As organisational justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and information) increases, trust in supervisor increases.

H_{4b}: As organisational justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and information) increases, trust in employer increases.

H_{4c}: As organisational justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and information) increases, trust in co-workers increase.

5.3 Covariates of willingness to engage in protest action (WEPA)

It would be naïve and remiss to claim that the four dimensions of perceived organisational justice and trust in supervisor, employer and co-workers are the only factors that could explain low-income workers willingness to engage in protest actions. Thus, to account for alternate explanations, the research included gender and previous engagement in protest actions at work and outside of work as covariates. These covariates were selected based on the following reasons. First, the current study is conducted within a South African society where gender roles are pronounced. For example, there is evidence in the South African workplace protests literature that men are often seen at the frontline of protest actions (Benya, 2013). Therefore, gender may influence whether or not employees are willing to engage in protest actions. Second, according to Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, people learn from experience and a likely to repeat behaviours that led to positive outcomes and avoid behaviour that yielded unfavourable outcomes. With regards to the current study, depending on the

outcome of protest action, low-income workers who have previously protested may be more or less likely to be interested in protesting again.

6 Conceptual framework

In summation, the researcher seeks to examine the relationships between perceived organisational justice, organisational trust and willingness to engage in protest actions for higher wages. One hypothesised that the four dimensions of organisational justice are negatively related to willingness to engage in protest action through their interaction with organisational trust (in supervisor, employer and co-workers). Besides, demographic variables, namely gender and previous involvement in protest action at work and outside of work, are included as covariates of willingness to engage in protest actions. The conceptual framework is presented in Figure 1.

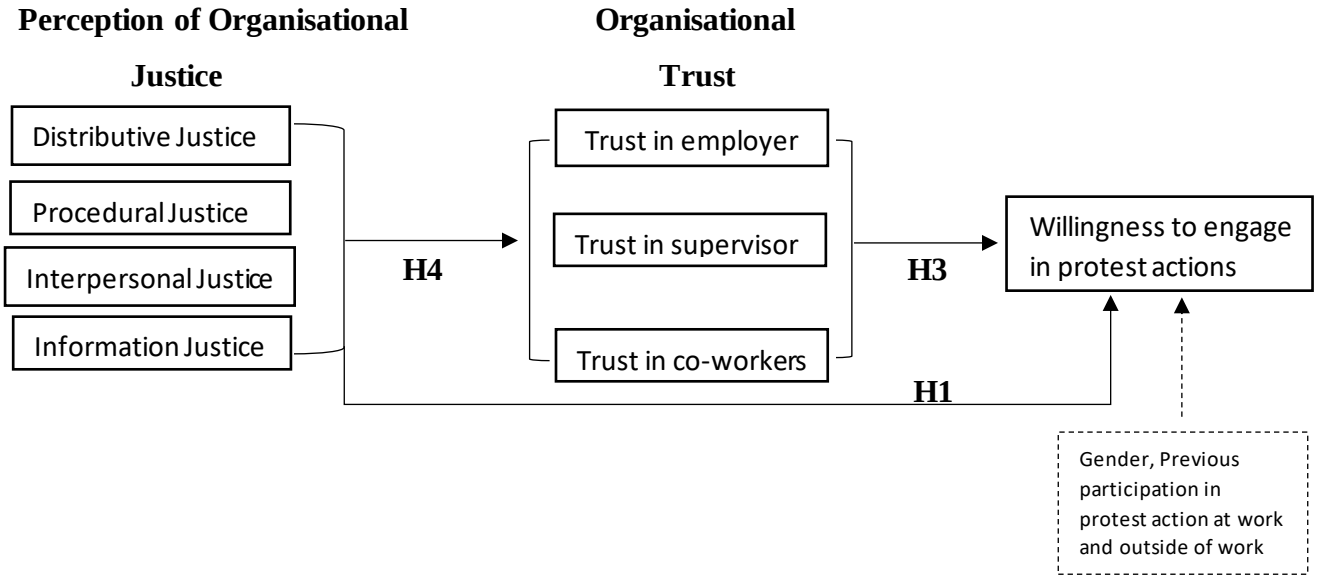


Figure 1. The conceptual framework for the relationship between Perceptions of Organisational Justice, Organisational Trust and Willingness to engage in protest actions.

Chapter Three: Method

This chapter consists of seven subsections explaining the approaches used to test the hypotheses. The subsections are research design, sampling and participants, measures, procedure, ethical considerations, data management and statistical analyses.

1. Research design

A descriptive cross-sectional research design was used in conjunction with the research question. The current study is descriptive because the researcher was interested in exploring relationships that occurred naturally without manipulating any variables (Field, 2013). A cross-sectional research design is useful for assessing the relationship between multiple naturally-occurring variables at a single point in time. This research design is also deemed appropriate for the current study because it enabled the researcher to gather preliminary data on the relationship between variables that have never been explored before (Rosnouw & Rosenthal, 2013). Furthermore, data were collected at a single point in time to ensure that the study was conducted within the designated one-year Master's degree.

A quantitative data collection approach was deemed suitable for this study because it allowed the researcher to analyse vast information with the use of statistical packages, and use the findings to pave ways for father research (Terre Blanch et al., 2006). Besides, this data collection approach aligns with the researcher question, which seeks to find the relationship between more than two variables (Terre Blanch et al., 2006). Data, in the current research, was collected via a self-administered pen-and-paper survey. A pen-and-paper survey data collection method was most appropriate because it allowed the researcher to gather information from a large sample (Stuart, Maynard & Rouncefield, 2015). Furthermore, since the population of interest were low-income employees, the researcher assumed that they may not always have access to devices with a stable internet connection to complete an online survey.

2. Sampling and Participants

The population of interest were low-income workers. As there is no one agreed-upon statistical indicator of what constitutes a low-income in South Africa. The researcher used occupational categories that are reported as low-income earning jobs to define low-income operationally. Since Retail work is listed in the National Minimum Wage Panel Report (2019), as a low-income paying job; and retail workers can earn a maximum of R8, 537 per month

(Salary of a retail associate, 2019). This study operationally defined low-income workers as individuals who are working in formal employment and earn less than R9, 000 per month.

Participants were sampled using convenience and snowballing sampling methods, and thus non-probability sampling techniques. This sampling technique implies that members of the population did not have an equal chance of being selected for the study (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). Though non-probability sampling raises questions about generalisability of the findings because data might not be normally distributed, there are available statistical methods that one can use to render the negative effect of a skewed sample negligible. Furthermore, this sampling technique was preferred because the current research is descriptive and the researcher was more interested in determining whether the hypothesised relationships exist despite the time and resource constraints (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena & Nigam, 2013; Etikan et al., 2016).

A final total of 151 participants completed surveys. Thirty participants were conveniently recruited from a low-income community in Cape Town, 1/3 were obtained from a local factory. The 60 participants from the factory were then asked to share the survey with friends and family, and a total of 90 surveys were handed out to them. Each participant that received additional survey to distribute was verbally informed to refrain from reading the content of the survey and not to share or disclose information enclosed in the survey. Of the 90 surveys, 61 completed surveys were returned to the researcher. It was necessary to obtain a sample from a diverse location and field of work to adverse possibilities that the observed findings may be associated with a phenomenon specific to an organisation (Morse, 2000). Researcher removed four participants during data cleaning because there was clear evidence of patterns in the way they had completed the survey, and patterned answers are known to skew the data (Schonlau & Toepoel, 2015). The final sample for the current research, thus, consisted of 147 low-income workers.

Participants ages varied from 18 to 63 (M = 33.00, SD = 10.13). There were more females 59.6% (n = 90) than males 37.7% of the sample (n = 57) in the current study. In terms of prior participation in protest actions, 58.9% (n = 89) of participants indicated that they have never participated in protest actions at work. Four participants preferred not to answer and given that four surveys were removed due to evident pattern answers, the remaining 35.7% (n = 54) indicated that they previously were involved in protest actions at work. Similarly, most participants indicated that they have never participated in protest actions outside of work

(64.9%). Eight participants preferred not to answer this item, and the remaining 27.2% (*n* = 41) said that they had participated in protest actions outside of work.

Three participants preferred not to indicate their income brackets, the majority of participants 27.8% (*n*= 42) indicated earning between R3 001 and R4 000, 21.2% (*n*= 32) earned between R2 001 and R3 000, 11.9% (*n*= 18) earned between R1 001 and R2 000, the remaining participants' estimated incomes can be found in Table 1. On average, participants indicated supporting 3.28 (*SD* = 2.17) people with their incomes, and the maximum number of people a participant supported with his/her income was eight, while the minimum was zero. Furthermore, the number of people earning an income in the household other than the participant ranged from 0 to 10 (*M* = 2.18, *SD* = 1.60). The remaining demographics on participants' occupation and the year in which they started working can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Statistics of Low-income employees (N=147)

		Frequency	Percentage
Job title	Sorter/Picker/General Worker	31	20.5%
	Customer service and sales	25	16.5%
	Cashier/Packer	21	13.9%
	Driver and Driver's assistant	11	7.2%
	Cleaner	10	6.6%
	Bartender and Waiter/Waitress	4	2.6%
	Admin	3	2.0%
	Manager	2	1.3%
	Receptionist	2	1.3%
	Others	28	20.1%
	Missing values	14	9.3%
Year of the start of employment	2019	35	23.2%
	2018	22	14.6%
	2016	21	13.9%
	2017	18	11.9%
	2014	9	6.0%
	2012	8	5.3%
	2015	5	3.3%
	2013	4	2.6%
	2008	2	1.3%
	2009	2	1.3%
	2011	2	1.3%
	1996	1	.7%
	1999	1	.7%
	2001	1	.7%
	2002	1	.7%
	2003	1	.7%

	2004	1	.7%
	2007	1	.7%
	2010	1	.7%
	Missing values	15	9.9%
Income bracket	3001-4000	42	27.8%
	2001-3000	32	21.2%
	1001-2000	18	11.9%
	>9000	12	7.9%
	4001-5000	11	7.3%
	8001-9000	9	6.0%
	5001-6000	8	5.3%
	<1000	6	4.0%
	6001-7000	3	2.0%
	7001-8000	3	2.0%
	Missing values	7	4.6%

3. Measures

Most variables of interest were assessed using items from existing scales. The complete survey can be found in Appendix A. The researcher assumed that English might not be the first language of participants. Therefore, the wording of all items was assessed and, if deemed necessary, altered from their original wording to facilitate item understanding.

3.1. ***Perceptions of Organisational Justice (POJ):*** The study used Colquitt's (2001) 20-items scale to measure POJ. The scale consists of four subscales that measure the four dimensions of OJ: procedural justice (7-items), distributive justice (4-items), interpersonal justice (4-items) and informational justice (5-items). This scale was selected because it is first to adequately measures all four dimensions of OJ distinctively rather than as a composite construct (Colquit, 2001). Though the four subscales have not been validated in South Africa, Arya et al., (2019) validated the distributive and procedural justice subscales in a sample that closely resembled the one in the current study. They found a two-factor structure and all distributive and procedural justice items loaded on each factor. International researchers in America and Australia found that the four-dimensional structure was replicated in their studies (e.g. Arya et al., 2019; Lim & Loosemore, 2017; Mirchandani, Dinesh et al., 2019; Shapoval, 2019). These authors also reported good to excellent internal consistency for the subscales. It was therefore considered probable that all four subscales of Colquitt's (2001) OJ scale would be reliable and valid measures of POJ within the South African context.

In the original 20-items scale, responses were measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 = to a very small extent to 5 = to a very large extent, indicating the extent to which participants agreed to items which were formulated as questions. Higher scores were an indication of high levels of POJ. However, to facilitate understanding, all POJ items were presented as statements instead of questions in the current study's survey. Responses were thus measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 4 (Always) indicating the extent to which participants agreed with how often the statement occurred. A 1 to 4 range was used to remove the likelihood that participants will choose the middle or neutral value. The original and reworded POJ subscales can be found in Appendix B table B1.

3.1.1. Perceptions of procedural and distributive justice are measured at the organisational level because they refer to fairness around policies and procedure that led to an outcome and the nature of the outcome itself (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Rego & Cunba, 2010). In the subsequent chapters, the researcher will refer to procedural and distributive justice as "neutral perceived organisational justice" because the two dimensions refer to fairness from the organisation. Since employees perceive that employers are the creators of the policies and procedures (Ince & Gül, 2011), the researcher used the word 'employer' instead of 'organisation' to facilitate participants' understanding. Furthermore, as the current research is interested in low-income employees' willingness to engage in protest actions for higher wages, the survey referred to 'wages' as the outcome that was distributed. Therefore, the four items in the distributive justice subscale assessed the degree to which the organisation adhered to the equity rules as outlined by Adams (1965) and Homans (1961). The first item was changed from "do those outcomes reflect the effort that you have put into your work?" to "I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work". Moreover, all seven items in the procedural justice subscale assessed the degree to which the organisation adhere to norms of voice (Leventhal, 1976), consistency, accuracy, bias suppression, correctability, representation and ethicality (Leventhak et al., 1980). Item three, for example, was adapted from "are those procedures applied consistently?" to "My employer uses correct information when they decide on something".

3.1.2. Perceptions of interpersonal and informational justice, on the other hand, are assessed at the individual level because they disentangle the fairness of what a person communicates from how they communicated (Arya et al., 2019; Colquitt, 2001; Gerlach, 2019). The researcher deemed necessary that informational and interpersonal justice items

should refer to supervisors, employer and co-workers to obtain and understand the social exchange between the three cohorts. Furthermore, by using the employer and the supervisor as distinct referents, the researcher was able to obtain answers concerning to both the employer and a proximal, salient manager (supervisor) who is known to the individual and regularly interacts with them. Consequently, interpersonal and informational justice items were adapted to reflect the three referents. For the interpersonal justice subscale, the four items were developed in line with the respect and propriety rules that Bies and Moag (1986) outlined. Item one, for example, was modified from "Has your supervisor treated you in a polite manner?" to "My supervisor is polite to me". Lastly, for the informational justice subscale, the five items align with the justification and truthfulness rules outlined in Bies and Moag (1986). For example, item one was changed from "Has your supervisor been candid when communicating with you?" to "My employer is open when communicating with me".

3.2. ***Trust in the employer, the supervisor and co-workers:*** Mayer and Davis' (1999) 5-item scale were used to measure trust in the supervisor, employer and co-workers. This scale was deemed most appropriate because it measures employees' willingness to be vulnerable to the trustee instead of measuring other dimensions of trust, i.e. confidence or predictability. Though this scale was never validated within a South African context, scholars who used the scales in other regions reported that it is a one dimension scale with good to excellent internal consistency (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Mayer & Gavin, 2005).

Each item in the original scale consists of a statement. To answer, participants had to indicate the degree in which they agreed with the statement. The items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. In order to make the items more accessible to the sample, some items were reworded. The item "If I had my way, I wouldn't let… have any influence over issues that are important to me.", for example, was reworded to "I would allow my employer to have influence over what is important to me." Although responses were still collected on a Likert scale, in the current study, participants responded by choosing between: 1 = never, 2 = almost never, 3 = almost always, and 4 = always. Each participant responded to the scale three times to enable the researcher to gather data on their trust in the supervisor, the employer and co-workers. The original and reworded trust scale can be found in Appendix B Table B2.

3.3. ***Willingness to engage in protest action (WEPA):*** There is no existing scale that measures WEPA because there are no empirical studies on this construct. A study that

investigated individuals' willingness to participate in bio-banking made use of hypothetical scenarios (Amin, Hashim, Mahadi & Ismail, 2018). Other researchers argued that a person's willingness to participate could be captured by understanding their views about the action that they are asked to participate in (Heath, Douglas, & Russell, 1995). Gatny and Axinn (2012) used a combination of these two methods to measure women's willingness to participate in research during pregnancy. They, therefore, first asked participants about their views on "clinical research studies in general" (Gatny & Axinn, 2012, p. 141). Then they used a hypothetical scenario where pregnant women were recruited to participate in a survey interview and asked participants questions based on the scenario. Similarly, the current study measured WEPA in two ways. Four items assessed participants' views on protesting. Participants had to indicate how often the following statements were applicable to them.

- I would support the idea of ToiToying to express my dissatisfaction with my current wage.
- I would be willing to encourage others to ToiToi.
- I would be willing to ToiToi.
- If your colleagues who work in the same position as you were very unhappy about their current wages and decided to ToiToi, would you join them?

Following these items, the researcher presented scenarios with four open-ended questions:

Imagine you wanted a higher wage from your employer.

- What would you do?
    - Why?
- Would you ever take part in protest actions?
    - If yes, Why. If no, why not?

3.4. ***Control Variables and Demographics:*** Information about participants' gender were coded female, male and preferred not to answer. Participants were also asked to indicate whether they had previously participated in a protest action at work or outside of work by indicating yes or no. Furthermore, to thoroughly describe the sample, the researcher added questions in the survey to gather the following data: age, tenure of employment, occupation, income, number of people earning an income in the household and number of people the participant supports with his or her income.

4. Procedure

Data collection began after the researcher had received approval from the university's Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee. The approval letter is provided in Appendix C. To find participants that earned a low-income (less than R 9 000), the researcher contacted a local community leader and explained the nature and content of the research. The community leader approached qualifying individuals and, if willing to participate, asked for them to meet the researcher on a particular date and time at a venue in the community. The researcher then administered the surveys to each participant. Since this research is funded by the National Research Foundation (NRF) under the South African Research Chair Initiative chair in the creation of decent work and sustainable livelihood, one found necessary that participants who sacrificed their time to go to the venue and take part in the study be rewarded fairly and adequately. All 30 participants from the local community who completed the survey received an incentive in the form of R60 voucher from a local supermarket. R60 represents the living wage rate for 30 minutes of work, and this is based on Carr et al.'s (2018) research which found that R12 000 is the estimated monthly living wage for a person who works eight to nine hours per day. Participants were asked to write their names and sign on a separate page to indicate that they had received the incentive. This data collection strategy was, however, terminated after the first day because it became evident that people who did not meet the inclusion criteria for the study, i.e. people who were unemployed or retired elderly, wanted to complete the survey to receive the incentive.

The second data collection strategy was to approach participants while they waited for public transport at taxi ranks and train stations. Taxi ranks and train stations were considered a suitable location for data collection because low-income employees often commute to and from work using public transport (Dawood & Mokonyama, 2015; Piek, 2017). Accordingly, the researcher approached people while they waited for the train to arrive or for the taxi to depart. However, after the researcher had spent three hours each on three days at two taxi ranks and two train stations and did not find participants willing to take part in the study, she deemed this strategy unsuccessful as well. The main reason people were reluctant to complete the survey is that they believed that their train or taxi would arrive or leave before they finished answering all the questions.

The researcher then decided to contact a local Cape Town factory and requested to meet with the owner in person. At the meeting, the researcher explained the purpose of the research

and the type of participants she needed. The factory owner agreed that the researcher could solicit her employees and suggested that Tuesday, Wednesday and Friday mornings would be fitting since employees were not very occupied on those days. Once the researcher had received the factory owners' written agreement, which can be seen in Appendix D, she went to the factory at specified times to distribute the surveys. Since the survey questions involved perception of justice and trust from people in the organisation, there was a risk that employees might think that their employer would have access to their responses and therefore not answer honestly. To counter the effect of completing the survey at work, the researcher did the following. She firstly ensured that she handed out the survey to participants herself to show participants that their employer or supervisor was not part of the research process. The researcher further emphasised to each participant that the research was independent of their job and that their employer would not have access to their responses. Lastly, the researcher read the information sheet (see Appendix E) to each participant, she emphasised the anonymity element and urged participants not to write identifiable information such as their name on the survey. Participants completed the survey on the same day. Data collection at the factory took place over three weeks. Finally, since participants completed the survey at work during their working hours, providing them with an incentive was no longer found necessary.

To further increase the pool of participants, the researcher used snowballing by asking participants who completed the questionnaire to take a few surveys and to share them with their friends and family. Each participant was given two questionnaires that they could share with people that they know. The researcher collected those surveys two to three days after it had been given to participants, thus providing participants enough time to find someone who could complete the survey.

5. Ethical considerations

The research adhered to ethical standards and guidelines, as indicated in the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee at the University of Cape Town (UCT). Each participant was informed of the study purpose, the benefits and risks that they may face by participating. An anticipated risk was that after participants completed the survey, they may realise that their level of trust and perception of fairness toward their employer and supervisor is low. This awareness could potentially result in employees feeling dissatisfied with their job, unsettled and trapped. As a result, participants may become more willing to resort to protest actions to

express their dissatisfaction. Each participant thus received a pamphlet that outlined the LRA endorsed procedures that allow people to voice their workplace dissatisfaction lawfully.

As indicated in the research procedure, some participants received R 60 voucher for participating in the research while others did not. The ethical implications of providing participants incentives have widely been researched (Roche, Mohan, Gavin & McNicholas, 2013; Singer & Bossarte, 2006; Zutlevics, 2016). Singer and Bossarte (2006) argued that financial incentives are unethical because the practice is coercive and may result in undue influences on participants which may then skew the data. On the other hand, researchers in favour of incentivising participants argued that payment is ethical as it rightly recognises the contribution individuals make to research. Furthermore, they argue that without such financial recognition, the number of participants opting to be involved in research would be insufficient to achieve statistically robust results; payment is thus viewed as a necessary means of increasing sample sizes (Dunn & Gordon, 2005; Roche et al., 2013; Stones and McMillan, 2010).

While the two streams of debates tend to qualify their positions, a point of agreement is nicely captured by Zutlevics (2016), who argued that inducement in the form of financial incentive is permissible when the risk of harm to the individual is negligible in terms of degree and probability of occurrence. On this note, the current study's researcher attended to the potential risk this study may have had on participants by providing them with a pamphlet on procedures to follow to engage in lawful protest actions at work. Besides, participants were verbally informed of the risk of taking part in the study. The information sheet also disclosed that participants could rightfully refuse to take part in the study or to withdraw their consent at any moment. Lastly, gathering data from a non-incentivised sample allowed the researcher to deduce that providing incentive did not skew the data since she could compare data of those who were incentivised from those who were not and did not observe any difference (Zutlevics, 2016).

It is worth noting that participants who provided their personal information (name and signature) to acknowledge that they had received an incentive may have compromised participants' anonymity. However, participants' names were obtained on a separate page, and not on the survey itself. Therefore, their personal information could not be traced or linked to the anonymised survey which they had completed. To maintain anonymity of participants who completed the survey that was provided to factory employees, the researcher verbally urged

participants not to open or read the content of the survey booklet after their family/friends had completed it. Furthermore, in the event that they had seen the content of the completed survey, that they were advised not to share that information with any third party. Lastly, the researcher also maintained confidentiality throughout the study by encrypting and storing all collected data in a secure cloud account (Google Drive).

6. Data Management

As mentioned, data were collected using hard copy surveys. The researcher captured all information on IBM's Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 24. Surveys were numbered to the electronic entry to link the hard copy to the electronic entry. While electronic data were encrypted and stored in a secure cloud account, all hard-copy surveys were kept in the researcher's home office, which only she can access. All the data were and will only be made available for the purpose of the study. The researcher will continue to store raw data for five years and shred the surveys after that.

6. Statistical Analyses

Once all data were captured on SPSS and cleaned adequately; the researcher assessed the measurement validity and reliability using Principal Axis Factor (PAF) and Cronbach's alpha. As mentioned, descriptive statistics were also used to attempt to understand and appropriately interpret participants' responses. Multiple regression analysis and moderation analysis using Hayes' *PROCESS* allowed the researcher to test the study's hypotheses. Lastly, the researcher analysed the open-ended questions using frequency counts to deepen one's understanding of participants' responses and factors that may contribute to their WEPA.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter presents the study's findings in five sub-sections. The first sub-section presents a description of the validity and reliability of each scales and subscales used in the study. The second presents the study's descriptive statistic. In the last three sub-sections, the study's results related to the hypotheses are presented.

1. Structure and Consistency of Measurement Scales

The current study used an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to identify the underlying structure of the different scales that were used to measure POJ, OT and WEPA. Furthermore, the researcher used EFA to determine the degree to which the identified factors denote each construct. EFA was selected over Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) because CAF is used when the researcher has a strong rational on the factors that denote each variable (Henson & Roberts, 2006). In the current study, however, the researcher could not confidently anticipate the scales' structures because the WEPA scale was recently developed for this study and the other variables were developed in a western context and never administered on low-income South African workers.

Factor analysis is imperative because, if well applied, it results in a study that is parsimonious since it reduces the scales to obtain fewer items with maximum variance explained (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Parsimonious studies tend to have greater external validity because simple explanations are easier and more straightforward to replicate than complicated ones (Henson & Roberts, 2006). Factor analysis also ascertains that a scale measures the construct it is meant to measure and nothing else (Hair, Anderson, Babin & Black, 2010; Field, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The method of data extraction used in this study is Principal Axis Factor (PAF). PAF was found most suitable because it identifies latent constructs based on the common variance amongst items (Pallant, 2013). Principal Component Analysis (PCA), on the other hand, only reduces items into fewer component and does not differentiate between the shared and unique variance amongst items (Henson & Roberts, 2006). Consequently, PCA is often not considered as rigorous factor analysis (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999; Henson & Roberts, 2006).

Oblique rotation was used to minimize the complexity of factor loadings and to simplify the interpretation of factors. Oblique rotation was preferred over orthogonal rotation because there is theoretical evidence that POJ, OT and WEPA are latent variables, and items in latent

variables often correlate with one another (Luthans B, Luthans K & Jensen, 2012). To further improve the interpretation of factor analysis, Kaiser's (1960) criterion was used in this study. The criterion suggests that only factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 should be considered as meaningful. A lower limit of .30 was set to consider items that loaded significantly onto a factor (Field, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The researcher omitted items that loaded significantly on more than one factor with an absolute loading-difference of less than .25 because one could not discern which factor the item was most related to (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). However, if the absolute loading-difference was .25 or higher, the researcher concluded that the item loaded significantly on the factor with the highest factor loading. To summarise, the researcher used PAF, oblimin rotation and minimum factor loadings of .30 to determine the scales' construct validity and dimensionality.

Before performing the PAF on the scales, the researcher assessed two assumptions. The first test was establishing the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (KMO), which determines whether the sample was adequate to perform PAF. The assumption suggests that if KMO is higher than .70, the sample is adequate (Kaiser, 1960). The researcher then assessed Bartlett's Test of Sphericity which analyses the overall correlation between items in a scale. A significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p < .5$) indicates an adequate correlation between items, and therefore factor analysis can be performed (Bartlett, 1950; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

Following factor analysis, the researcher used Cronbach's alpha (α) to assess the internal consistency of each scale by adhering to the guideline that Nunnally (1978) proposed. Cronbach's alpha: $\alpha < .50$ = unacceptable internal consistency, $.50 < \alpha < .60$ = questionable internal consistency, $.60 < \alpha < .70$ = acceptable internal consistency, $.70 < \alpha < .80$ = good internal consistency, $\alpha > .80$ = excellent internal consistency. Additionally, the extent to which an individual item is correlated to the total score was determined using corrected item-total correlations and only items with scores greater than .30 were retained (Pallant, 2013).

1.1 Perceived organisational justice (POJ)

The most recent theoretical conceptualisation of organisational justice suggests that it consists of four dimensions and empirical studies have shown that employees discriminate between them (Cho & Sai, 2013; Colquitt, 2001; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). To assess the dimensionality of POJ for the current study, the researcher included items from all neutral POJ dimensions (procedural, distributive) and dimensions related to the supervisor (interpersonal

and informational) in the first analysis. In the second analysis, neutral and POJ dimensions related to the employer were included, and in the third analysis, all neutral and POJ dimensions related co-workers were included.

1.1.1. Neutral POJ, interpersonal and informal justice as shown by the supervisor. Colquitt (2001) four-factor structure was replicated in the current study, although five rounds of PAF, with items removed during each round, was required to identify a clear factor structure. The four rounds of PAF are presented below.

Round 1. The KMO value of .74 and a significant Bartlett's test (X^2_{190} =1100.07, p < .001) indicated that it was suitable to conduct PAF across the 20 items. As summarised in Table 2, six factors emerged, which explained 65.80% of the total variance in participants' responses. Items "My employer always uses the same ways to make decisions" and "My employer uses correct information when they decide on something" were removed because they did not load onto any of the factors. The loadings of all items on each of the factors are provided in Appendix F, Table F1.

Table 2

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 20-item POJ Supervisor

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.68	23.41
2	1.95	9.77
3	1.34	6.71
4	1.01	5.05
5	.82	4.10
6	.75	3.73

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required. (Convergence = .001).

Round 2. The KMO measure and Bartlett's test again indicated the data is suitability for PAF (KMO = .73; X^2_{153} = 1024.54, p < .001). As in the initial round, the 18 retained items could be summarised through six factors. Table 3 presented a summary of all six factors' eigenvalues and explained variances. The cumulative explained variance was 70.53%. As illustrated in Appendix F, Table F2, item "My employer makes decision fairly" and "The way in which my employers make decisions is ethical" loaded on more than one factor. The item "My employer makes decision fairly" was removed first from further analysis as the absolute

difference in factor loadings was smaller (.02) than that of item it "My employer makes decision fairly" (.21).

Table 3

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 18-item POJ Supervisor

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.44	24.68
2	1.92	10.65
3	1.29	7.17
4	1.01	5.60
5	.828	4.60
6	.660	3.67

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 20 iterations required.

Round 3. In the third round of PAF (KMO = .73; $X^2_{136} = 978.56, p < .001$), five factors were retained that explained 67.31% of the total variance, as indicated in Table 4. Each item loaded significantly on only one factor (see Appendix F, table F3). However, after completing factor analysis, a test of internal consistency revealed that the last factor had weak internal consistency α = .53. Furthermore, the correlated item-total correlation between the items was (.28; .27 and .29) respectively, thus indicating that the items had a weak internal consistency. The weak Cronbach's alpha was likely present because the factor comprised of two negative worded items ("My supervisor takes a long time before they communicate information" and "My supervisor makes inappropriate comments") and one positively worded item ("The way in which my employers makes decisions is ethical"). The three items making up the factor were thus removed.

Table 4

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 17-item POJ Supervisor

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.30	25.28
2	1.90	11.17
3	1.26	7.42
4	.98	5.75
5	.76	4.45

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 13 iterations required.

Round 4. KMO (.74) paired with a significant Bartlett's test ($X^2_{91} = 908.25, p < .001$) ascertained that it was suitable to conduct PAF on the 14 remaining items. As indicated in Table 5, four factors were retained, which explained 69.2% of the total variance. The researcher considered that the item "My supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they

give" loading was weak because it has an absolute value of .32 and while the other items' absolute values clustered around .65 and .85. The item was therefore removed from further analysis.

Table 5

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 14-item POJ Supervisor

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.15	29.67
2	1.88	13.39
3	1.16	8.29
4	.92	6.60

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 13 iterations required.

Round 5. As summarised in Table 6, the final round of PAF (KMO = .73; X^2_{78} = 866.66, $p < .001$) across the remaining 13 items revealed a four-factor structure with all items loading significantly on at least one of the four factors. The first factor only included items from the distributive justice subscale and was therefore labelled as such. The second factor only included informational justice items and the factor was labelled informational justice. The third factor only include interpersonal justice items and the factor was labelled accordingly. The last factor only contained factor procedural justice items and the factor was labelled procedural justice. One, therefore, concluded that the reduced 13-item was a four-dimensional scale with each subscale having a good to excellent internal consistency, as indicated in Table 6. Participants understood distributive and procedural justice subscale as two different subscales and also saw interpersonal and informational subscales as separate when it comes to their supervisor.

Table 6

Factor Loadings for the Reduced 13-Item POJ Supervisor Following Principal Axis Factor

Item #	Item Description	Distributive Justice	Informational Justice	Interpersonal Justice	Procedural Justice
1	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work	.84			
2	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done	.82			
3	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work	.72			

4	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work	.71			
5	My supervisor gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made		-.81		
6	My supervisor gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made		-.78		
7	My supervisor is open when communicating with me		-.69		
8	My supervisor treats me with respect			.86	
9	My supervisor is polite to me			.78	
10	My supervisor treats me with dignity			.76	
11	I can influence the decisions my supervisor makes				.77
12	My supervisor gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made				.60
13	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made				.59
Eigenvalue		4.02	1.83	1.11	0.91
% Variance		30.92	14.4	8.50	7.03
Cronbach's alpha (α)		.87	.82	.86	.70

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 13 iterations required; Rotation method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation converged in 8 iterations. # = number.

1.1.2. Neutral POJ with interpersonal and informal justice as shown by Employer.

In this analysis, six rounds of PAF were required before the factor structure was interpretable. The final structure once again replicated the original scale structure. All items that were retained for POJ as shown by the supervisors were also retained for POJ as shown by the employers expect for "My supervisor is open when communicating with me", which was instead replaced by "My employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give". A detailed explanation of each round of PAF is presented below.

Round 1. After establishing that data warrants EFA (KMO = .77; $X^2_{190} = 1332.43$, $p <$ .001), PAF was conducted across the 20 items. As specified in Table 7, six factors emerged,

which explained 69.07% of the total variance. All items loaded significantly on at least one factor besides the item "My employer always uses the same ways to make decisions" (see Appendix G, Table G1). This item therefore removed.

Table 7

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 20-item POJ Employer

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	5.34	26.68
2	2.26	11.32
3	1.21	6.02
4	1.06	5.28
5	.98	4.91
6	.75	3.76

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 2. As summarised in Table 8 six factors were once more extracted from PAF (KMO = .77; $X^2_{171} = 1332.51$, $p < .001$). All items loaded significantly on at least one factor, however, the item "My employer is open when communicating with me" cross-loaded on two factors and was thus removed from the analysis (see Appendix G, Table G2).

Table 8

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 19-item POJ Employer

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	5.34	28.08
2	2.26	11.91
3	1.16	6.11
4	1.05	5.51
5	.95	4.98
6	.75	3.95

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 3. After the removal of the item "My employer is open when communicating with me", six relevant factors were yet again revealed in the PAF (KMO = .76; $X^2_{153} = 1228.40$, $p < .001$) as specified in Table 9 below. The item "The way in which my employers makes decisions is ethical" significantly cross-loaded on two factors with an absolute loading of less than .25(see Appendix G, Table G3) and was therefore removed for further analyses.

Table 9

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 18-item POJ Employer

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.99	27.73
2	2.15	11.95
3	1.15	6.37
4	1.04	5.80
5	.93	5.19
6	.74	4.12

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 4. The fourth round of PAF (KMO = .77; $X^2_{136} = 1194.14$, $p < .001$) also provided six factors as indicated in Table 10 below. All terms loaded with at least one factor. Factor 5, however, only comprised of the item "My employer makes decision fairly" (see Appendix G, table G4). Since a factor that measures latent variables should have at least three items (Pallant, 2013), the item "My employer makes decision fairly" was removed for further analyses. For the same reason, the two negatively worded items "My employer makes inappropriate comments" and "My employer takes a long time before they communicate information", which formed a factor were removed.

Table 10

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 17-item POJ Employer

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.92	28.93
2	2.12	12.45
3	1.17	6.87
4	.89	5.22
5	.76	4.44
6	.71	4.18

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 5. KMO (.81) along with Bartlett's test ($X^2_{91} = 1102.84$, $p < .001$) indicated that it was still suitable to perform PAF on the remaining 14-items. Four factors were extracted as indicated in Table 11, which explained 72.46% of the total variance. The researcher removed the item "My employer uses correct information when they decide on something" because one considered that it weakly loaded with the other factors since its absolute value was .31, whereas the other items' absolute value tightly clustered around .7 as specified in Appendix G, table G5.

Table 11

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 14-item POJ Employer

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.81	34.36
2	2.07	14.78
3	1.09	7.75
4	.74	5.29

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 6. As Summarised in Table 12, in the final round of PAF across the remaining 13-items (KMO = .80; X^2_{78} = 1056.32, p < .001), again four factors were extracted, thus retaining the original scale structure. The first factor was labelled interpersonal justice because it included items pertaining to interpersonal justice. The second factor was labelled distributive justice because it contained items measuring distributive justice. Similarly, the last two factors were labelled Procedural justice and Informational justice, respectively. It was therefore concluded that the reduced 13-item was a four-dimensional scale with good to excellent internal consistency as specified in table 12. The distributive justice and procedural justice subscale were two different scales, and the interpersonal and informational scales were also seen as separate when it comes to the employer.

Table 12

Factor Loadings for the Reduced 13-Item POJ Employer Following Principal Axis Factor

Item #	Item Description	Interpersonal Justice	Distributive justice	Procedural Justice	Informational Justice
1	My employer treats me with dignity	.88			
2	My employer treats me with respect	.86			
3	My employer is polite to me	.85			
4	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.88		
5	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.84		
6	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.66		
7	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.64		

8	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.72	
9	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.64	
10	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.59	
11	My employer gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made				.75
12	My employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give				.74
13	My employer gives detailed explanations about how decisions are made				.71
Eigenvalue		4.81	2.07	1.08	.74
% Variance		34.36	14.78	7.75	5.29
Cronbach's alpha (α)		.93	.87	.70	.83

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 9 iterations required; Rotation method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation converged in 8 iterations. # = number.

1.1.3. Neutral POJ with interpersonal and informal justice shown by Co-workers as referents. Four rounds of PAF were required before the factor structure was interpretable. Three factors were extracted; this scale thus did not replicate the original factor structure. A detailed explanation of each round of PAF is presented below.

Round 1. As indicated in Table 13 five factors were extracted in the first sound of PAF (KMO = .74; $X^2_{190} = 1154.07$, $p < .001$) on the initial 20-items. All items loaded significantly on at least one factor beside item "My employer uses correct information when they decide on something" and "My co-workers take a long time before they communicate information" which cross-loaded on two factors with an absolute loading of less than .25 as shown in Appendix H, table H1. Both items were removed.

Table 13

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 20-item POJ Co-workers

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.39	21.92
2	3.70	18.49
3	1.70	8.51
4	1.42	7.11
5	1.31	6.58

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 2. In the second round of PAF (KMO = .75; $X^2_{153} = 1072.22$, $p < .001$), five factors were once more retained as indicated in Table 14. The item "My co-workers make sure everyone understands the information they give" was subsequently removed from the analysis because it cross-loaded on two factors (see Appendix H, Table H2).

Table 14

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 18-item POJ Co-workers

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.36	22.93
2	3.52	18.55
3	1.70	8.96
4	1.32	6.99
5	1.29	6.79

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 3. PAF (KMO = .73; $X^2_{136} = 979.48$, $p < .001$), again revealed a five-factor structure as specified in table 15. Only two items (The way in which my employers make decisions is ethical, and My employer makes decision fairly) loaded into the fourth factor. Similarly, two items (My employer always uses the same ways to make decisions and My co-workers make inappropriate comments) loaded onto the firth factor. As mentioned, a latent variable factor should consist of at least three variables (Pallant, 2013), as such, the four items were removed from further analyses.

Table 15

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 16-item POJ Co-workers

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.35	24.17
2	3.52	19.57
3	1.69	9.39
4	1.29	7.16

5	1.03	5.72	

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 4. The KMO value (.75) and a significant Bartlett's test (X^2_{78} = 896.89, p < .001) ascertained that it was appropriate to conduct a PAF on the remaining 13-items. As indicated in Table 16, three factors emerged. The factor structure reflects the conceptualisation of POJ before Colquitt's (2001) study. In that conceptualisation, interpersonal and informational justice formed part of one factor that Bries and Moag (1986) labelled interactional justice. The second factor was labelled distributive justice because it only contained items measuring distributive justice, and the third factor was labelled procedural justice accordingly. One, therefore, concluded that the reduced 13-items was a three-dimensional scale with good internal consistency, as shown in Table 16. One could say that the differences in the factor structure when participants considered co-workers than when they considered supervisor and employers reiterates the importance of assessing employees' perceptions of OJ concerning different referents or actors separately.

Table 16

Factor Loadings for the Reduced 13-Item POJ Co-workers Following Principal Axis Factor

Item #	Item Description	Interactional Justice	Distributive Justice	Procedural Justice
1	My co-workers are open when communicating with me	.83		
2	My co-workers treat me with dignity	.81		
3	My co-workers give understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.80		
4	My co-workers give detailed explanations about how decisions are made	.79		
5	My co-workers treat me with respect	.77		
6	My co-workers are polite to me	.69		
7	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.88	
9	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.88	
10	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.80	

11	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.78	
12	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.86
13	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.75
14	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.71
Eigenvalue		3.72	3.34	1.47
% Variance		28.65	25.70	11.33
Cronbach's alpha (α)		.88	.87	.70

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 9 iterations required; Rotation method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation converged in 4 iterations. # = number.

1.2 Trust in Supervisor, Employer and Co-workers

Mayer and Davis' (1999) theoretical conceptualisation of trust suggested a one-dimensional measure of willingness to be vulnerable. In their scale, each item represented a different form of vulnerability such as sharing sensitive information, cooperation and giving the trustee control over important issues. As participants answered each item three times to measure trust in supervisor, employer and co-workers, respectively, the researcher used PAF across all three sets of the 5-item scale to determine whether participants discriminated between trust in supervisor, employers and co-workers. It was, therefore, anticipated that three factors would emerge that represent trust in the three different referents. Five rounds of PAF were required before the factor structure was interpretable. A detailed explanation of each round of PAF is presented below.

Round 1. KMO (.74) and Bartlett's test ($X^2_{105} = 1068.64$, $p < .001$) indicated that PAF could be performed on the first 15-items. As shown in Table 17, four factors were extracted that explained a cumulated 69.03% of the variance. Each Item loaded significantly on one factor, except for the item "If my employer asks why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault", which cross-loaded on two factors with an absolute loading of less than .25 as summarised in Appendix I, Table I1. The item was thus removed for further analysis.

Table 17

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 15-item OT

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.50	30.01
2	2.07	13.81
3	1.35	9.0
4	.87	5.80

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 2. In the second round of PAF (KMO = .74; $X^2_{91} = 958.23$, $p < .001$), four factors were once more retained as indicated in Table 18 below. All three negatively worded items (I really wish I could keep an eye on my employer, I really wish I could keep an eye on my supervisor, I really wish I could keep an eye on my co-workers) clustered to form a factor as specified in Appendix I, Table I2. Since the only commonality between the items seemed to be that they were negatively worded rather than a similarity in item content, they were removed.

Table 18

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 14-item OT

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.35	31.06
2	1.73	12.33
3	1.31	9.36
4	.88	6.31

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 3. In the third round of PAF the KMO value (.76) and a significant Bartlett's ($X^2_{55} = 729.93$, $p < .001$) again ascertained that it was appropriate to conduct a PAF on the remaining 10-items. As indicated in Table 19 below, three factors were extracted. All items loaded significantly on one factor apart from item "I would allow my supervisor to have influence over what is important to me" which loaded on two factors and was thus removed (see Appendix I, Table I3).

Table 19

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 11-item OT

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	4.28	38.94
2	1.95	17.74
3	1.24	11.23

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 4. PAF (KMO = .76; X^2_{45} = 644.78, p < .001) was conducted on the remaining 10-items. Again, three factors were extracted as presented in Table 20. However, the third factor only comprised of two items (I would tell my co-workers about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad and If my co-workers ask why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault) as specified in Appendix I, Table I4 . The two items were removed.

Table 20

Rotated Eigenvalues and Explained Variances for the 10-item OT

Factor	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)
1	3.63	36.32
2	1.50	14.98
3	.83	8.30

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; More than 25 iterations required.

Round 5. In the final round, KMO = .77 with a significant Bartlett's test (X^2_{28} = 501.92, p < .001) confirmed a PAF on 8 items, two factors were extracted. This structure did not differentiate between different trust cohorts but rather indicated two dimensions of trust. The factor structure thus did not replicate Mayer and Davis (1999) facture structure. One factor seemed to indicate participants' general willingness to be vulnerable (T-GWV) and the second individuals' willingness to actively making themselves vulnerable, or in other words, risk vulnerability (T-RWV). It was therefore concluded that the eight items remaining in the OT represented a two-dimensional scale which accurately measured trust in the organisation. Furthermore, as indicated in Table 21, T-GWV and T-RWV showed good internal consistency .87 and .77 respectively.

Table 21

Factor Loadings for the Reduced 8-Item OT Following Principal Axis Factor

Item Number	Item Description	T-GWV	T-RWV
1	I would allow my co-workers to have complete control over my future in this company	.84	
2	I would allow my employer to have complete control over my future in this company	.80	
3	I would allow my co-workers to have influence over what is important to me	.76	
4	I would allow my employer to have influence over what is important to me	.67	

5	I would allow my supervisor to have complete control over my future in this company	.67	
6	I would tell my supervisor about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.79
7	I would tell my employer about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.70
8	If my supervisor asks why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault		.68
Eigenvalue		3.02	.97
% Variance		65.10	43.18
Cronbach's alpha (α)		.87	.77

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 9 iterations required; Rotation method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

1.3. Willingness to Engage in Protest Action (WEPA)

PAF was conducted on the four closed-ended WEPA items to determine whether all items measured a single construct. Answers to the open-ended questions were used to improve the researcher's understanding of participants' responses and were analysed using frequency counts. After establishing that the data warranted EFA (KMO = .85; $X^2_6 = 475.61$, $p < .001$), PAF revealed one underlying factor which explained 83.71% of the variances (see Table 22). All items loaded significantly on this factor. The factor was label willingness to engage in protest action (WEPA).

Table 22

Factor Loadings for the Reduced 4-Item WEPA Following Principal Axis Factor

Item Number	Item Description	WEPA
1	I would be willing to encourage others to ToiToi	.92
2	I would support the idea of Totoying to express my dissatisfaction with my current wage	.91
3	I would be willing to ToiToi	.87
4	If your colleagues who work in the same position as you were very unhappy about their current wages and decided to ToiToi, would you join them?	.81
Eigenvalue		3.09
% Variance		77.14
Cronbach's alpha (α)		.93

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 5 iterations required.

In summary, all POJ subscales, the 7-item Trust scale, and the 4-item WEPA scale revealed good to excellent internal consistencies. Furthermore, all items had adequate corrected item-total correlation. All item-total statistics (corrected item-total correlations and Cronbach's alphas if item was deleted) for all scales and subscales can be found in Appendix J, table J1 to table J10. Therefore, the reduced scale for the neutral POJ and POJ showed by the supervisor, the neutral POJ and POJ showed by the employer, the neutral POJ and POJ showed by co-workers, OT and WEPA were thus reliable and valid measures for the current study.

2. Descriptive statistics

This section presents the study's descriptive statistics which includes the mean, standard deviation, minimum, maximum, skewness and kurtosis of all scales and subscales used. Each scale/ subscale's mean score was evaluated with respect to their midpoint, as indicated in Table 16. The midpoint of the mean scores was to indicate the value that was halfway between the midpoints to allow the research to identify means that were higher or lower than the value that indicated the middle. A mean score greater than the midpoint indicates that participants had higher levels of the variables, whereas a mean score less than the midpoint indicates the opposite. Skewness and kurtosis values were used to examine whether the data were normally distributed. The latter refers to the height of the distribution, while the former refers to whether the distribution is symmetrical (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Values sufficiently above or below zero indicate deviations from normality, i.e. from the Gaussian curve (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2010).

Table 23

Descriptive Statistics for the Reduced 13-item POJ supervisor, POJ employer, POJ co-workes. TGWV, TRWV and WEPA.

						Skewness		Kurtosis	
	M	*SD*	Min	Max	*m*	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
Procedural Justice	2.68	.98	1.00	4.00	3.00	-.37	.20	-1.07	.40
Distributive Justice	2.51	.90	1.00	4.00	2.67	-.28	.20	-1.10	.40
Interpersonal justice supervisor	2.68	.98	1.00	4.00	3.33	-.84	.20	-.13	.40
Informational justice supervisor	3.22	.76	1.00	4.00	3.33	-.88	.20	.26	.40
Interpersonal justice Employer	3.32	.84	1.00	4.00	3.67	-1.36	.20	1.17	.40
Informational justice Employer	3.22	.74	1.00	4.00	3.33	-.89	.20	.26	.40

Interactional justice co-workers	3.28	.65	1.71	4.00	3.29	-.68	.20	-.38	.40
T-GWV	2.62	.93	1.00	4.00	2.60	-.17	.20	-1.04	.40
T-RWV	3.25	.78	1.00	4.00	3.33	-.91	.20	.13	.40
Gender	1.38	.49	1.00	2.00	1.00	.48	.20	-1.79	.40
Prior involvement in protest at work	1.38	.48	1.00	2.00	1.26	.51	.20	-1.77	.40
Prior involvement in protest outside work	1.29	.46	1.00	2.00	1.31	.91	.21	-1.19	.41
WEPA	2.36	1.14	1.00	4.00	2.33	.15	.20	-1.50	.40

Note. $N = 147$; M = mean; SD = standard deviation; min = minimum; max = maximum; m = mid-point; SE = standard error TGWV = trust general willingness to be vulnerable; TRWV = trust risk willingness to be vulnerable; WEPA = Willingness to engage in protest action.

As summarised in Table 23, the mean score of most scales and subscales were around or below the scale midpoints of 2 and 3. This is an indication that, on average, participants' perceptions of most dimensions of fairness and trust in the workplace were moderate or slightly low (POJ and trust-RWV). Trust-general willingness to be vulnerable and WEPA's means scores were, on the other hand, slightly above the mid-point. This indicates that on average participants showed slightly high levels of T-GWV and tended to be more willing to engage in protest action.

All scales and subscales were slightly negatively skewed (see Table 23), especially for interpersonal justice shown by the employer (skewness score of -1.36), indicating that more participants perceived their employer to show fairness in their interactions towards them. The scales' kurtosis revealed that only the distribution of distributive justice, procedural and interpersonal justice demonstrated by the supervisor had a height that did not substantially deviate from the Gaussian curve. Data on Informational justice shown by the supervisor and employer and trust to risk vulnerability were more leptokurtic than the Gaussian curve. In contrast, the remaining data on each scale and subscale were more platykurtic than the Gaussian curve (Pallant, 2013). One should note that several statistical techniques, such as multiple regression and mediation analysis, assume that data are normally distributed (Pallant; 2013; Field, 2013). Bootstrapping will thus be performed to remove the negative effect that non-normally distributed data may have on the results.

Lastly, Table 24 presents a summary of the correlation between all variable. Pearson product-moment correlation was used because all assumption was met beside the assumption

of normality, which was rendered negligible by the use of Bootstrapping. One can observe that most variables are significantly moderately related to one another. WEPA was significantly negatively related to interpersonal justice supervisor and interpersonal justice employer, and positively related to prior involvement in protest action at work and outside of work. Interactional justice supervisor was only significantly moderately related to informational justice employer. The highest observed significant relationship is between informational justice employer and interpersonal justice employer (r=.60).

Table 24

Two-tailed Pearson Product-moment Correlations between POJ, WEPA, Gender and previous involvement in protest action (N = 147)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Procedural Justice	1										
2. Distributive Justice	.35**	1									
3. Interpersonal justice supervisor	.17*	.31**	1								
4. Interpersonal justice employer	.21*	.28**	.48**	1							
5. Informational justice supervisor	.09	.29**	.42**	.30**	1						
6. Informational justice employer	.14	.31**	.23**	.60**	.25**	1					
7. Interpersonal justice co-workers	-.09	.04	.15	.12	.40**	.14	1				
8. Gender	.18*	.09	.16*	.02	.07	.03	-.03	1			
9. Prior involvement in protest at work	-.05	-.09	-.19*	-.16	-.02	-.15	.12	-.05	1		
10. Prior involvement outside work	-.04	-.14	-.19*	-.15	.08	-.10	.03	-.04	.54**	1	
11. WEPA	-.06	-.06	-.37**	-.22**	.02	.02	.13	.95	.42**	.49**	1

Note. WEPA = willingness to engage in protest action

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

3. Multiple Regression Analysis

This section presents the results of a two-step hierarchical multiple regression analyses used to test the current study's hypotheses. Hierarchal multiple regression analysis was performed to explore whether the seven predictor variables namely: procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice as shown by the supervisor, informational justice as shown by the supervisor, interpersonal justice as shown by the employer, informational justice as shown by the employer and interactional justice as shown by co-workers predicted participants' willingness to engage in protest actions. The analysis also aimed to determine if the mentioned variables will predict WEPA irrespective of participants' gender or whether they had previously participated in any type of protest actions. Gender, previously having taken part in protest actions at work or outside of work were thus included as control variables and entered into the regression in the first step. In the second step, all neutral POJ and POJ shown by supervisor, employer justice co-workers were entered.

3.1. Assumptions of Multiple Regression. The researcher assessed the following assumptions to determine whether one could conduct multiple regression.

Level of measurement. According to Field (2013), criterion variables should be interval or ratio scales, and predictor variables should be measured using categorical or interval scales. In this analysis, the predictor and criterion variables were measured using interval and ratio scales, thus satisfying the level of measurement requirements.

Adequate sample size. The following formula indicates the adequate sample size for multiple regression: $N > 50 + 8m$, where "m" represents the number of predictor variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The current multiple regression model had 10 predictors (gender and previous protest action at work or outside of work included). Therefore, using the formula ($N > 50+8[10]$), the model required 130 participants and the current study comprised 147 participants. The current study thus had an adequate sample size.

Additivity and linearity. A scatterplot was used to determine whether all predictor variables and control variables were linearly related to WEPA. Pallant (2013) argued that the assumption of additivity and linearity is met when data are scattered around the line of best-fit and show linearity. As indicated in Appendix K, figure K1 to K10, data points on all scatterplots were scattered around the line of best-fit as an indication of a linear relationship between the dependent and predictor variables. One can, therefore, confirm that in keeping with Pallant (2013), the additivity assumption was met for this model.

Independent residuals. Residuals represent the differences between the observed data and the model's predictions. Residuals should be uncorrelated for multiple regression to generate unbiased outcomes (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The Durbin-Watson statistic, which tests for serial correlations between residuals, was used to assess this assumption. A statistical value range of 0 to 4, with acceptable values between 1 and 3 indicate independence. Complete independence exists when the value is 2 (Field, 2013). Durbin-Watson for the current research after bootstrapping was 2.08, which is within the acceptable range and very close to complete independence, thus providing evidence of independent residuals.

Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity suggests that the residuals have the same variance across all values of the independent variables (Field, 2013). Researchers have suggested that data are heteroscedastic if there is evidence of a cone-shape pattern in the data points when plotting standardised predicted vs standardised observed residuals (Field, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). As presented in Appendix K figure K11, no evident cone-shape pattern was observed since the variability of data point were evenly dispersed at each level of the standardised predicted residual, therefore suggesting that the assumption of homoscedasticity was upheld.

Normal distribution of residuals. To examine whether residuals were normally distributed in the regression model, the researcher used histograms with a Gaussian curve and the normal probability plot. As indicated in Appendix K figure K12 the hysterogram of the regression's standardised residuals approximated a bell-curve shape. Furthermore, figure K13 illustrates that data of standardised residuals closely but not perfectly alight to the diagonal line. This is an indication of a minor violation of the assumption. Hayes (2013) pointed out that data that slightly deviate from normality should not affect the result of the regression analysis unless the sample size is very small or less than one hundred. Therefore, in keeping with Field (2013) and Hayes (2013), although there is a minor violation of the assumption of normality of the distribution of residuals, this minor violation will not compromise or bias the results.

Multicollinearity. As suggested by Field (2013) and Pallant (2013), multicollinearity is present in the data when the independent variables are strongly related ($r > .90$). As indicated in the correlation matric in Table 24, variables were not strongly correlated. A more robust test of multicollinearity is the VIF. According to Bowerman and O'Connell (1990), a VIF that is substantially greater than 1 indicates that the correlation between items has biased the results. As summarised in Table 25, all VIF in the current analysis was not substantially greater than one. Consequently, one could ascertain the absence of multicollinearity.

Table 25

Multicollinearity Diagnoses for the regression Model

Model Variables	VIF
Procedural Justice	1.04
Distributive Justice	1.03
Interpersonal justice supervisor	1.06
Informational justice supervisor	1.03
Interpersonal justice Employer	1.02
Informational justice Employer	1.02
Interactional justice co-workers	1.02

Non-zero variance. This assumption suggests that the variances of all independent and dependent variables should take on non-zero values. In the current study, the standard deviation of all scales and subscales as indicated in Table 16 were not zero; therefore, providing evidence that the non-zero variance assumption was upheld.

Model bias. The presence of outliers and influential cases are indicators that the regression results would be biased. Tabachnick and Fidell's (2014) suggested that cases with standardised residual values that do not fall within +/- 3.30 range are evidence of outliers. As can be seen in Appendix J Table 1, the regression model had standardised residual values ranging from -3.00 to +3.00. Therefore, indicating that there were no outliers that could distort the regression results.

3.2 Multiple regression results.

Given that only the assumption of normality of the distribution of residuals was slightly violated, and this violation would not compromise the result, multiple regression was run accordingly. As indicated with the descriptive statistics, since the current sample was not normally distributed, Bootstrapping was performed to deter the negative effect of the non-normally distributed sample. In the first step of the analysis, which only included the demographic control variables, the model was statistically significant ($F_{3, 13} = 20.28$ $p < .001$). Moreover, gender and previous involvement in protest action at work and outside of work accounted for 31.7% of the variability in overall low-income workers' WEPA ($R^2 = .317$). The adjusted R^2 value of .301 indicates that the model would account for 30.1% of the variance in overall WEPA if the data were derived from the population. This small difference between R^2 and the adjusted R^2 value illustrates strong generalisability for the model (Field, 2013).

As indicated in Table 26, only prior participation in protest action at work and outside of work predicted unique variance in WEPA. The positive beta value illustrates that low-income workers who indicated that they previously participated in protest action at work and

outside of work were more willing to engage in protest actions for higher wages than those who indicated that they never participated in any type of protest action. Interestingly, prior participation in protest action outside of work was the strongest predictor of WEPA.

Table 26

Bootstrapped Hierarchal Multiple Regression Results with WEPA as the Outcome Variable and gender, previous involvement at work and outside work as Predictor Variables (N =147)

	b	*SE b*	*β*	*t*	95% CI	
					LL	UL
Intercept	.02	.34		.032	-.69	.64
Gender	.26	.17	.12	1.69	-.04	.61
Prior participation in protest action at work	.65	.22	.22	2.50**	.25	1.10
Prior participation in protest action outside of work	.90	.23	.38	4.36**	.43	1.33

Notes. *b* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE b* = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient; *β* = standardised beta coefficient; CI = confidence interval for unstandardised beta coefficient; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

**$p < .01$

In the second step of the model procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice as shown by the supervisor, informational justice as shown by the supervisor, interpersonal justice as shown by the employer, informational as shown by the justice employer and interactional justice as shown by co-workers were added as a predictor variables. The multiple regression analysis revealed that, when taken together, gender, previous involvement in protest action at work and outside of work and all POJ variables explained 44.1% of the variance in participants WEPA (R^2 = .441). An adjusted R^2 value of .396 indicates that the model would account for 39.6% of the variance in overall WEPA if data were derived from the population. This small difference between R^2 and the adjusted R^2 value also illustrates strong generalisability for the model (Field, 2013). There was a significant 12.4% increase in the model's predictive capacity when all POJ variables were added ($F_{7, 124} = 3.93$, $p < .001$).

Interestingly, as indicated in the first step, gender was not a significant predictor of WEPA; however, in the second step, it became significant (see Table 27). This process is called suppression of irrelevant variance (Akinwande, Dikko & Samson, 2015). One can, therefore, say that adding the seven variables of organisational justice removed or suppressed irrelevant variance in gender. Since gender has a positive beta value, it is reasonable to say that together with all seven variables of POJ, male participants were more willing to engage in protest actions

for higher wages than female participants. Furthermore, prior participation in protest actions at work and outside of work remained significant predictors of WEPA.

As mentioned above, together, all seven assessed variables of organisational justice predicted low-income employees' willingness to engage in protest action. Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that only interpersonal justice as shown by the supervisor uniquely predicted variation in WEPA that was not already accounted for by the model. The negative beta value of the interpersonal justice as shown by supervisors (see Table 27) suggests that the more employees perceived their supervisor to be interpersonal fair, the less they were willing to engage in protest actions for higher wages.

Table 27

Bootstrapped Hierarchal Multiple Regression Results with WEPA as the Outcome Variable and gender, previous involvement at work and outside work and POJ as Predictor Variables (N= 147)

	b	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	95% CI	
					LL	UL
Intercept	.06	.04		.37	-1.06	1.54
Gender	.34	.16	.17	2.49**	.50	.67
Have you ever taken part of a protest action at work?	.57	.00	.18	2.19**	.16	1.01
Have you ever taken part of a protest outside of work?	.79	.00	.34	4.04**	.31	1.23
Procedural justice	-.01	.00	-.06	-.33	-.21	.18
Distributive justice	.03	.00	.06	.74	-.16	.23
Interpersonal justice shown by justice supervisor	-.38	.01	-.32	-3.77**	-.61	-.08
Interpersonal justice shown by justice employer	-.24	-.01	-.15	-1.60	-.63	.07
Information justice shown by justice supervisor	.17	.-07	.06	.68	-.12	.42
Informational justice shown by justice employer	.30	.-04	.19	2.15	.01	.63
Interactional justice shown by justice co-workers	.18	.11	.12	1.52	-.11	.50

Notes. *b* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE b* = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient; *β* = standardised beta coefficient; CI = confidence interval for unstandardised beta coefficient; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

**$p < .01$.

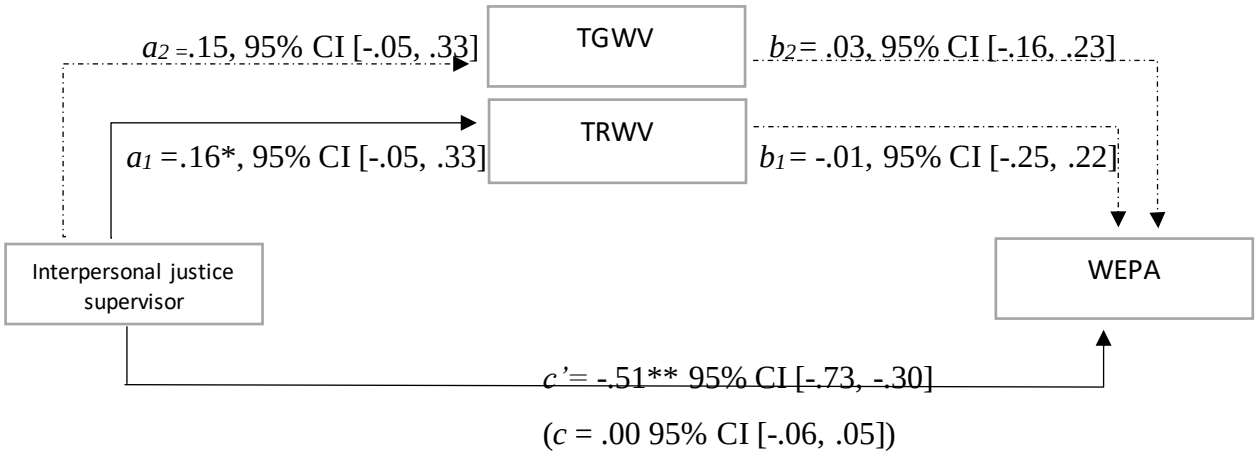
4. Mediation Analysis

The study assumed that POJ would predict WEPA via POJ's interaction with OT. In other words, OT will mediate the relationship between POJ and WEPA. To assume mediation, four conditions need to be met. The four conditions of mediations suggest that first, the predictor variable must significantly predict the outcome variable. Second, the predictor variable must significantly predict the mediator. Third, the mediator must significantly predict the outcome variable. Lastly, the predictor variable must predict the outcome variable less strongly when the mediator is included as a predictor than when it is the only predictor (Field, 2013). This section presents the results of the mediation analysis using Hayes' *PROCESS* tool, model 4.

Based on the inter-correlation matrix presented in Table 24 above, only interpersonal justice shown by supervisor related to WEPA, thus mediation analysis was only performed for this aspect of OJ. Since Factor analysis revealed that participants understood trust items as two constructs (TGWV and TRWV), the two constructs were included as mediators in the analysis. The results of the analysis are represented in the following figure.

Figure 2

Model of interpersonal justice supervisor as a predictor of WEPA, mediated by TGWV or TRWV.



Notes. All presented effects are unstandardized; a_1 is the effect of interpersonal justice shown by supervisor on T-RWV; a_2 is the effect of interpersonal justice shown by supervisor on T-GWV; b_1 is the effect of T-RWV on WEPA; b_2 is the effect of T-GWV on WEPA; c' is the direct effect of interpersonal justice supervisor on WEPA, c is the total effect of interpersonal justice shown by supervisor on WEPA.

CI = Bootstrapped confidence intervals; TGWV = trust general willingness to be vulnerable; TRWV = trust risk willingness to be vulnerable; WEPA = Willingness to engage in protest action; *p< 05; **p < .01.

As illustrated in figure 2, interpersonal justice shown by the supervisor was a statistically significant predictor of TRWV ($F_{1, 145} = 3.83$, $p < .05$). The R^2 Value of .017 indicates that interpersonal justice shown by the supervisor explains merely 1.70% of the variance in T-RWV. However, Interpersonal justice shown by the supervisor did not predict TGWV in the current study ($F_{1, 145} = 2.55$, $p = .11$). Therefore, the second condition of mediation was not upheld when considering TGWV as mediator. Furthermore, TGWV and TRWV did not significantly predict WEPA, thus, violating the third condition of mediation. In summary, the mediation analysis revealed that TGWV and TRWV do not mediate the relationship between interpersonal justice supervisor and WEPA.

5. Additional Analyses

To gain a more contextualised understanding of low-income workers' willingness to engage in protest action, participants answered four additional open-ended questions in the survey. The first two questions aimed to explore what employees deemed appropriate to do if they were dissatisfied with their wages. The last two questions aimed at obtaining a better understanding of factors that may contribute to low-income workers' decision to either participate or refrain from participating in protest actions. The qualitative data obtained were analysed using frequency counts; results of the analyses are presented below.

5.1. Employees views on the appropriate solution to wage-related dissatisfaction.

As summarised in Table 28, when participants were asked what they would do if they were dissatisfied with their wages, participants frequently said that they would talk to their employer (n =53). For example, one participant said "Go to his office. Speak to him about it. If I feel I deserve a raise, surely me and my employer can discuss it". The second most frequent answer was to talk to the employer first and then take the matter further and resorting to protest action. For example, one participant said, "discussing the matter first then if we don't come up with the way forward I will ToiToi". The third most frequently cited response was "I will protest". Other less frequently cited responses were categorised into "other answers".

Participants were asked to explain further why they may resort to these solutions (see table 28). Amongst the 53 participants who said that they would talk with their employer, 16 said that talking to the employer was the best solution because "it is a good way to

communicate". Eight participants said that they would talk to their employer because the employer was understandable, while seven said that it is because their employer is the decision-maker. Most participants who chose the second frequently mentioned solution (I will talk first if nothing then take the matter further) said that they chose this option because it was the best way to express their dissatisfaction. Lastly, most people who chose the third frequently mentioned solution said that they would protest because it was "the only way that their organisation would listen". Table 28 presents a comprehensive summary of the remaining answers; less frequently cited answers were categorised into 'other answers'.

5.2. Likelihood to participate in protest action in general. Participants were further asked if they would ever take part in protest actions, 51.2% (n = 61) of participants who answered the question indicated that they do not prefer to protest while the rest said that they would protest. The first most frequently cited reason participant did not prefer to protest is that protesting goes against their personal values. The second most frequently mentioned reason for not protesting was that participants believed that protesting is just not a solution. The third most cited reason was that participants believed that they would lose their jobs if they participated in protest actions at work. On the other hand, most of the participant who indicated that they would protest (27/58) said that they would do so because it is the only solution. Table 29 provides a comprehensive summary of participants' answers and the reason they chose particular answers; less frequently cited answers were categorised into 'other answers'.

Table 28

The appropriate solution to wage-related dissatisfaction and why did you make that choice (N =89)

Imagine that you wanted a higher wage from your employer, what would you do?		Why would you do it?							
		Co-workers agreed to	A good way to communicate	He/she is the decision-maker	It's the only way they listen	Prove that I deserve it	Understandable boss	Other answers	total
	Other answers	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	5
	I will work harder	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	9
	I will talk first if nothing then takes the matter further	0	5	0	1	0	1	5	12
	I will talk to my employer	1	16	7	0	4	8	17	53
	I will Protest	1	1	0	4	1	0	3	10
	Total	3	23	7	5	14	9	28	89

Table 29

Likelihood to partake in protest actions (N = 119)

Would you ever take part in protest action?		Why would you do it?									
		Against personal value	Don't want to lose my job	I will Give up	It is my right	Only solution	Protests are violent	Protesting is not a solution	Show my dissatisfaction	Other answers	Total
	Yes	3	0	0	10	27	0	2	6	10	58
	No	21	9	5	0	0	6	11	0	9	61
	Total	24	9	5	10	27	6	13	6	19	119

6. **Summary of Results**

The findings presented indicate that, in the current study, POJ is a four-dimensional scale and adhered to Colquitt (2001) conceptualisation when justice displayed by the supervisor and employer was assessed. Informational justice as shown by the supervisor included the item "My supervisor is open when communicating with me", while informational justice as shown by the employer did not and instead included the item "My employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give". When employees' perception of organisational justice, with informational and interpersonal justice, as shown by co-workers was assessed, the scale's factor structure did not adhere to Colquitt's (2001) conceptualisation. Instead, it adhered with Bies and Moag (1986) which was before Colquitt's (2001) research that separated POJ into four-dimensions. Three factors emerged with interpersonal justice as shown by co-workers and informational justice as shown by co-workers' items forming a single factor that was labelled interactional justice as shown by co-workers as per Bies and Moag (1986).

The structure of the organisational trust scale also did not adhere to Mayer and Davis (1999) factor structure and the researcher's assumption. Instead, a two-dimensional scale emerged. Participants did not discriminate between trust in the employer, supervisor and co-workers as they did in the case of perceptions of fairness. Instead, the factor structure that emerged related to the type of trust; thus, trust general willingness to be vulnerable (TGWV) and trust by being vulnerable through risky behaviours (TRWV). Factor analysis on the WEPA scale indicated that participants understood all items in the scale to measure a single construct.

Participants indicated a moderate perception of trust and justice vis a vis of all three assessed referents, and on average participants had moderate to slightly high intention to partake in protest action. When gender, previous participation in protest actions at work and outside of work was kept constant, interpersonal justice as shown by the supervisor was the only predictor of WEPA for higher wages amongst low-income employees. The more low-income employees perceived that interpersonal fairness as shown by the supervisor was present, the less they were willing to engage in protest action. Amongst the covariates, previous engagement in protest action at work and outside of work was shown to predict WEPA uniquely. In other words, people who indicated that they previously participated in protest actions at work and outside work were more willing to engage in protest actions for higher wages. Lastly, in the second round of regression analysis, together will all seven facets of POJ, gender become a significant predictor and male workers were more willing to engage in protest actions for higher wages than female workers.

While perceptions of interpersonal justice related to T-RWV but not to T-GWC, neither of the two trust dimensions predicted WEPA. As such T-GWC and T-RWV did not mediate the relationship between interpersonal justice as shown by supervisors and WEPA. Indeed, most participants did not resort to protest actions as the first solution to wage dissatisfaction because it either went against their values or because they found that there were other ways to express dissatisfactions that were more appropriate. Participants indicated that the most appropriate solution to a wage dissatisfaction would be to speak to the employer. Participants also indicated that in general, they were less likely to engage in any type of protest actions for the same reason or because it went against their personal values. Finally, amongst the few participants who indicated that they would resort to protest action, many said that it is because protesting is the only way they can get their employer to listen to their dissatisfactions.

Chapter Five: Discussion

The overall aim of the current study was first to identify factors that may predict low-income workers' WEPA for higher wages even when it meant not earning an income for the duration of the protest action. The second aim of the research was to determine whether OT mediate the identified relationship. This study investigated the efficacy of all dimensions of organisational justice along with three covariates - gender, previous participation in protest action at work and outside work – to predict WEPA. The results from the study indicate that when the three variables are kept constant, neutral POJ dimensions and POJ as shown by the supervisor, employer and co-workers predicted low-income employees' WEPA. The current chapter, thus, first presents the main findings of the research considering existing literature. Next, a discussion on the psychometric properties of the scales is provided. In the last two sections, the study's limitations, the theoretical and practical implication is presented.

In the current study, the researcher was interested in exploring whether low-income workers' neutral POJ and POJ vis a vis their employer, supervisor and co-workers predicted WEPA. The study further aimed to determine whether OT mediated the relationship between POJ (employer, supervisor and co-workers) and WEPA. Though Colquitt (2001) POJ scale has been extensively used in the literature to explain and infer employees' behaviour (Díaz-Gracia, Barbaranelli & Moreno-Jiménez, 2014; Foster, 2010; Rego & Cunha, 2010), very few studies were conducted in the South African context. Furthermore, a paucity of research attempted to distinguish the effect of POJ based on different actors (Colquitt, 2001; Fortin, Cropanzano, Cugueró-Escofet, Nadisic & Van Wagoner, 2019). These gaps in the literature enticed the researcher to explore how perceptions of justice towards employer, supervisor and co-workers may have predicted WEPA amongst low-income workers in South Africa.

1. Hypothesis testing: Factors predicting WEPA

One of the current study's hypothesis was to determine whether and how POJ predicted WEPA and whether OT mediated this relationship as such, eight hypotheses were formulated. After conducting factor analysis, new factor structure of POJ and OT emerged, therefore, the research will provide a comprehensive discussion of the hypothesis testing results. Based on the fairness heuristic theory, this study predicted that POJ is negatively related to WEPA. To test this hypothesis, the researcher deemed it necessary to include three control variable - gender, previous participation in protest action at work and outside work. This is as women are often not seen in the frontline of workplace protest actions in South Africa (Benya, 2013;

Ntswana, 2015). Hence the researcher wanted to control the effect that gender may have had on the results. Second, the social cognitive theory suggests that people are more likely to repeat a behaviour that resulted in desirable outcomes and avoid behaviours that led out undesirable outcomes (Bandura, 1986). As such low-income workers might be more likely to participate in protest action if having previous participation had led to favourable outcomes. Conversely, if prior participation led to unfavourable outcomes, they might be more reluctant to engage in protest actions again.

As expected, low-income employees' perceptions of organisational justice and justice from supervisor, employers and co-workers together predicted their willingness to engage in protest actions for higher wages when gender, prior participation in protest actions at work and outside of work was kept constant. These findings are consistent with previous research that found that employees' perception of organisational justice contribute to their behaviour and attitude at work (Choi, 2011; Rego & Cunha, 2010) and also influence organisational outcomes such as commitment, turnover intentions, and job satisfaction (Choi, 2011; Cho & Sai, 2013; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Qureshi et al., 2017; Cropanzano et al., 2011) and now WEPA.

More specifically, this research found that interpersonal justice, as shown by the supervisor, was the only substantial predictor of WEPA when gender, prior participation in protest action at work or outside of work were kept constant. In other words, although all POJ facet matter, the more employees perceived that their supervisor treated them politely, with respect and with dignity (interpersonally fair) the less they were willing to engage in protest actions for higher wages. The factor that, therefore, meaningfully contributes to low-income workers' intentions to engage in protest actions for higher wages is not the money itself (distributive justice). Instead, the interpersonal relationship between employees and their supervisors appears to be the major contributor to employees' decision to engage in protest actions for higher wages even though they are aware that they will not earn an income for the duration for the protest action. The current finding makes sense because, using the fairness heuristic theory, a potential explanation for the observed significant and negative relationship is that being treated with respect and dignity is likely to make employees developed an overall positive perception of fairness for the organisation. With this positive fairness perception, employees will, in turn, reciprocate by abstaining from engaging in protest actions (or engaging in CWB). Conversely perceived interpersonal injustice from the supervisor is likely to result in frustration and employees feeling that the organisation does not care about them (Gilin Ooew et al, 2010), this may motivate them to protest for higher wages even when they know that they

will not receive an income during that period. These results are supported by previous empirical evidence that suggests interpersonal justice to be an essential determinant of employees' behaviour in the workplace (Aryee et al., 2002; Brunetto et al., 2013; Colquitt, Rodell, 2011; Hays, 2014). Furthermore, these findings are specifically consistent with research that outlined the value of the interpersonal relationship between supervisor and employees for the organisation (Aryee et al., 2002; Stoverink et al., 2014; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Zapata et al., 2013). The salient role of the supervisor in this research makes sense because as Karriker and Williams (2009) outlined that from an employees' perspective, the supervisor embodies the decision-maker. Furthermore, because the supervisor interacts with employees every day, he/she becomes the face of the organisation.

These findings also show the importance of assessing the unique dimensions of organisational justice. There is an ongoing debate on whether or not organisational justice should be measured as distinct dimensions or as a composite construct. On the one hand, researchers such as Lind (2001b) argued that although individuals can distinguish between the sources (employer, supervisor) of their justice experiences when they are asked about what drives their behaviour, employees' responses tend to refer to an overall sense of fairness. In the same light, Ambrose and Schminke (2009) argued that employees' make a holistic judgement of fairness to form an impression of justice. Likewise, victims of injustice react to their overall experience of injustice rather distinguish between the different facets of justice and react distinctively react to them. The other steam of scholars argued that it is necessary to measure distinct dimensions of organisational justice because it allows justice scholars to offer managers specific and more accurate strategies for improving fairness perceptions on their organisations (Colquitt, 2012). Furthermore, measuring organisational justice as a composite score may distract from finding the importance of the justice roles (norms) that have been identified by scholars concerning specific organisational outcomes (Adams, 1965; Bies & Moag, 1986; Leventhal, 1976, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). The current research findings, therefore, align with the latter stream of scholars. This is because the researcher was able to observe the unique importance of the rules of politeness, respect and dignity shown by the supervisor when it comes to employees' willingness to engage in protest actions.

1.1. The importance of prior protest action evolvement and gender.

Results from the regression analysis also revealed that amongst the three control variables, previous protest involvement at work and outside work was found to predict low-

income workers' WEPA continuously. In other words, employees who indicated that they previously participated in protest actions at work and/or outside of work were more willing to engage in protest action than employees who indicated that they never took part in protest actions. To some extent, these findings are in alignment with the South African sociology research that used previous protest action as a precursor and a mean to understand the current wave of protest actions in the country (Clark & Worger, 2013; Twala, 2017; Von Holdt et al., 2011). Though their research mainly focused on how the country's socio-economic and political factors could contribute to the current surge in protest actions. The current research followed an industrial psychologist approach to show that POJ in the workplace is a contributing factor. It also used Bandura's theory to show that people who previously participated in protest actions were more likely to repeat the behaviour if the outcome of their previous participation was favourable. Since the aim of the research was, however, not to understand the relationship between prior participation in protest action and WEPA. It is inconclusive whether, indeed, people are more willing to re-participate in protest action because their previous participation yielded favourable outcome since the outcome of previous protest actions were not measured. Finding this relationship could, however, be of great interest for future research.

Gender, on the other hand, only meaningfully contributed to low-income employees' WEPA when all dimensions of POJ were added to the equation. This means that there was a gender difference in WEPA only when all dimensions of POJ were considered. In other words, more males than females' participants were willing to engage in protest actions when they also considered how fair their organisation is and how fair their employer, supervisor and co-workers are in their interaction with them. Though these are preliminary findings and future research should attempt to understand the relationship between POJ, gender and WEPA better; the current findings provide a new lenses to previous sociologist researcher that found that men tend to mostly been seen on the frontline of protest action and work protest actions (Benya, 2013; Ntswana, 2015).

Lastly, additional analyses showed that although protest actions in South Africa are on a rising trend, employees do not believe that it is the best solution to resolving wage-related dissatisfaction. Employees tended to prefer speaking to their employer first about their wage-related dissatisfactions. Furthermore, those who indicated that protesting was the best solution to wage-related dissatisfaction also mentioned that they chose to protest because it is the only way they could get their employers to listen. To some extent, these results corroborate Von

Holdt et al. (2011, p. 28) research that found that protest action or in their own words, "violence is the only language they listen". Since their research was at a societal level, violence referred to violent protest and "they" referred to the government.

2. Trust as a mediator of the POJ-WEPA relationship

The empirical data showed no support for the hypothesis that trust mediates the relationship between POJ and WEPA. As indicated in the literature review, the dimension of trust assessed in this study was multidimensional because the willingness to be vulnerable considered trust propensity and trustworthiness. A potential explanation for these results is that items measuring willingness to be vulnerable may have captured more of the trustee's attributes, with different individuals having a different level of trust in people in general, than a balanced interaction of trust propensity and trustworthiness. As a result, this construct of 'trust' stems beyond what is captured in the fairness construct. This finding may suggest that the principles of reciprocity in the social exchange theory may not apply as expected in the context of the employment relationship in South Africa. Although these results may be seen an anomaly, they are consistent with the findings of scholars who have noted that the overall way in which people are treated is likely to have a more significant impact on attitudes and behaviour than people's internal propensity to trust (Sun, 2011; Topp & Chipukuma, 2015). This finding lends further support that creating fair workplaces (especially by focusing on training supervisors to treat employees with respect and dignity) is an adequate intervention points to avert protest actions at work.

3. Psychometric Properties of the scale

The psychometric properties of all scales and subscales are presented in this section because the researcher administered international scales in a South African context, and culture influences how participants understood the each items in the scale and how their formed perceptions of justice and trust (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007; Greenberg, 2001; Morris, Leung, Ames & Lickel, 1999).

3.1. Perceived organisational justice (POJ)

Although findings from factor analysis were in alignment with previous research, a four-dimension structure was fund when neutral POJ, POJ concerning supervisors and employees were assessed. When neutral POJ and POJ as shown by co-workers were assessed a three-factor structure emerged. The notable difference between the current study and previous

POJ literature is that several items did not form part of the POJ construct. A discussion of each POJ subscale is presented below.

3.1.1. Perceived procedural justice. In most studies that used Colquitt's (2001) procedural justice subscale, all items loaded onto a single factor (Bal et al., 2011; Choi, 2011; Díaz-Gracia et al., 2014; Poon, 2012), however, this was not the case in the current study. Only three items ('I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me', 'I can influence the decisions my employer makes' and 'I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made') formed procedural justice. The first two items had been developed by Thibaut and Walker (1975) to assess adherence to the norms of 'voice'. The two items assess participants' ability to control or influence the process and/or the outcome by voicing their views. The remaining items were developed by Leventhal et al. (1980) in adherence to the norms of 'consistency', 'bias suppression', 'accuracy', 'correctability', 'representation' and 'ethicality'. The item "I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made", in particular, was developed to assess adherence to the correctability criterion by asking participants whether they could appeal a wrongly unravelling procedure to correct it (correctability). One could argue that this item, too, assesses the influence that participants may or may not have on the process or outcome using their voice. The other items by Leventhal et al. (1980), however, do not assess the influence that participants may have. For example, the item "My employer always uses the same way to make decisions" assessed whether rules were applied consistently over time. Therefore, it appears that participants in the current study understood procedural justice as the influence that they have over the procedure and the outcome in their respective organisations (the voice criterion). Noticeably, the justice literature tends to emphasise on 'voice' and 'accuracy' as the most frequently used norm of evaluating justice at work (Bashshur & Oc, 2015; Hunton, Hall & Price, 1998).

3.1.2. Perceived distributive justice. All four distributive justice items substantially loaded together. Unlike procedural justice which comprises items assessing different rules that measures the same dimension of POJ, all four distributive justice items adhere to Leventhal's (1976) equity rule. This may be the reason why all items loaded into a single factor. In other words, employees were able to understand that all items measured the norm. This factor-structure finding is consistent with the structure reported in most studies (Foster, 2010; Arya et al., 2019; Rego & Cunha, 2010).

3.1.3. Perceived interpersonal justice as shown by supervisor and employer. Just as with distributive and procedural justice, scholars who used Colquitt's (2001) interpersonal justice subscale often presented that all items in the original interpersonal justice subscale strongly loaded on a single factor (Foster, 2010; Arya et al., 2019; Rego & Cunha, 2010). However, in the current study, the three items that Bies and Moag (1986) developed to assess adherence to the respect criteria were found to measure interpersonal justice as shown by the supervisor and the employer. These items are "My supervisor is polite to me", "My supervisor treats me with dignity" and "My supervisor treats me with respect".

Though the fourth item "My supervisor makes inappropriate comments" was also developed by Bies and Moag (1986), the authors developed the item to measure the criterion of propriety. It is worth noting that this item was also negatively worded. A potential reason why participant did not find that the fourth factor measured perceived interpersonal justice could be that, unlike the other items which measured the rule of respect, this item measured the rule of priority. An alternative reason could be that since the item was negatively worded, participants understood it as measuring a different dimension of POJ. Though previous researchers have found that adding a negatively worded item in a positively worded questionnaire reduced acquiescent response bias (Ibrahim, 2001; Weems, Onwuegbuzie & Lustig, 2003), in this study, negatively worded items generally tended to form one factor with weak internal consistency. Other studies have also found that negatively worded answers may tend to load together and weaken the reliability of the overall scale (Roszkowski & Soven, 2010; Van Sonderen, Sanderman & Coyne, 2013; Zhang, Noor & Savalei, 2016).

3.1.4. Perceived informational justice as shown by supervisor and employer. In the current study, participants understood three items to measure perceived informational justice demonstrated by the supervisor and employer. This does not adhere to findings in most studies which show that all five informational justice items load into a single factor (De Ruiter et al., 2017; Choi, 2011; Roberson & Stewart, 2006). The items "My supervisor/employer gives a detailed explanation about how decisions are made"' and "My supervisor/employer gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made" formed part of the informational justice dimension irrespective of whether the supervisor or the employer was the person of reference. Bies and Moag (1986) developed these two items to assess the justification criterion. On the other hand, the item "My supervisor/employer is open when communicating with me" only formed part of informational justice as shown by the supervisor. The item had been developed to assess adherence to the truthfulness criterion (Bies & Moag, 1986). On the other

hand, the item “My supervisor/employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give” formed part of informational justice as shown by the employer. This item was developed by Shapiro et al. (1994) to assess the adequacy of explanation. It is interesting to note that participants, thus, perceived truthfulness of the informant more related to their direct supervisor than to their employer and adequacy of explanation to be more related with their employer.

It is possible that rewording items to facilitate participants' understanding may have resulted in a systematic difference between items that measured different criteria. This argument could also explain why interpersonal and informational justice were not strongly related to each other, i.e. those who perceived higher degrees of interpersonal justice did not necessarily feel greater informational justice to prevail. Researchers that used the items with their original wording tended to find that interpersonal and informational justice are highly correlated (e.g. Díaz-Gracia et al., 2014; Foster, 2010; Rego & Cunha, 2010). Foster (2010) had suggested that the strong association between informational and interpersonal justice may be attributed to how the items are phased. For example, he argued that participants might misconstrue the informational justice item that speaks of “candid communication” as relating to politeness or respect, which are words used in the interpersonal justice scale that measures the rule of respect. Therefore, rewording items may have resulted in less ambiguous items which allowed participants to distinguish between items that best referred to informational as shown by the supervisor or the employer.

3.1.5. Perceived interactional justice by co-workers. With regards to fairness shown by co-workers, informational and interpersonal justice items loaded into one factor. This structure implies that participants perceived interpersonal justice and informational justice, as shown by their co-workers to measure a single dimension of POJ. In the initial OJ scale, Bies and Moag (1986) had measured informational and interpersonal justice together under the label of interactional justice. However, the high correlation between interactional justice items and items of other POJ dimensions prompted Greenberg's (1993) research in the area. His study found that in practice, Bies and Moag (1986) interactional justice scale measured two independent rules, namely: explanation and sensitivity. Furthermore, Greenbeg (1993) found that, when assessed separately, these two rules had independent effects on employees' theft reaction to underpayment inequity. It is for this reason that Colquitt (2001) systematically spit interactional justice into two distinct dimensions (interpersonal and informational justice) instead of assessing it as one.

The researcher interestingly observed that the study with which Greenberg (1993) differentiated between the two interactional justice dimensions had employees and supervisors as persons of reference. Similarly, Colquitt's (2001) research comprised a case study in a university and another in a workplace setting and used instructors and supervisors as the people who showed the fairness. This is to say that the two seminal works that separated interactional justice into interpersonal and informational justice assessed perceptions of interactional fairness shown by a person of authority (i.e. supervisors or instructors at the university). The relationship between an individual and a person of authority is vertical, whereas the employee-co-workers relationship is horizontal (Gerlach, 2019). In the work setting, employers and supervisors are representatives of the organisation and are agent enacting organisational policies. One could assume that based on these responsibilities, employees are interested to differentiate between what employer and supervisor communicated from how they communicated it. On the other hand, co-workers do not represent the organisation, and the informal nature of the communication between employees and co-workers may mean that employees are less concern about what is communicated and how it is communicated and cared more about the overall interaction with their peers.

An alternative reason could be that in the current study, participants were asked to assess their perception of fairness as shown by a group of co-workers instead of a single person as they did when assessing justice as shown by the supervisor and employer. Therefore, whereas employees could separate what a single person communicated from how they communicated it, this distinction may not have been significant when referring to a group. One could conclude that for co-workers, it was more about the interaction that they had with their pears than what a person or people in the group communicated and how they communicated it.

3.2. Organisational trust (OT)

Though the researcher had initially hypothesised that participants would differentiate between trust toward different actors in the organisation, the current study revealed that participants did not differentiate between the trust they had for their employer, their supervisor and their co-workers. If they trusted their supervisor, they tended to trust co-workers and the employer, too. Though this finding is not consistent with Costigan et al. (2011) research that found that employees trust differed concerning different actors in the organisation, it aligns with other researchers that found that employees do not differentiate levels of trust with different actors in the organisation (i.e. Colquitt et al., 2007). The reason for the different findings across scholars could be attributed to trust being a complex construct to measure

(Colquitt et al., 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000; Bussing, 2002), therefore, different dimension of trust are measured and yielding different results.

Furthermore, the current study found that instead of differentiating trust towards different actors, employees' understanding of the trust scale revealed a two-factor structure. The researcher labelled the first factor as general willingness to be vulnerable (T-GWV) and the second willingness engage in specific behaviours that would put the trustor at risk (T-RWV). The difference between the two aspects of trust is that all items in T-GWV assessed the trustor's willingness to be vulnerable to the trustee by allowing the latter to have influence or control over general things that are important to the trustor. An example item would be "I would allow my employer/ supervisor/co-workers to have complete control over my future in this company". Whereas all items in T-RWV, assessed trustors' willingness to be vulnerable by engaging in specific behaviours that would put them at risk if the trustee were aware of it. An example item is "I would tell my supervisor about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad". T-RWV also captures the trustors' willingness to share sensitive information with the trustee. It is interesting to note that these findings are in alignment with Mayer and Gavin's (2005) research which also found a two-factor structure of trust (willingness to be vulnerable) when they expended the Mayer and Davis (1999) 4-items scale to a ten-item scale. Their research also found that the items in the two factors were grouped based on general willingness to be vulnerable and willing to be vulnerable by actively behaving in ways that could put one at risk. Mayer and Gavin expended the scale because scholars were concerned about the weak internal consistency of the original scale (Schoorman, Mayer & Davis, 2007). Based the current findings and Mayer and Gavin's (2005) contribution, it seems that expending the scale allows participants to see that there is a clear difference between T-GWV and T-RWV, which might not be evident on the original four-items scale.

4. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The findings reported in this study should be interpreted against a backdrop of limitations. As such, in the following section, the researcher acknowledges the study's limitations and uses these limitations and research findings to make a recommendation for future research.

4.1. Suggestions based on limitations

First, the use of a descriptive cross-sectional study design prevents the researcher form making causal inferences about the association between POJ, OT and WEPA. To illustrate, one

could only conclude that the more employees perceived their supervisor to be interpersonally fair towards them, the less they were willing to engage in protest actions for higher wages. One cannot say that poor perception of interpersonal justice from supervisors' influence employees' WEPA. Furthermore, this design may have introduced common method bias because the criterion and outcome variables were measured at a single point in time (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010). This, design also prevented the researcher from exploring the possibility that the constructs of interest may change over time (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Nonetheless, the author proceeded with this design because the research aimed to describe naturally occurring relationships over a limited timeframe. With that said, the study's objective was not to infer causality and assess the stability of these relationships over time. Though experimental and longitudinal designs did not fit this study's purpose, it may be useful for future empirical endeavours to employ these designs to shed light on the direction, causal and potential time-lag effect of the relationship between interpersonal justice as shown by supervisors and WEPA. This is because the current study provided preliminary evidence that the relationship between interpersonal justice as shown by the supervisor and WEPA does exist.

Furthermore, skewed demographic characteristics and variables (skewness and kurtosis values exceeded zero) indicated that the sample obtained was unrepresentative of the population of interest (Lavrakas, 2008; Mouton & Babbie, 2001; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2013; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Though a non-parametric technique, such as Spearman Rank correlation, may have been more appropriate, Pearson product-moment correlation was chosen for hypothesis testing because bootstrapping rendered the detrimental effect of non-normality negligible (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2013). Considering these limitations, it may be worthwhile to replicate the present study on a larger sample obtained using probability sampling techniques. For example, if time and resources permit it, researchers could stratify the low-income South African worker's population and then use Microsoft Excel or IBM's SPSS to select the number of participants required for the study randomly. These techniques would improve the representativeness of the sample, thereby enhancing the extent to which the findings could be generalised to the broader population of low-income workers (Lavrakas, 2008; Mouton & Babbie, 2001).

Lastly, while the use of self-report measures is justified because the nature of the three constructs could only be assessed by asking individuals their perception on the matter (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Conway & Lance, 2010; Gerlach, 2019). Self-report may have introduced common ratter bias (Podsakoff. P, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff. N, 2003). Nonetheless, it is

necessary to provide a picture of employees view about how they are treated at work and their relationship with their supervisor, employer and co-workers (Gerlach, 2019).

4.2. Suggestion based on findings

A few recommendations for future studies can be made based on the findings of the current study. Although evidence was found for a three and four-dimension structure for POJ depending on whether the actor was the supervisor, employer or co-workers, and a two-dimensional organisational trust emerged; future research may be interested in validating this structure on a larger sample of South African low-income workers. More particularly, future researchers should employ CFA to establish whether the theorised four-factor and three-factor models are good fits in the context of low-income South African workers. The researcher did not conduct CFA, as the primary objective of this study was not ascertaining the construct validity of the POJ and the scales. Nevertheless, the results of EFA highlights the need for further investigation into the applicability of Colquitt (2001) POJ scale and Mayer and Davis (1995) trust scale on a non-Western setting such as South Africa.

To gain a more contextualised understanding of perceived organisational justice, the researcher included two open-ended questions in the survey. The findings indicate that, amongst this sample of low-income workers, speaking to employer is regarded as the most appropriate way to express wage-related dissatisfactions. Protesting on the other hand, was often not considered a viable solution because it opposed participants' values. Furthermore, protesting was only considered when participants felt that it is the only way they could get their employer to listen to their dissatisfactions. Participants who indicated that they have never participated in protest action said, using the last two open-ended questions, that they will participate in protest action. This may have been a result of method bias, or that the participants were confused by the item. Either way, this suggests another avenue for future research. Future research could conduct focus groups or semi-structured interviews to understand employees' views on protest action. In so doing, additional and in-depth insights into low-income workers' perspectives on willingness to engage in protest action may be provided. (Hair, Babin, Money & Samouel, 2003; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Lavrakas, 2008).

Lastly, since this study was first interested in measuring factors that may influence low-income workers' propensity to resort to and join workplace protest actions. It might be enriching to investigate the relationship between POJ and WEPA in a western context that is culturally, socially and economically different from South Africa. Exploring the relationship between these variables in other countries might be useful because there is evidence of high

levels of protest actions in western countries as well (Barron, Bory, Chauvin, Jounin & Tourette, 2016; Teune, 2010; Ward, 2016).

5. Implications of the present study

Drawing on the findings of this study, theoretical and practical implications are presented.

5.1. Practical implication

Several practical implications arose from findings of the current study. First, the study found that interpersonal justice concerning the supervisor was the most robust prediction of low-income workers' willingness to engage in protest actions. Based on this observation, Organisations that predominantly employ low-income workers may consider investing in improving employees' perception of interpersonal justice vis a vis of their supervisors. To improve low-income perceptions, organisations could consider sending all its supervisor on a training aimed at improving their interpersonal skills. The training could mainly focus on teaching supervisors how to treat employees politely, with respect and with dignity when communicating information. An intervention could also be implemented at the organisational level whereby organisations can include notions of respect, dignity and politeness as part of the organisational culture. Nielsen, Taris and Cox (2010), argued that organisational level interventions tend to be more effective because it imbeds the intended behaviour since the behaviour becomes part of people unspoken norms, beliefs and values. In summary, by focusing on improving fairness in the workplace, organisations could ensure organisational sustainability because protesting is associated with loss in productivity, profitability and increases risks of reputational damage.

5.2. Theoretical implication

Most inquiries into organisational justice and organisational trust are dominated by European and American perspectives (Caza et al., 2015; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Fulmer and Gelfand, 2012; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017). Noticeably, organisational psychology research has only recently started focusing on low-income employees' rather than what is seen as the scarce talented or highly qualified induvial. Furthermore, there is a paucity of organisational psychology research on protest actions in South African, and most inquire onto this topic are dominated by sociologists (Alexander; 2010; Von Holdt et al., 2011; Webster & Sikwebu, 2010). Owing to these gaps in the literature, this preliminary evidence contributed to the literature because it first broadened insights on organisational justice outside the western

context. Second, it showed the relevance of focusing on low-income workers because work protest actions are associated with loss in productivity, profitability and increased risk of reputational damage for the organisation.

The second theoretical implication concerns the construct validity of perceived organisational justice and organisational trust. A four-factor structure emerged when organisational justice scale, with interpersonal and informational justice as shown by the supervisor and employer, was measured. Whereas a three-factor structure emerged when interpersonal and informational justice as shown by co-workers. These findings provide support for the two steam of researcher that found POJ to be a three or a four-dimensional structure construct. Furthermore, it suggests that the distinction between whether participant understand POJ as a three or four-dimensional structure may be attributed to the person of reference and the influence that a person may have on the participant. Furthermore, though scholars have long debated whether POJ should be measured as district dimensions or a composite score that explicitly capture the "that's not fair!" perception of employees (Colquitt, 2012, p. 7). The current research showed that it is more critical to examine organisational justice as distinct dimensions because even though all dimensions of organisational justice were predictors of employees' WEPA, only interpersonal justice concerning supervisors made a unique contribution to WEPA. Lastly, the current research provides support to scholars who have shown the importance of specifying the actor who enacts the fairness (Devonish & Greenidge, 2010; Molina et al., 2015; Le Roy, Bastounis & Poussard, 2012; Priesemuth, Arnaud & Schminke, 2013).

6. Conclusion

Given the high level of work-related protest action in South Africa amongst low-income workers, ascertaining what factors contribute to low-income workers' willingness to engage in protest action was deemed necessary because of the negative impact that protest has on both, employees and employers. The research thus sought to investigate the role that POJ vis a vis supervisor, employees and co-workers may play in determining low-income workers' willingness to protest. The subsequent aim was to investigate whether employees' trust mediates the identified relationship in the organisation. Despite several limitations, together, the findings provide useful and valuable insights, which may assist in understanding how to reduce protest action in the workplace through an industrial psychologist perspective. In particular, this research showed that although it may be true that prior participation in protest action is a precursor of future participation in protest actions. It seems that organisations can

offset the current surge in work-related protest actions by focusing on justice in the organisation. More specifically, organisations should train their supervisor to treat all employees with respect and dignity.

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Appendix A

Procedural Justice

1. I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me.

Never | Almost never | Almost always | Always

2. I can influence the decisions my employer makes.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

3. My employer always uses the same way to make decisions.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

4. My employer is fair when they make decisions.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

5. My employer uses correct information when they decide on something.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

6. I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

7. The way in which my employer makes decisions is ethical.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Distributive justice

8. I think my wage…

Shows the effort I put into my work.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Shows what I have contributed to my work.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Is fair for the amount of work I have done.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Is fair compared to how I perform at work.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Interpersonal justice

9. My supervisor….

Is polite to me.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Treats me with dignity.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Treats me with respect.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Makes inappropriate comments.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

10. My employer…

Is polite to me.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Treats me with dignity.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Treats me with respect.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Makes inappropriate comments.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

11. My co-workers…

Are polite to me.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Treat me with dignity.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Treat me with respect.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Make inappropriate comments.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Informational justice

12. My supervisor…

Is open when communicating with me.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Gives a detailed explanation about how decisions are made.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Takes a long time before they communicate information. (reverse)

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they give.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

13. My employer…

Is open when communicating with me.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Gives a detailed explanation about how decisions are made.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made.

v Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Takes a long time before they communicate information. (reverse)

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they give.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

14. My co-workers are…

Are open when communicating with me.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Explain very well how decisions are made.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Give understandable explanations about how decisions are made.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Take a long time before they communicate information. (reverse)

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Make sure everyone understands the information they give.

Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Trust in direct supervisor

15. I would allow my supervisor…

    To have influence over what is important to me.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

    To have complete control over my future in this company.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

16. I would tell my supervisor about mistakes I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

17. If my supervisor asks why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

18. I really wish I could keep an eye on my supervisor. (*reverse code*)

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Trust in company employer

19. I would allow my employer…

    To have influence over what is important to me.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

    To have complete control over my future in this company.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

20. I would tell my employer about mistakes I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

21. If my employer asks why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

22. I really wish I could keep an eye on my employer. (*reverse code*)

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

Trust in co-workers

23. I would allow my co-workers…

    To have influence over what is important to me.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

    To have complete control over my future in this company.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

24. I would tell my co-workers about mistakes I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad.

    Never | Almost never | Almost never | Always

25. If my co-workers ask why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

26. I really wish I could keep an eye on my co-workers. (*reverse code*)

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Willingness to engage in protest action for wage increase

27. I would support the idea of ToiToying to express my dissatisfaction with my current wage.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

28. I would be willing to encourage others to toytoy.

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

29. I would be willing to ToiToi. (never)

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

30. If your colleagues who work in the same position as you were very unhappy about their current wages and decided to ToiToi, would you join them?

Never	Almost never	Almost never	Always

Imagine you wanted a higher wage from your employer

31. What would you do?

32. Why?

33. Would you ever take part in protest actions? Yes ☐
No ☐

34. If yes, Why. If no, why not?

Demographics

1. What is your age or year of birth? _____
2. How many other people in your house earn money? _____
3. How many people do you support with your income? _____
4. Have you ever taken part in protest action at work? Yes ☐
No ☐

5. Have you ever taken part in protest action outside of work? Yes ☐

   No ☐

6. When did you start working for your current employer? _____

7. What is your gender? Male ☐

   Female ☐

   Prefer not to answer ☐

8. What is your monthly salary? ZAR _____

9. If you do not want to answer this question would you be willing to tick the box which includes your salary?

Less than R1000	R2 001 – R3 000	R3 001 – R4 000	R4 001 – R5 000
R5 001 – R6 000	R6 001 – R7 000	R7 001 – R8 000	R8 001 – R9 000

Appendix B

Table B1

Organisational justice Colquitt (2001) scale and adapted scale

Subscale	Items	Original scale	Adapted scale
Procedural justice	1	Are you able to express your views during those procedures?	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me.
	2	Can you influence the decisions arrived at by those procedures?	I can influence the decisions my employer makes.
	3	Are those procedures applied consistently?	My employer always uses the same way to make decisions.
	4	Are those procedures free of bias?	My employer is fair when they make decisions.
	5	Are those procedures based on accurate information?	My employer uses correct information when they decide on something.
	6	6. Are you able to appeal the decisions arrived at by those procedures?	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made.
	7	7. Do those procedures uphold ethical and moral standards?	The way in which my employer makes decisions is ethical.
Distributive justice	1	1. Do those outcomes reflect the effort you have put into your work?	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work.
	2	2. Are those outcomes appropriate for the work you have completed?	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work
	3	3. Do those outcomes reflect what you have contributed to your work?	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done.
	4	4. Are those outcomes justified, given your performance?	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work.
Interpersonal justice (supervisor)	1	1. Has your supervisor treated you in a polite manner?	My supervisor is polite to me.
	2	2. Has your supervisor treated you with dignity?	My supervisor treats me with dignity

	3	3. Has your supervisor treated you with respect?	My supervisor treats me with respect.
	4	4. Has your supervisor refrained from improper remarks or comments? (*reverse code*)	My supervisor makes inappropriate comments (*reverse code*)
Interpersonal justice Employer			My employer is polite to me.
			My employer treats me with dignity
			My employer treats me with respect.
			My employer makes inappropriate comments (*reverse code*)
Interpersonal justice Co-workers			My Co-workers are polite to me.
			My Co-workers treat me with dignity
			My Co-workers treat me with respect.
			My Co-workers make inappropriate comments (*reverse code*)
Informational justice (supervisor)	1	1. Has your supervisor been candid when communicating with you?	My supervisor is open when communicating with me.
	2	2. Has your supervisor explained decision-making procedures thoroughly?	My supervisor gives a detailed explanation about how decisions are made
	3	3. Were your supervisor's explanations regarding procedures reasonable?	My supervisor gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made
	4	4. Has your supervisor communicated details in a timely manner?	My supervisor takes a long time before they communicate information. *(reverse coded)*

	5	5. Has your supervisor tailored communications to meet individuals' needs?	My supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they give.
Informational justice-Employers			My supervisor is open when communicating with me. My supervisor gives a detailed explanation about how decisions are made My supervisor gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made My supervisor takes a long time before they communicate information. *(reverse coded)* My supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they give.
Informational justice Co-workers			My co-workers are open when communicating with me. My co-workers explain very well how decisions are made. My co-workers give understandable My co-workers take a long time before they communicate information. My co-workers make sure everyone understands the information they give.

Table B2

Mayer and Davis (1999) trust scale and Adapted scale

Item	Mayer and Davis (1999) Scale	Adapted scale
1	If I had my way, I wouldn't let___have any influence over issues that are important to me.	I would allow my supervisor to have influence over what is important to me.
2	I would be willing to let___have complete control over my future in this company.	I would allow my supervisor to have complete control over my future in this company
3	I would tell____about mistakes I've made on the job, even if they could damage my reputation.	I would tell my supervisor about mistakes I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad.
4	I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on___.	I really wish I could keep an eye on my supervisor.

Appendix C

Faculty of Commerce

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06/08/2019

Aura Mbolela

School of Management Studies

University of Cape Town

REF: 2019/08/008

An exploration of the role of trust as a mediator between organisational justice perceptions and willingness to engage in protest action for higher wages among low-income employees in RSA.

We are pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved. Unless otherwise specified this ethical clearance is valid until 31 August 2020

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.

Signature Removed

19.08.06
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Appendix D

Written Consent from Factory Owner

This document is a confirmation that I Anthea Fransman, owner of a factory in Cape Town grant Aura Mbolela the permission to distribute her survey to my employees for the purpose of collecting data for her Masters dissertation. Due to the nature of the business I will verbally communicate with her which date and time will be most suitable for her to distribute her survey.

Signature Removed

Signature

Date

06/07/2019

Appendix E
Information sheet

Research project: Trust, justice and protest for higher wages

Dear Madam/Sir

My name is Aura Mbolela and I am a Master's student at the University of Cape Town.

I study Organisational Psychology which looks at how people work together. As part of my studies I have to complete a research project. In this research I want to find out if there could be fewer protest actions in organisations if employers are fair and employees can trust their employer.

What do I have to do? What's in it for me?

If you are currently employed, I would like to hear about your experiences in this questionnaire. I do not need to know where you work, and there are no right or wrong answers. I am only interested in people's experiences. It should take approximately 20-30 minutes of your time.

I am looking for volunteers. You do not have to participate, and you can stop at any point. I will not ask for your name or phone number, all answers are anonymous. Your information is confidential and will only be used for research purposes.

The study has been approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee at the University of Cape Town. Should you have any questions please contact me on:

Email: mblaur001@myuct.ac.za
Phone: 076 766 6273

Thank you for helping me with my research.

Kind regards
Aura Mbolela

Respondent Consent

Thank you for considering to complete this questionnaire. Your participation means that you agree to participate in this research. You have the right not to answer any question.

Have you read and understood the information sheet for this study, are you currently employed and do you agree to participate? *(Please answer yes if you wish to proceed.)*

Yes ☐
No ☐

Appendix F

Perceived organisational justice supervisor scale for low-income workers construct validity

Table F1

Rotated Factor loading for the 20-item POJ Supervisor following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work	.82					
2	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done	.82					
3	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work	.74					
4	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work	.72					
5	I can influence the decisions my employer makes		.72				
6	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me		.61				
7	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made		.60				
8	My employer always uses the same ways to make decisions						
9	My supervisor treats me with respect			.81			
10	My supervisor is polite to me			.77			
11	My supervisor treats me with dignity			.71			
12	My supervisor gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made				.89		
13	My supervisor gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made				.78		
14	My supervisor is open when communicating with me				.66		
15	My supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they give				.41		
16	My supervisor takes a long time before they communicate information*					.55	
17	My supervisor makes inappropriate comments*					.48	
18	My employer makes decision fairly						.74
19	The way in which my employers makes decision is ethical					.49	.54
20	My employer uses correct information when they decide on something						

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 11 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table F2

Rotated Factor loading for the 18-item POJ Supervisor following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	My supervisor gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.87					
2	My supervisor gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.80					
3	My supervisor is open when communicating with me	.66					
4	My supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they give	.43					
5	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.83				
6	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.81				
7	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.72				
9	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.70				
10	My supervisor treats me with respect			.79			
11	My supervisor is polite to me			.78			
12	My supervisor treats me with dignity			.71			
13	I can influence the decisions my employer makes				.76		
14	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me				.59		
15	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made				.59		
16	My supervisor takes a long time before* they communicate information					.54	
17	My supervisor makes inappropriate* comments					.51	
18	My employer makes decision fairly					.37	-.35
19	The way in which my employers makes decision is ethical					.42	-.63

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 11 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table F3

Rotated Factor loading for the Reduced 17-item POJ Supervisor following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5
1	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work	.83				
2	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done	.82				
3	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work	.72				
4	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work	.70				
5	My supervisor gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made		-.86			
6	My supervisor gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made		-.81			
7	My supervisor is open when communicating with me		-.65			
9	My supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they give		-.41			
10	My supervisor treats me with respect			.81		
11	My supervisor is polite to me			.76		
12	My supervisor treats me with dignity			.75		
13	I can influence the decisions my employer makes				.73	
14	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made				.61	
15	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me				.60	
16	My supervisor takes a long time before they communicate information*					.62
17	The way in which my employers makes decision is ethical					.47
19	My supervisor makes inappropriate comments*					.43

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 8 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table F4

Rotated Factor loading for the Reduced 14-item POJ Supervisor following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4
1	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work	.84			
2	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done	.81			
3	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work	.72			
4	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work	.70			
5	My supervisor gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made		-.89		
6	My supervisor gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made		-.77		
7	My supervisor is open when communicating with me		-.66		
9	My supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they give		-.43		
10	My supervisor treats me with respect			.87	
11	My supervisor is polite to me			.77	
12	My supervisor treats me with dignity			.76	
13	I can influence the decisions my employer makes				.76
14	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me				.60
15	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made				.59

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 8 iterations; Patten matrix.

Appendix G

Perceived organisational justice employer scale for low-income workers construct validity

Table G1

Rotated Factor loading for the 20-item POJ Employer following Principal Axis Factoring

`Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	My employer gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.77					
2	My employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give	.71					
3	My employer gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.71					
4	My employer is open when communicating with me	.44					.32
5	My employer uses correct information when they decide on something	.39					
6	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.86				
7	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.83				
8	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.71				
9	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.65				
10	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.68			
11	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.640			
12	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.56			
13	My employer always uses the same ways to make decisions						
14	My employer makes decision fairly				.90		
15	The way in which my employers makes decision is ethical				.34	.32	
16	My employer makes inappropriate comments					.87	
17	My employer takes a long time before they communicate information					.38	
18	My employer treats me with dignity						.89
19	My employer treats me with respect						.86
20	My employer is polite to me						.84

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 15 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table G2

Rotated Factor loading for the 19-item POJ Employer following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	`2	3	4	5	6
1	My employer gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.78					
2	My employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give	.71					
3	My employer gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.70					
4	My employer is open when communicating with me	.45					.31
5	My employer uses correct information when they decide on something	.36					
6	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.88				
7	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.83				
8	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.68				
9	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.62				
10	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.72			
11	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.63			
12	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.57			
14	My employer makes inappropriate comments				.89		
15	My employer takes a long time before they communicate information				.37		
16	The way in which my employers makes decision is ethical				.33		
17	My employer makes decision fairly					-.88	
18	My employer treats me with dignity						.88
19	My employer treats me with respect						.87
20	My employer is polite to me						.84

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 15 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table G3

Rotated Factor loading for the 18-item POJ Employer following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	My employer treats me with respect	.88					
2	My employer treats me with dignity	.88					
3	My employer is polite to me	.85					
5	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.88				
6	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.82				
7	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.68				
8	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.62				
9	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.72			
10	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.63			
11	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.58			
12	My employer makes inappropriate comments				.90		
14	My employer takes a long time before they communicate information				.37		
15	The way in which my employers makes decision is ethical				.33	-.30	
16	My employer makes decision fairly					-.88	
17	My employer gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made						-.75
18	My employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give						-.72
19	My employer gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made						-.69
20	My employer uses correct information when they decide on something						-.37

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 11 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table G4

Rotated Factor loading for the 17-item POJ Employer following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	My employer treats me with respect	.88					
2	My employer treats me with dignity	.88					
3	My employer is polite to me	.85					
5	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.88				
6	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.82				
7	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.68				
8	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.62				
9	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.72			
10	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.63			
11	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.58			
12	My employer makes inappropriate comments*				.89		
14	My employer takes a long time before they communicate information*				.37		
16	My employer makes decision fairly					-.88	
17	My employer gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made						-.75
18	My employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give						-.72
19	My employer gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made						-.69
20	My employer uses correct information when they decide on something						-.37

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 12 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table G5

Rotated Factor loading for the 14-item POJ Employer following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4
1	My employer gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.76			
2	My employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give	.73			
3	My employer gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.71			
5	My employer uses correct information when they decide on something	.38			
6	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.88		
7	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.84		
8	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.65		
9	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.63		
10	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.72	
11	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.65	
17	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.58	
18	My employer treats me with dignity				-.87
19	My employer treats me with respect				-.87
20	My employer is polite to me				-.84

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 12 iterations; Patten matrix.

Appendix H

Perceived organisational justice co-workers scale for low-income workers construct validity

Table H1

Rotated Factor loading for the 20-item POJ Co-workers following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5
1	My co-workers are open when communicating with me	.84				
2	My co-workers treat me with dignity	.80				
3	My co-workers give understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.79				
4	My co-workers give detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.79				
5	My co-workers treat me with respect	.77				
6	My co-workers are polite to me	.71				
7	My co-workers make sure everyone understands the information they give	.60				
8	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.87			
9	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.86			
10	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.82			
11	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.75			
12	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.83		
13	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.64		
14	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.62		
15	The way in which my employers makes decision is ethical				-.76	
16	My employer makes decision fairly				-.72	
17	My employer uses correct information when they decide on something				-.55	-.39
18	My co-workers make inappropriate comments*					.70
19	My co-workers take a long time before they communicate information*			-.47		.65
20	My employer always uses the same ways to make decisions					-.51

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 12 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table H2

Rotated Factor loading for the 18-item POJ Employer following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5
1	My co-workers are open when communicating with me	.83				
2	My co-workers treat me with dignity	.79				
3	My co-workers give detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.79				
4	My co-workers give understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.79				
5	My co-workers treat me with respect	.78				
6	My co-workers are polite to me	.71				
7	My co-workers make sure everyone understands the information they give	.60				-.52
8	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.89			
9	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.87			
10	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.80			
11	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.74			
12	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.88		
13	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.70		
14	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.70		
15	The way in which my employers makes decision is ethical				.79	
16	My employer makes decision fairly				.78	
18	My co-workers make inappropriate comments					.77
20	My employer always uses the same ways to make decisions					-.75

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 8 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table H3

Rotated Factor loading for the 17-item POJ Employer following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5
1	My co-workers are open when communicating with me	.83				
2	My co-workers treat me with dignity	.80				
3	My co-workers give understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.78				
4	My co-workers give detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.78				
5	My co-workers treat me with respect	.78				
6	My co-workers are polite to me	.72				
8	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done		.88			
9	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work		.87			
10	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work		.80			
11	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work		.75			
12	I can influence the decisions my employer makes			.88		
13	I am able to tell my employer what I think before they decide on something that affects me			.70		
14	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made			.70		
15	The way in which my employers makes decision is ethical				.79	
16	My employer makes decision fairly				.79	
18	My co-workers make inappropriate comments*					.81
20	My employer always uses the same ways to make decisions					-.76

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 6 iterations; Patten matrix.

Appendix I

Organisational trust scale for low-income workers construct validity

Table I1

Rotated Factor loading for the 15-item organisational trust following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3	4
1	I would allow my supervisor to have complete control over my future in this company	.76			
2	I would allow my employer to have complete control over my future in this company	.74			
3	I would allow my co-workers to have complete control over my future in this company	.72			
4	I would allow my employer to have influence over what is important to me	.70			
5	I would allow my co-workers to have influence over what is important to me	.67			
6	I would allow my supervisor to have influence over what is important to me	.59			
7	I would tell my supervisor about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.73		
8	I would tell my employer about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.71		
9	If my supervisor asks why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault		.70		
10	If my employer asks why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault		.59		.34
11	I really wish I could keep an eye on my employer			.92	
12	I really wish I could keep an eye on my supervisor			.81	
13	I really wish I could keep an eye on my co-workers			.65	
14	I would tell my co-workers about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad				.84
15	If my co-workers asks why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault				.62

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 8 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table I2

Rotated Factor loading for the 13-item organisational trust following Principal Axis Factoring

`	Item Description	1	2	3	4
1	I would allow my employer to have complete control over my future in this company	.75			
2	I would allow my supervisor to have complete control over my future in this company	.75			
3	I would allow my co-workers to have complete control over my future in this company	.71			
4	I would allow my employer to have influence over what is important to me	.71			
5	I would allow my co-workers to have influence over what is important to me	.67			
6	I would allow my supervisor to have influence over what is important to me	.59			
7	I would tell my supervisor about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.80		
8	If my supervisor asks why a problem happedned, I would be honest even if it was my fault		.68		
9	I would tell my employer about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.61		
11	I really wish I could keep an eye on my employer			.91	
12	I really wish I could keep an eye on my supervisor			.81	
13	I really wish I could keep an eye on my co-workers			.65	
14	I would tell my co-workers about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad				.82
15	If my co-workers asks why a problem happedned, I would be honest even if it was my fault				.71

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 7 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table I3

Rotated Factor loading for the 11-item organisational trust following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3
1	I would allow my co-workers to have complete control over my future in this company	.82		
2	I would allow my employer to have complete control over my future in this company	.80		
3	I would allow my supervisor to have complete control over my future in this company	.79		
4	I would allow my co-workers to have influence over what is important to me	.77		
5	I would allow my employer to have influence over what is important to me	.73		
6	I would allow my supervisor to have influence over what is important to me	.64		.46
7	I would tell my supervisor about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.86	
8	If my supervisor asks why a problem happedned, I would be honest even if it was my fault		.81	
9	I would tell my employer about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.72	
14	I would tell my co-workers about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad			-.83
15	If my co-workers asks why a problem happedned, I would be honest even if it was my fault			-.78

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 6 iterations; Patten matrix.

Table I4

Rotated Factor loading for the 10-item organisational trust following Principal Axis Factoring

Item Number	Item Description	1	2	3
1	I would allow my co-workers to have complete control over my future in this company	.87		
2	I would allow my employer to have complete control over my future in this company	.82		
3	I would allow my co-workers to have influence over what is important to me	.78		
4	I would allow my supervisor to have complete control over my future in this company	.76		
5	I would allow my employer to have influence over what is important to me	.75		
7	I would tell my supervisor about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.88	
8	If my supervisor asks why a problem happedned, I would be honest even if it was my fault		.78	
9	I would tell my employer about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad		.76	
14	I would tell my co-workers about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad			.90
15	If my co-workers asks why a problem happedned, I would be honest even if it was my fault			.87

Notes. *Reverse-coded items; Rotation Method: Direct Oblim with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation convergence in more than 5 iterations; Patten matrix.

Appendix J

Item-total statistics for the measurement scales

Table J1

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 3-item procedural justice

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	I can influence the decisions my employer makes	.53	.58
	I can ask my employer to change decisions they have made	.51	.61
	im am able to tell my employers what I think before they decide on something that affect me	.50	.61

Table J2

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 4–item Distributive justice

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work	.72	.83
	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work	.70	.83
	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done	.71	.83
	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work	.75	.82

Table J3

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 3-item interpersonal justice supervisor

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	My supervisor is polite to me	.70	.85
	My supervisor treats me with dignity	.75	.79
	My supervisor treats me with respect	.77	.78

Table J4

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 3-item informational justice supervisor

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	My supervisor gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.69	.73
	My supervisor understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.68	.78
	My supervisor is open when communicating with me	.64	.78

Table J5

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 3-item interpersonal justice employer

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	My employer is polite to me	.72	.90
	My employer treats me with dignity	.74	.89
	My employer treats me with respect	.71	.90

Table J6

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 3-item informational justice employer

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	My employer gives detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.44	.80
	My employer makes sure everyone understands the information they give	.48	.78
	My employer understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.56	.71

Table J7

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 7-item interpersonal justice co-workers

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	My co-workers are polite to me	.57	.83
	My co-workers treat me with dignity	.70	.83
	My co-workers treat me with respect	.65	.84
	My co-workers is open when communicating with me	.77	.85
	My co-workers give detailed explanation about how decisions are made	.72	.84
	My co-workers understandable explanations about how decisions are made	.71	.83
	My co-workers make sure everyone understands the information they give	.60	.83

Table J8

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 5-item T-GWV

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	I would allow my co-workers to have complete control over my future in this company	.73	.83
	I would allow my employer to have complete control over my future in this company	.72	.84
	I would allow my co-workers to have influence over what is important to me	.68	.83
	I would allow my supervisor to have complete control over my future in this company	.64	.82
	I would allow my employer to have influence over what is important to me	.67	.83

Table J9

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 3-item T-RWV

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	I would tell my supervisor about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad	.65	.64
	If my supervisor asks why a problem happened, I would be honest even if it was my fault	.58	.72
	I would tell my employer about a mistake I've made at work, even if it could make me look bad	.60	.70

Table J10

Item-total Statistics for the reduced 4-item WEPA

Item Number	Item Description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	I would support the idea of toyi-toying to express my dissatisfaction with my current wage	.87	.90
	I would be willing to encourage others to toyi-toyi	.87	.90
	I would be willing to toyi-toyi	.83	.91
	If your colleagues who works in the same position as you were very unhappy about their current wages and decided to toyi-toyi, would you join them?	.78	.93

Appendix K

Assumptions of multiple regression

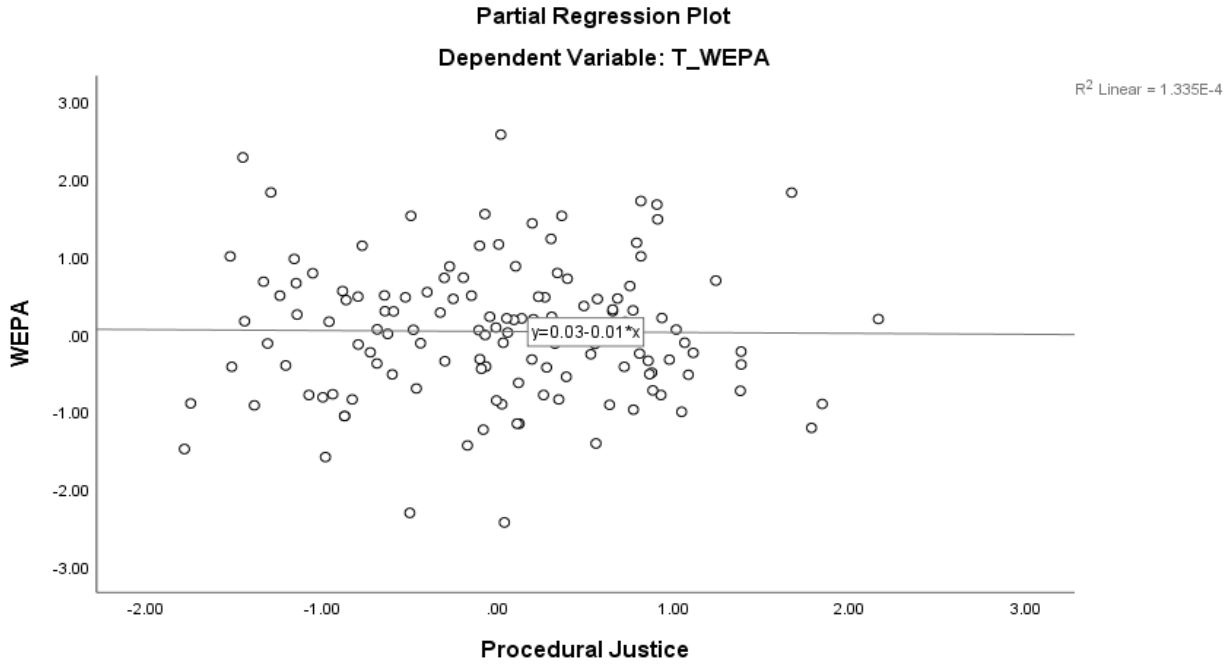

Figure K1: The Linear Relationship between Procedural justice and WEPA

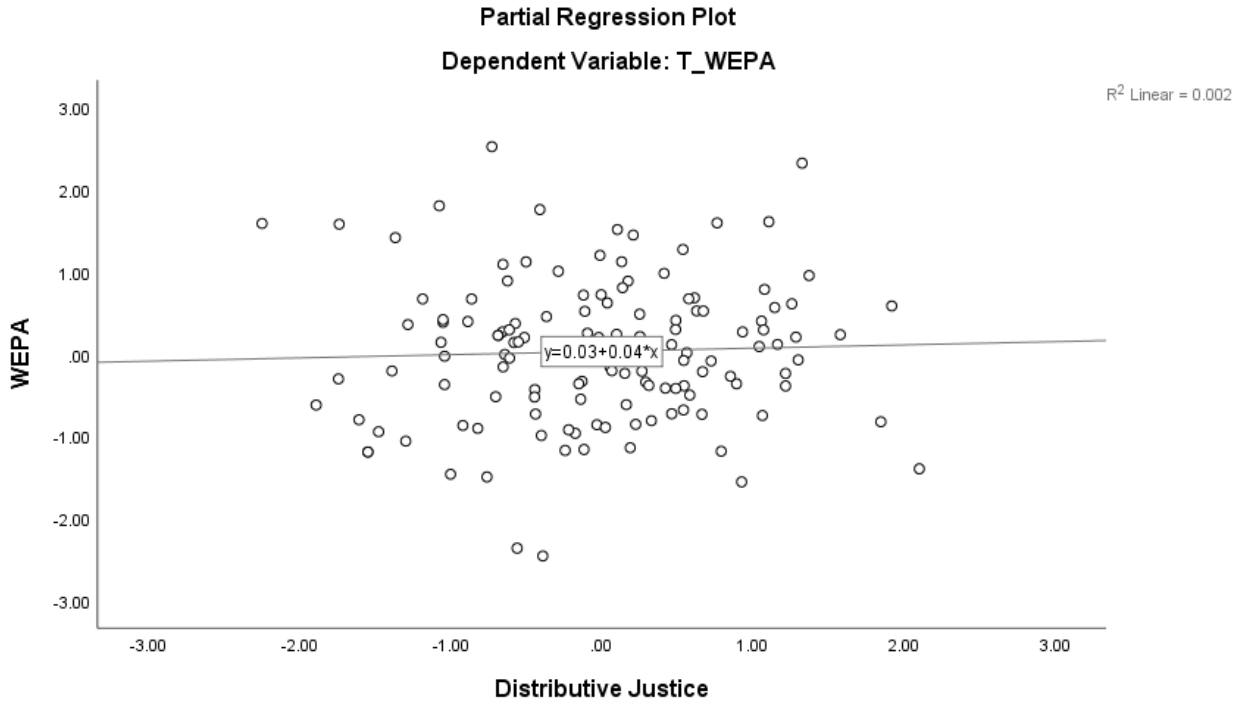

Figure K2: The Linear Relationship between Distributive justice and WEPA

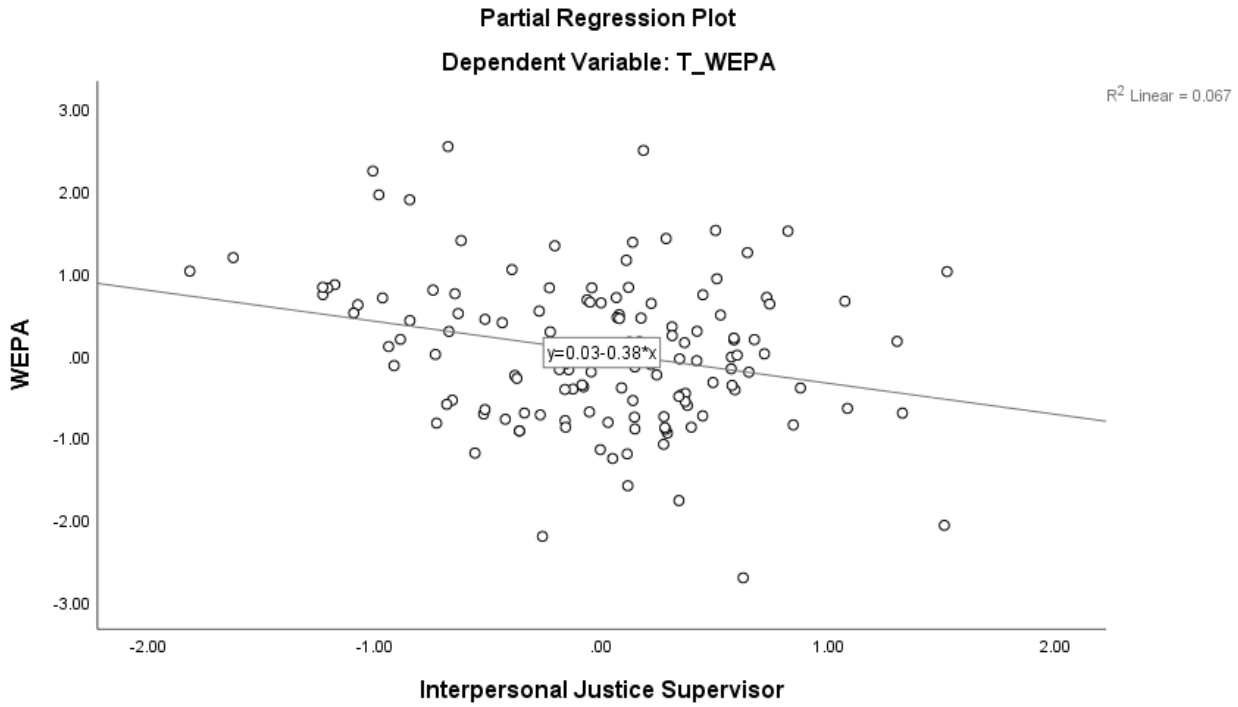

Figure K3: The Linear Relationship between interpersonal justice supervisor and WEPA

Figure K4: The Linear Relationship between interpersonal justice employer and WEPA

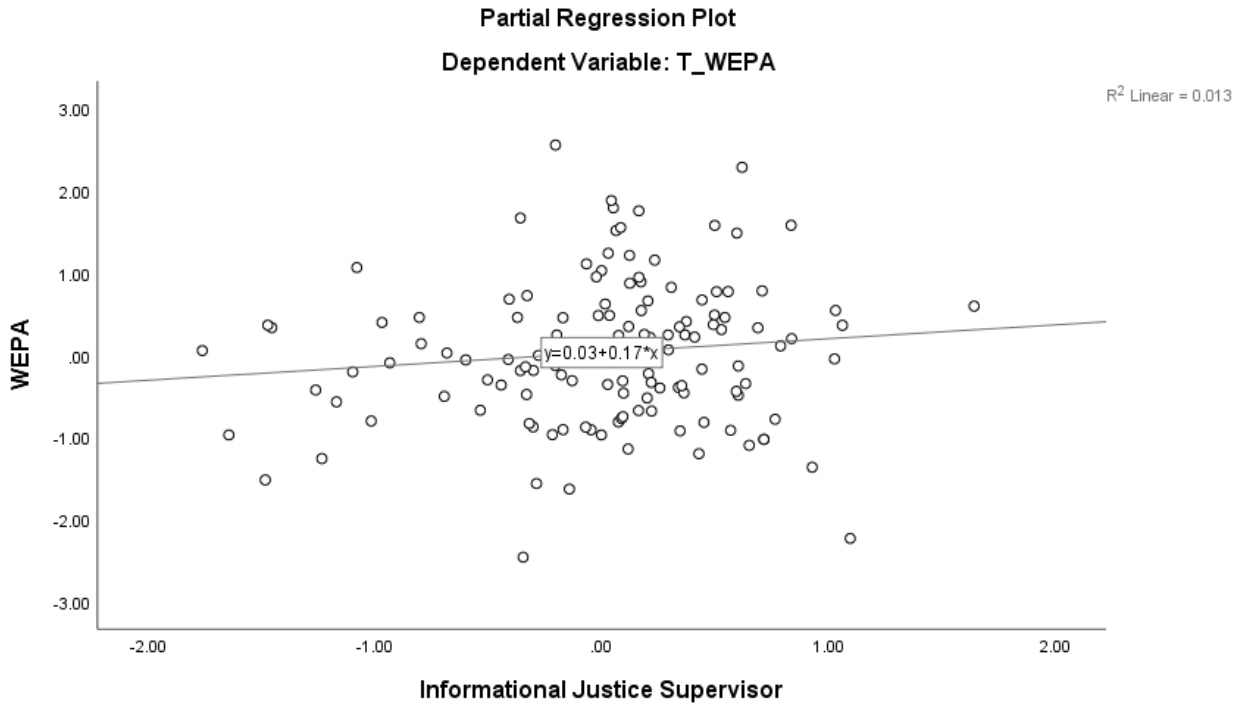

Figure K5: The Linear Relationship between informational justice supervisor and WEPA

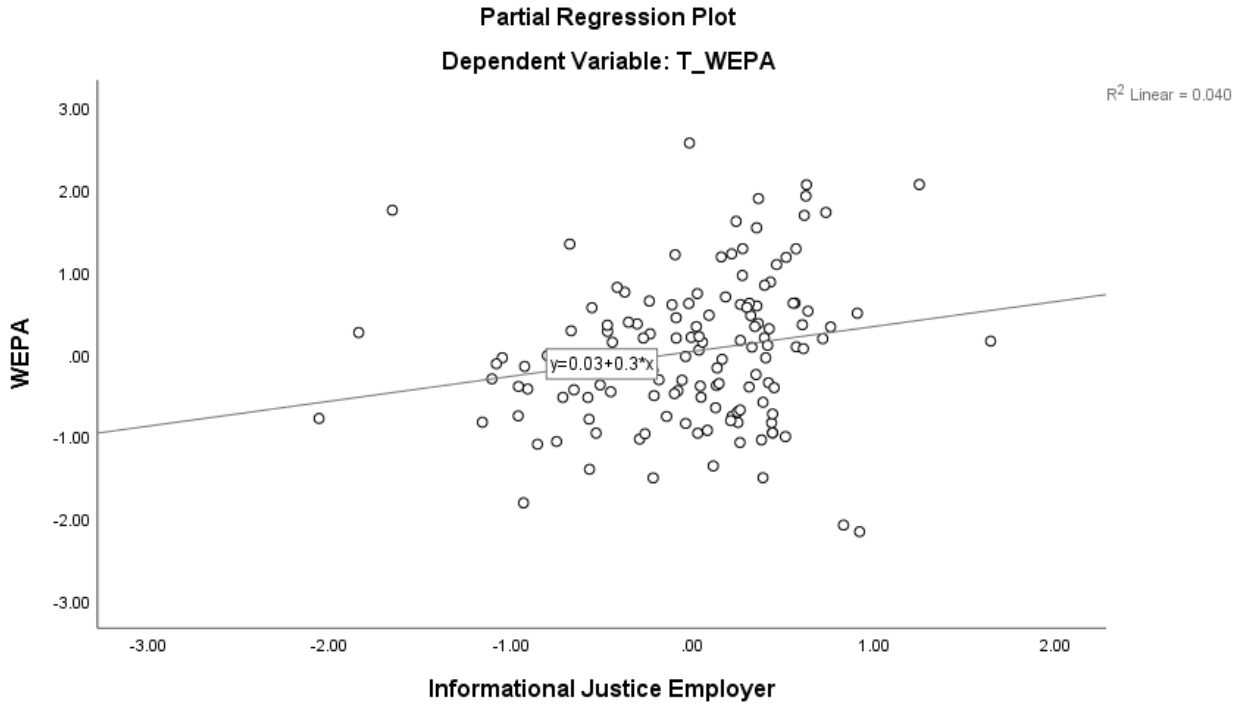

Figure K6: The Linear Relationship between informational justice employerand WEPA

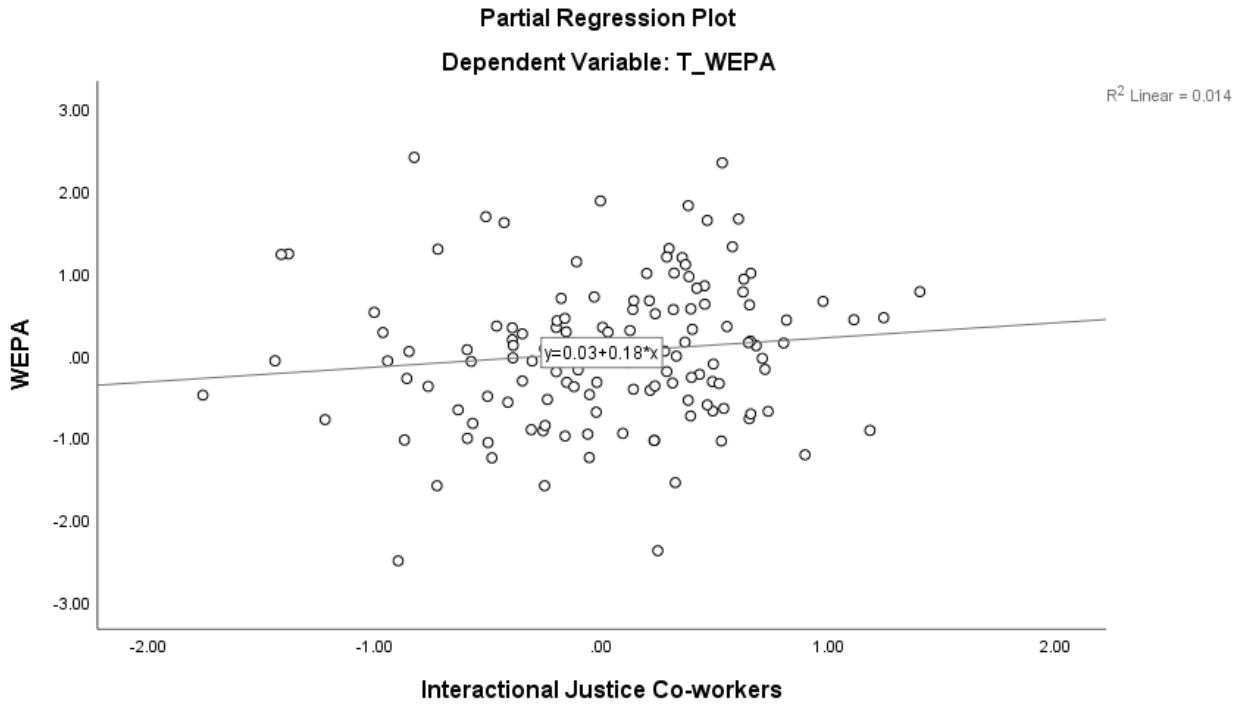

Figure K7: The Linear Relationship between interactional justice co-workers and WEPA

Figure K8: The Linear Relationship between Gender and WEPA

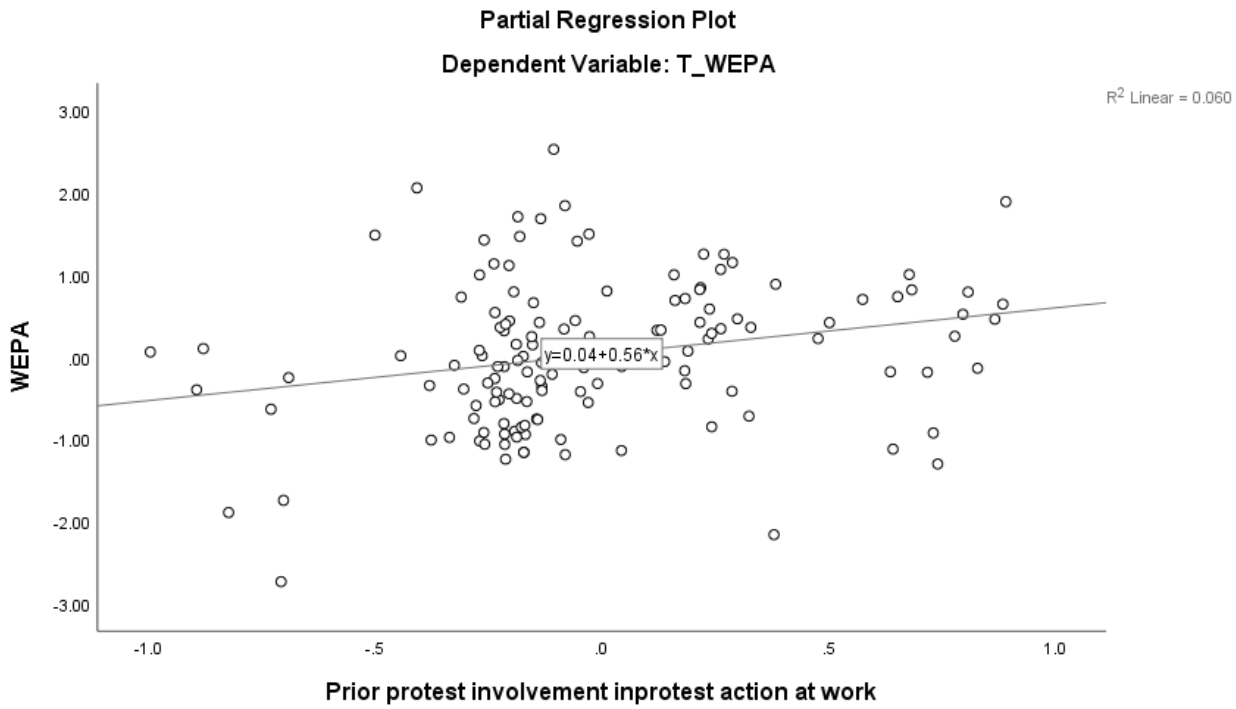

Figure K9: The Linear Relationship between Prior involvement in protest action at work and WEPA

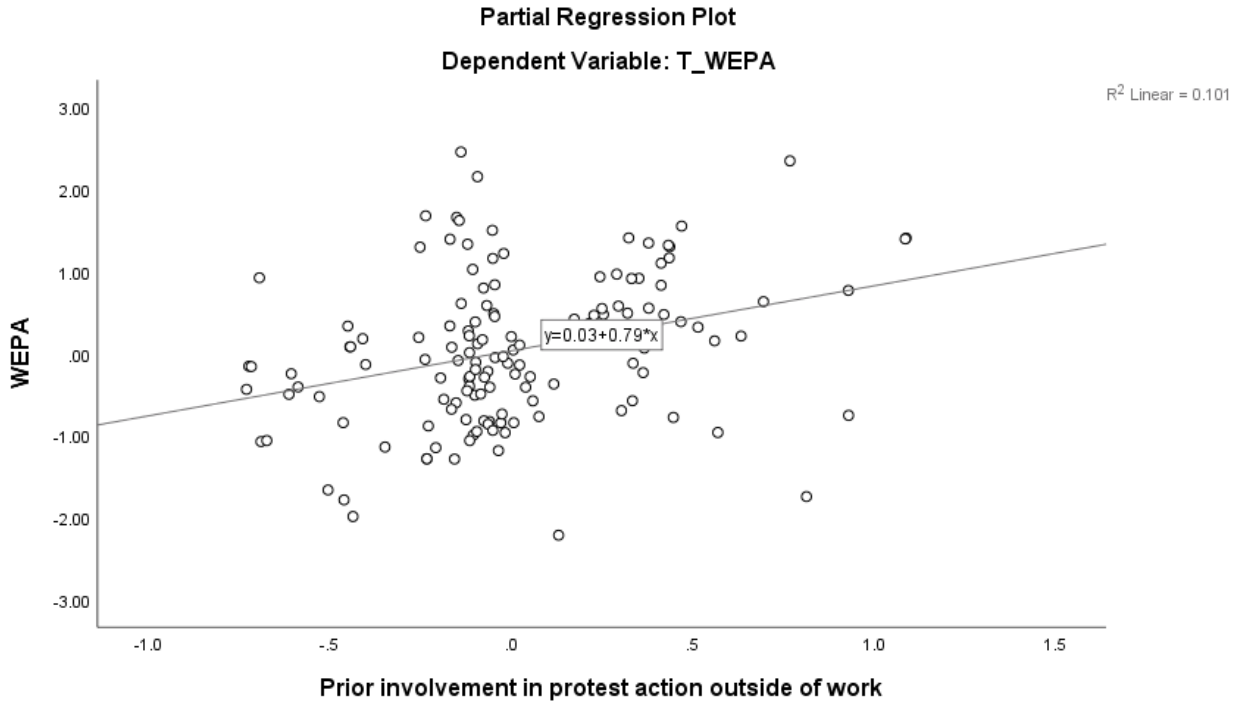

Figure K10: The Linear Relationship between Prior involvement in protest action at work and WEPA

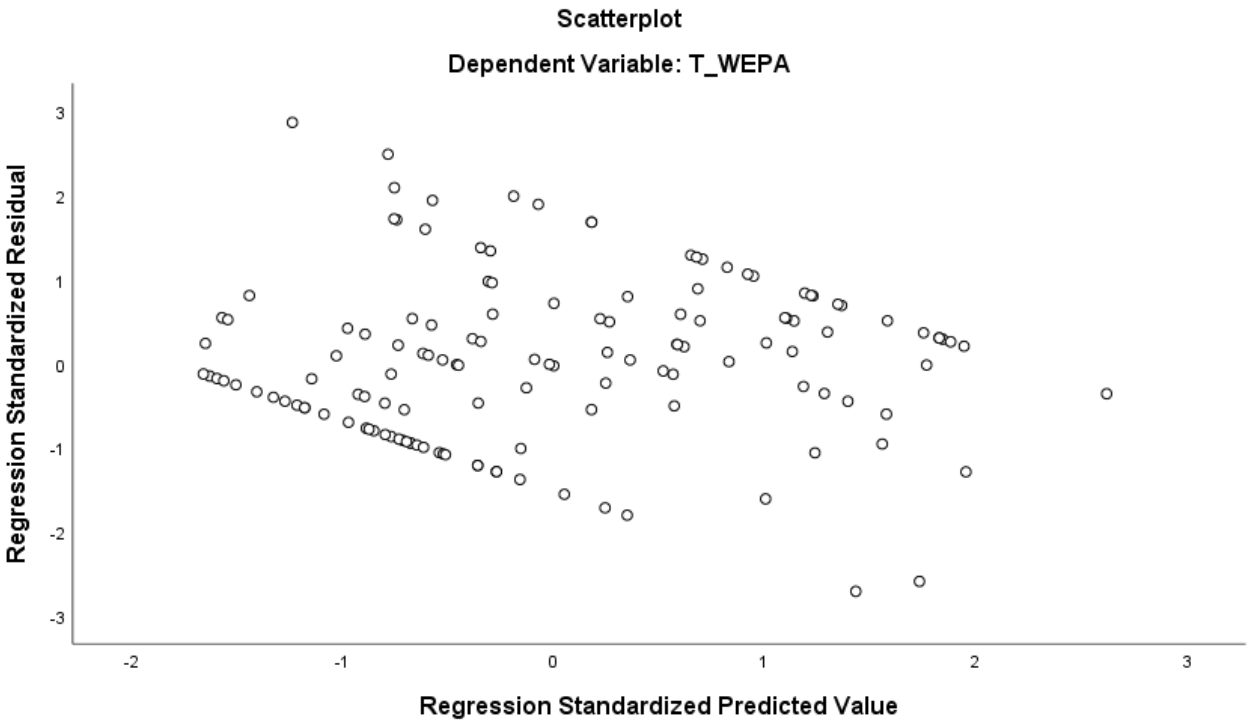

Figure K11: Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals of the regression Model

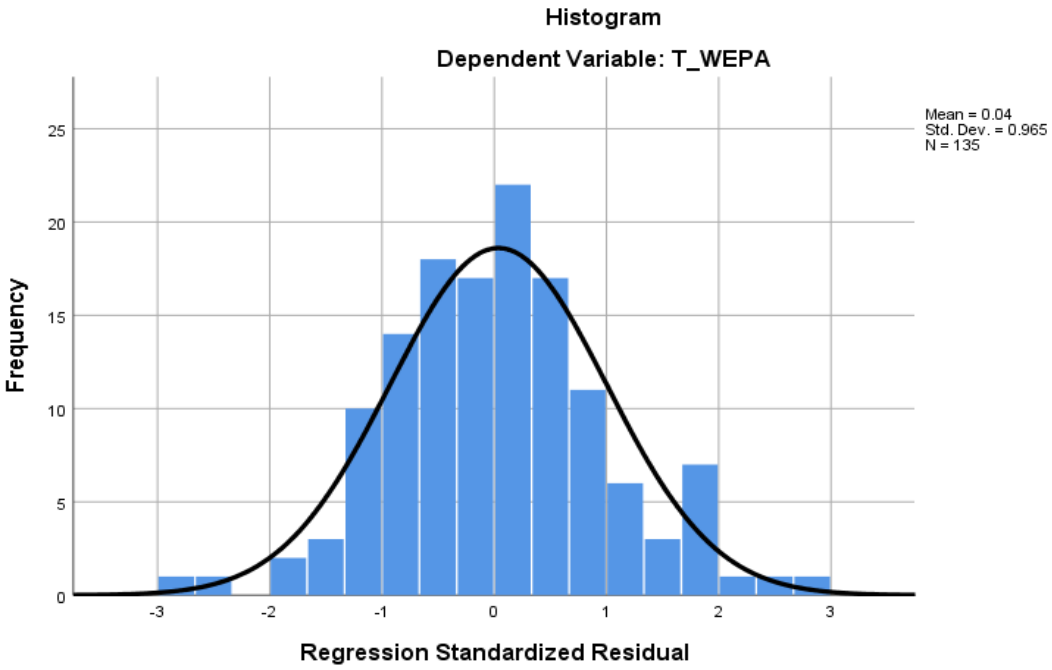

Figure K12: Histogram of Normally Distributed Residuals for the regression model

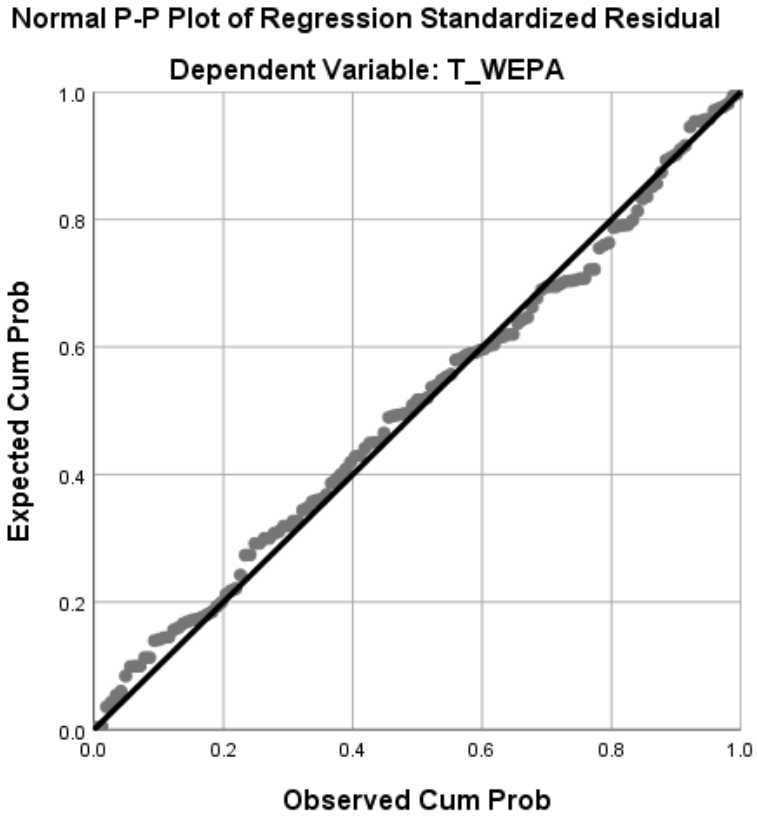

Figure K13: Histogram of Normally Distributed Residuals for the regression Model