



**ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE AND WORKPLACE SOCIAL SUPPORT
AS PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYEE WELLBEING:
A CASE OF HIGH-INCOME WORKERS
IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Lana Viljoen
VLJLAN001

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Supervisor: Associate Professor Ines Meyer

COMPULSORY DECLARATION

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Abstract

Amongst the 17 Sustainable Development Goals as proposed by the United Nations, the study was concerned with promoting decent work (Sustainable Development Goal 8) and wellbeing (Sustainable Development Goal 3) amongst high-income workers. In line with what constitutes decent work, the study aimed to determine to what extent organisational justice (comprising distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice) and workplace social support (comprising perceived organisational support, perceived supervisory support, and perceived co-worker support) predicted employee wellbeing amongst high-income workers. The results provided insight into the multidimensionality of wellbeing and revealed two types of wellbeing present in the study, namely *work-related wellbeing* and *interpersonal wellbeing*. The study adopted a correlational research design, assisted by survey research, where an online survey was distributed via *LinkedIn* and *WhatsApp* to collect data from high-income workers (N = 120). The regression results indicated that all types of organisational justice and workplace social support predicted the two types of wellbeing. In addition, mediation analyses indicated that supervisory support strengthened the relationship between interactional justice (i.e., interpersonal and informational justice) and employee wellbeing (i.e., work-related and interpersonal wellbeing). The study thus highlighted the importance of supervisory support in achieving interpersonal and informational justice and proposed training aimed at interpersonal skills for supervisors to aid in the management of employee wellbeing. In addition, the study highlighted how COVID-19 had disintegrated the workplace as many organisations required their employees to work remotely. The study thus proposed that organisations should seek ways for employees to interact with one another in a virtual working environment. Therefore, as organisations maintain decent working conditions by implementing fairness and support in the workplace, they contribute to the management of employee wellbeing.

Keywords: Employee wellbeing, Organisational justice, Workplace social support, Work-related wellbeing, Interpersonal wellbeing, Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interpersonal justice, Informational justice, Perceived organisational support, Perceived supervisory support, Perceived co-worker support.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Amongst the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) proposed by the United Nations to achieve a sustainable future for all, two goals directly concern the workplace. These include SDG 3 which seeks to ensure healthy lives and promote wellbeing for all ages and SDG 8 which is committed to decent work for all (United Nations Foundation, 2015). The interconnectedness between all 17 goals accentuates, however, that it is difficult to achieve healthy lives and wellbeing without access to decent work (Fonesca et al., 2019). Decent work is defined by the International Labour Organization (ILO) as “work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organise and participate in the decisions that affect their lives, and equality of opportunity for all women and men” (International Labour Organisation, 2015, p.1). This definition suggests that underlying the decent work concept is the fair treatment of employees.

Conventionally, the focus of decent work is on low-income workers as their often-limited qualifications result in the exploitation of their rights (Ferraro et al., 2018). Their work is by default regarded not to be decent due to insufficient financial rewards, for example. However, through the attainment of SDG 8 (concerned with decent work for all), low-income workers’ wellbeing improves (the achievement of SDG 3), as they for example receive the financial means to secure necessities that in turn reduce stress. Debates about decent work, however, typically disregard high-income workers as they are assumed not to experience decent work deficits – or at least to have the power and skill to shift a non-decent work environment to a more decent one. As high-income workers are well rewarded for their work, it is often assumed that they work in a safe, healthy and stable environment and that they have access to development opportunities (Ferraro et al., 2018). This is even though common working conditions associated with high-income work (e.g., high work intensity and a challenging social environment) do not constitute decent working conditions either, and have detrimental effects on individuals’ wellbeing (Ariza-Montes et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020). It can thus be argued that for organisations to create decent work, they need to consider employees at all income levels. This is not just in line with the international development agenda but could also benefit organisations themselves.

The health and wellbeing of employees are at the core of an organisation’s competitive advantage (Chenoweth, 2011) as a well-functioning workforce drives an organisation’s performance objectives. This explains why organisations and academic research have sought

to understand which wellbeing related variables impact the work behaviour and productivity of employees.

Different psychological theories and models explain the mechanism between workplace factors, wellbeing and the work-related behaviours employees show. Models such as the Effort-Rewards Imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996) and the Job-Demands-Control-Support model (Karasek, 1979) outline what affects health at work (Giauque et al., 2019; Siegrist, 2012). The Effort-Reward-Imbalance model poses that the failed reciprocity of high efforts spent, and low rewards received in return provokes sustained negative emotions and stress, while equitable rewards (e.g., fair pay or promotions concerning effort exerted at the workplace) promote health and wellbeing (Siegrist, 2012). Kivimäki et al. (2007), furthermore, noted the important role of employees' justice perceptions to explain why effort-reward-imbalance has negative wellbeing and health effects. If employees perceive organisational procedures as unfair, which is likely if they feel rewards received do not match their efforts, the risk of physical and mental disorders increases. The Job-Demands-Control-Support model (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), furthermore, poses that when employees experience high levels of stress due to higher job demands, stress can be lowered through greater job control and support from supervisors and co-workers (Giauque et al., 2019). It is thus worth exploring the impact of employees' perceptions of fairness and support in the workplace as such constructs ought to explain how high-income workers perceive decent work. In addition, employees' perceptions of fairness and support can aid in determining how organisations could manage employee wellbeing more effectively, which contribute to the attainment of SDGs 3 and 8.

In the interest of both organisational effectiveness and employee wellbeing, concepts such as organisational justice and workplace social support must be considered. The study, therefore, aims to answer to what extent organisational justice and workplace social support predict employee wellbeing amongst high-income workers in South Africa.

The first chapter provided an introduction to the dissertation, where the rationale and research question for the study was specified. In the succeeding chapter, the researcher explores current literature on employee wellbeing, organisational justice and workplace social support, and presents the study's hypotheses accordingly. Thirdly, the methods chapter outlines the research design, participants and sampling techniques, measures, data collection and analysis procedures, and ethical considerations of the study. In the fourth chapter, the researcher provides the findings of the study, after which the final chapter discusses the results involving

existing literature. The dissertation concludes with practical implications and an overview of the study's limitations and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The following chapter presents an overview of existing literature related to the three variables that are of relevance to the study. These are employee wellbeing as the dependent variable, and organisational justice and workplace social support as the independent variables. The chapter further outlines how the variables relate to one another and concludes with the study's hypotheses as derived from the literature.

2.1. Employee Wellbeing

The challenge of defining wellbeing. Despite an abundance of wellbeing-related research, a single agreed-upon definition for the construct is lacking (Henn et al., 2016). This is as a result of a variety of views concerning wellbeing, either related to the various factors that are regarded to form part of wellbeing (i.e., work, life and health satisfaction, and levels of enjoyment, depression or anger), or the resulting labels that are ascribed to the construct. An additional challenge in determining an all-encompassing definition for wellbeing stems from it being studied by a variety of disciplines such as Psychology, Economics, Health Sciences, Sociology and Anthropology.

Wellbeing is often viewed in line with the health of an individual (Henn et al., 2016). The definition of health, as presented by the World Health Organisation, is a "state of complete physical, mental and social wellbeing" (Edwards, 2006, p. 357). It also cannot merely be described as the "absence of disease and infirmity" (Csiernik, 1995, p. 3). In an attempt to gain more clarity about the underlying nature of wellbeing, research relating to Psychology has been categorised into one of two principal perspectives, namely hedonia and eudaimonia. As Ryan and Deci (2001) point out, the former, as proposed by Greek Philosopher, Aristippus, is concerned with one's feelings or emotions, whereas the latter, as proposed by Aristotle, accentuates that leading a 'life well lived' entails one to interact with the world to meet basic psychological needs such as experiencing a sense of competence or purpose. Affiliated with these approaches are the concepts of subjective wellbeing and psychological wellbeing.

Subjective wellbeing (Diener, 1984) refers to the degree that individuals subjectively evaluate the overall quality of their lives. It posits that individuals evaluate their lives based on three distinct but often related components, namely positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction. More specifically, individuals' subjective evaluations can be both positive and negative and may include affective reactions such as joy or sadness to life events. It may also

include judgements or feelings about life satisfaction, interests and engagement. Subjective wellbeing also entails satisfaction with different life domains, such as work, relationships, health, recreation, meaning and purpose (Diener & Ryan, 2009). It is noted that individuals' subjective wellbeing is high when they experience regular positive affect (e.g., joy), and infrequent negative affect (e.g., sadness).

Ryff (1989) had argued that this three-component model of subjective wellbeing is limited in describing wellbeing and proposed that wellbeing is based on the combination of feeling good and effective functioning. With eudaimonia at its core, psychological wellbeing encompasses an individual who is healthy, well, functions optimally, and who can succeed despite life's existential challenges (Henn et al., 2016). Ryff (1989) has, therefore, proposed six dimensions of psychological wellbeing, described as self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth. As these dimensions constitute what wellbeing is, it has also been indicated that psychological wellbeing holds health benefits for cardiovascular, neuroendocrine, musculoskeletal and immune systems (Henn et al., 2016).

Huppert (2009), on the other hand, maintained that in the three-component model of subjective wellbeing, the concept of feeling good entails experiences of positive emotions and integrates positive emotions such as happiness, contentment, interest, engagement, confidence and affection. The concept of effective functioning entails the development and achievement of one's potential, having a sense of purpose, and functioning well within a social community (Huppert, 2009;), thus comprising the factors outlined by Ryff (1989).

As a universally accepted definition is lacking, together with the various attempts made to describe wellbeing, measuring wellbeing holds an array of challenges to scholars concerned with the construct (Dodge et al., 2012). Despite the different definitions of wellbeing, many researchers have focussed on wellbeing as some form of multidimensional construct. This is explored in the section below.

A multidimensional approach to employee wellbeing. Employee wellbeing has at times been considered in terms of physical and mental health concerning an employee's job (Baptise, 2008; Le et al., 2016). While it includes both physical and psychological wellbeing, literature often focuses on the mental wellbeing aspect as it is often decreased mental wellbeing that results in physical ill-health. Literature on employee wellbeing has often been concerned with how satisfied or engaged employees are at work, and as a result, employee wellbeing is often viewed in line with employees' job satisfaction or engagement.

As outlined in the previous section, employee wellbeing is a complex construct and cannot simply be indicated by a single measure (i.e., a job satisfaction or employee engagement score) (Kern et al., 2015). With the noted challenge to define wellbeing, it is worthwhile to rather view employee wellbeing as a multidimensional construct, as many facets contribute to an employee's overall state of mental health (Dodge et al., 2012). A multidimensional approach to employee wellbeing can also assist organisations in accurately assessing, understanding and promoting wellbeing when identifying the areas accountable for lower levels of wellbeing (Kern et al., 2014).

One multidimensional model of wellbeing is the PERMA model of wellbeing (Seligman, 2011). It proposes that wellbeing comprises five dimensions, namely, **P**ositive emotions, **E**ngagement, **R**elationships, **M**eaning and **A**ccomplishments. Developed by Martin Seligman (2011), the pioneer of positive psychology, the PERMA model highlights five independent elements of wellbeing that stimulate intrinsic rewards to achieve a sense of fulfilment, human flourishing and satisfaction in life (Coffey et al., 2014). **P**ositive emotions relate to feelings of happiness and joy, and **e**ngagement entails one's increased interest in activities. As engagement increases one's commitment to tasks, it increases the likelihood of experiencing positive feelings when overcoming challenging tasks and thus results in improved wellbeing. The theory, furthermore, proposes that **r**elationships are fundamental to life as feeling valued and supported by others can decrease depression. Positive relationships, therefore, allow individuals to experience positive emotions such as love, kindness and gratitude. In addition, **m**eaningfulness relates to a sense of purpose, and **a**ccomplishments illustrate one's persevering attitude to master something (Coffey et al., 2014; Giangrasso, 2018).

Applied to the workplace, the PERMA model implies that employee wellbeing entails that employees have positive feelings and attitudes towards their jobs (**p**ositive emotions). The model, furthermore, proposes that employee wellbeing is influenced by how meaningful and important employees regard their jobs (**m**eaning), how they associate with others in the workplace (**r**elationships), and how they take ownership of their work (**e**ngagement) (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2013; Wissing, 2014). Higher levels of employee wellbeing also cause employees to work and behave according to their maximum potential, to be socially accountable, and to adapt to challenging situations (**a**ccomplishments).

The five dimensions of the PERMA model individually relate to wellbeing and can be measured as separate but correlated constructs (Butler & Kern, 2016). However, despite the model being criticised for being redundant and overlapping with subjective wellbeing theory,

Seligman (2018) argues that the PERMA theory of wellbeing incorporates both hedonic (living a pleasurable and joyous life) and eudemonic (living a purposeful life) components as opposed to subjective wellbeing (hedonia), and psychological wellbeing (eudemonia) (Donaldson et al., 2020; Goodman et al., 2017;). It should also be noted that the PERMA model does not constitute a new type of wellbeing theory (Donaldson et al., 2020), but that it instead identifies the aspects that constitute wellbeing. It explains an individual's wellbeing in terms of its five essential components, which increases flourishing due to the intrinsic rewards associated with increased positive emotions, engagement, positive relationships, meaning and accomplishments that individuals experience at work.

The present study will thus view employee wellbeing in line with the PERMA theory, as it aims to explain the extent of an employee's wellbeing concerning the five dimensions. With the noted multidimensionality of wellbeing, the PERMA theory will aid in understanding wellbeing and possible underlying constructs that describe it. Accordingly, the five dimensions will allow for inferences to be drawn on how organisations can ensure the wellbeing of their employees.

The importance of employee wellbeing. Employee wellbeing has become increasingly important in the modern world of work as it holds a variety of significant implications for both employees and their organisations. With employees spending a significant proportion of their lives at work, workplace changes as a result of globalisation, technological advancements, increased competition, work intensification, and increased work-family conflict, may have a profound influence on employee wellbeing (Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012). As a result, low levels of employee wellbeing can be detrimental to employees' job performance, and thus to organisational performance.

Increased psychological conditions such as stress, depression and anxiety result in lower levels of job performance as they increase employee absenteeism and accidents on the job (Carolan et al., 2017). This is echoed by the *happy-productive worker thesis* that proposes that happy employees (those maintaining positive emotions and an absence of negative emotions) exhibit higher levels of job-related performance behaviours than unhappy employees (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). Organisations should, therefore, manage employee wellbeing by introducing focused interventions aimed at improving work structure, leadership behaviour or organisational culture, because only then will wellbeing related problems be addressed appropriately. As a result, organisations can expect increased resilience, better employee

engagement, job satisfaction, and higher performance and productivity. The wellbeing of employees is, therefore, in the best interest of both employees and their organisations.

2.2. Organisational Justice

Conceptualisation of organisational justice. The concept of organisational justice relates to the overall perceptions of fairness that employees have of procedures, outcomes and interactions within the workplace (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). It is reflected in the different aspects of employees' working lives and often entails perceptions of how fairly authorities treat employees, how fairly decisions are made, and how fairly procedures are implemented. Research concerning organisational justice has been extensive (Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018), with fairness related theories dating from the 1960s having had a major impact on the origins of organisational justice studies (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Amongst others, Equity theory by psychologist John Stacy Adams (1963) postulates that humans have a strong motivational drive towards equity. He suggests that the motivating power behind human behaviour is striving towards a balance in all spheres of life and that an imbalance results in psychological strain (Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018). Alternatively, Homans' (1961) Social Exchange theory, for example, is instrumental to understanding employee-employer exchange relationships (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012). The theory proposes that individuals are sensitive to the possibility that one party may be getting more from the exchange relationship than the other. Fundamentally, the imbalance that individuals experience is emphasised by the unfairness that individuals perceive concerning certain outcomes. The theory posits that when employees and employers create positive working relationships, a mutual understanding develops that is beneficial for both the employee and the employer (Nazir et al., 2018). The theory, therefore, provides insight into what affects employee behaviours because when employees seek a balance in their relationships with their employers, they align their attitudes and behaviours to their employers' commitment to them. The Social Exchange theory can, therefore, explain how employees' wellbeing is influenced by their workplace exchange relationships, as employees tend to be less engaged at work when they perceive that their employers do not care about their concerns (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012).

In addition to justice research in the 1970s, researchers focused on the fairness of procedures according to which resources are distributed (Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018). A strong emphasis was placed on fair decision-making of authorities as the distribution of rewards was not always as important as the process by which they were allocated. This suggested that

individuals do not only react to the number of rewards they receive, but also to the decision-making aspects underlying the rewards (i.e., whether the decisions regarding their rewards have been made consistently, whether all parties have been treated equally during the decision-making process, and whether all parties were informed fairly). The concepts of distributive and procedural justice were thus established, and researchers were progressively interested in individuals' ability to differentiate between the two (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005; Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018).

An additional form of justice was, however, explored in the 1980s and 1990s in response to individuals' sensitivity to how they were treated during a decision-making process (Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018). The concept of interactional justice emerged as a reaction to layoffs in an attempt to understand the conditions under which layoff survivors would remain motivated and committed following the downsizing of organisations. It was noted that justifications for the layoffs contributed to the employees' future work commitment and work effort, implying that the layoffs did not negatively influence their perceptions of the organisation as they received a fair or reasonable explanation for being laid-off (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Interactional justice was later also classified as interpersonal and informational justice (Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018).

Organisational justice is therefore conceptualised to comprise four dimensions, namely distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. The four types are described below.

Distributive justice entails the perceived fairness that employees have of how fairly resources are distributed within the workplace. More specifically, it entails employees' concerns about how equally their work inputs (e.g., their effort, education, training or experience) are rewarded (with wages, job security, promotions or career opportunities), and often in comparison to their co-workers (Baldwin, 2006; Robbins & Judge, 2016). Research has indicated that distributive justice relates to cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions in response to certain outcomes. Essentially, when these outcomes are perceived to be unfair, it is known to affect emotions (e.g., anger, happiness, pride or guilt), cognitions (e.g., cognitively distort inputs and outcomes of oneself or others), and ultimately behaviour at work (e.g., performance or withdrawal) (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of principles and processes used to determine decisions relating to work outcomes and the distribution of rewards and benefits such as performance appraisals and promotions (Baldwin, 2006; Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018). Research has often indicated that procedural justice is the most important determinant of

perceived organisational justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Perceived unfairness in this regard also leads to affective, cognitive and behavioural reactions towards the organisation as a whole because procedural justice is concerned with the underlying manner in which an organisation allocates resources. To maintain fairness in this regard organisations should adhere to consistent, bias suppressed, accurate, correctable and ethical procedures when making decisions concerning the allocations of resources that affect employees (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005).

Interactional justice draws on the interpersonal communication portrayed by authorities during organisational procedures (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). As previously noted, that interactional justice is concerned with the sensitivity of individuals' perceptions of organisational procedures, it refers to the quality and completeness of the information and interpersonal treatment that those working in an organisation, perceive to receive. In addition, it refers to the degree of dignity and respect that employees experience when being communicated with (Baldwin, 2006; Lawson et al., 2009; Robbins & Judge, 2016). Greenberg and Colquitt (2005) noted that interactional justice is achieved when authorities are truthful (i.e., they are open, honest and candid in their communication) and respectful (i.e., they treat individuals with dignity and refrain from displaying rude behaviour) in their decision-making. They are also fair when they maintain justified explanations for their decisions and when they refrain from prejudicial statements regarding sex, race, age or religion. More specifically, interactional justice comprises interpersonal and informational justice. Some scholars argue that the two types are distinct and should be used in separate capacities (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005; Johnson et al., 2014), while others argue that they should be referred to collectively (Kivimäki, 2007; Elovainio et al., 2010). *Interpersonal justice* refers to being concerned for individuals regarding the distributive outcomes they receive and maintaining respect and propriety during the implementation of decisions affecting them. *Informational justice*, furthermore, refers to providing explanations about procedures that demonstrate consideration for individuals' concerns and relates to the truthfulness and justification of authorities' decisions (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Both have been noted to be related to affective, cognitive and behavioural reactions towards management representatives (often direct supervisors who are the sources of (in)justice).

The importance of organisational justice. Organisational justice has the potential to create valuable benefits for both organisations and employees (Cropanzano et al., 2007). The dimensions of organisational justice are, therefore, important contributors to employee

productivity and predict work attitudes and behaviours (Elovainio et al., 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2016). Perceptions of fairness reinforce the trustworthiness of authorities leading to authorities' decision-making procedures being supported, and organisational change accepted. Amongst others, perceived fairness creates greater trust and commitment concerning employees, it improves job performance, discourages disruptive behaviours and improves customer satisfaction (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). In addition, Baldwin (2006) noted that procedural justice fosters more helpful organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) and encompasses outputs such as courtesy, conscientiousness, altruism and sportsmanship.

Organisational justice, however, becomes especially relevant when employees experience unfairness at work, as their perceptions of injustice could hold adverse consequences for their organisations (Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018). When employees experience arbitrary dismissals, unfair conflict resolutions, organisational change, unequal payments between co-workers, or performance reviews that are conducted by individuals with whom little previous interaction had taken place, team dynamics deteriorate, productivity and wellbeing decrease, and work-related illnesses increase (Baldwin, 2006; Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018). The fair treatment that employees perceive within their daily work enhances their positive emotions and commitment to an organisation, and ultimately has a significant impact on employee performance and organisational success (Elovainio et al., 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2016). Organisations should, therefore, maintain fairness in the hiring, performance appraisal, reward systems, and conflict management procedures involving their employees to combat the consequences that injustice may hold in the workplace (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

Organisational justice and employee wellbeing. Despite over 50 years of organisational justice research, the relationship between organisational justice and employee wellbeing only earned attention in the early 2000s. It is noted that organisational justice plays a crucial role in employee wellness and that a lack thereof could have negative implications on the health and wellbeing of employees, and to the detriment of organisations as productivity decreases due to increased absenteeism (Le et al., 2016).

The Effort-Rewards Imbalance model posits that the failed reciprocity of high efforts spent, and low rewards received in return provokes sustained negative emotions and stress, while equitable rewards (e.g., fair pay or promotions in relation to the effort exerted to the workplace) promote health and wellbeing (Siegrist, 2012). Perceived injustice (e.g., due to unfair pay) harms employee health and wellbeing and has been noted to contribute to increased psychological stress, depression and health complaints such as heightened cardiovascular and

immunological problems, and blood pressure (Fischer et al., 2014; Kivimäki et al., 2007; Le et al., 2016). As a result, low levels of organisational fairness lead to the impairment of employees' emotional, psychological, social and physical wellbeing. Perceived injustice also causes employees to experience negative emotions towards the workplace that in return impact their engagement and accomplishments of work tasks.

With regards to procedural justice, literature indicates that a lack of control (i.e., when employees cannot voice their contributions in decision-making procedures) leads to increased anxiety and lower levels of wellbeing. Distributive injustice, furthermore, also acts as a source of stress when employees perceive that they are underpaid in relation to their inputs at work (Le et al., 2016). In addition, the extent to which people are treated with justice in the workplace predicts their health and wellbeing independently of established stressors at work (Kivimäki et al., 2007). More specifically, Baldwin (2006) notes how perceptions of interpersonal justice are a reliable predictor of self-assessed health as employees perceive better control over job demands, more support and satisfactory rewards. Research conducted in Australia also revealed that informational justice has the strongest influence on the wellbeing of tourism employees (Le et al., 2016).

The four organisational justice domains hold significant implications for employee health and wellbeing. Accordingly, the study hypothesises that:

Hypothesis 1: Organisational justice predicts employee wellbeing.

2.3. Workplace Social Support

Workplace social support explained. Workplace social support encompasses perceived organisational support (POS), perceived supervisory support (PSS) and perceived co-worker support (PCS). Essentially, the concept is concerned with the extent to which employees perceive that their employers, supervisors and co-workers care about them by providing them with the necessary assistance at work (Chou, 2015).

The concept of workplace social support stems from social-support literature proposing that an individual's beliefs are situated around being loved, valued and cared for as part of a social network of mutual obligation. In addition, it involves perceptions of having access to helping relationships that provide resources such as tangible assistance, communication of information, or emotional empathy (Kossek et al., 2011). In the organisational setting,

employees perceive support in terms of instrumental support (where practical assistance is provided to them), emotional support (in the form of comfort, sympathy or encouragement), or informational support (where they are provided with information that assists with problem-solving). Workplace social support is, therefore, the degree to which employees perceive that their wellbeing is valued by workplace sources (such as the broader organisation, supervisors or co-workers), and that these sources provide help to support their wellbeing by providing positive resources or social interactions on the job (Kossek et al., 2011; Özyer & Polatci, 2017).

The *perceived organisational support* (POS) component of workplace social support refers to an employee's perceptions of the extent that their organisation values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing (Bentley et al., 2016; Kurtessis et al., 2015). It is either represented by the employer, leadership, workplace sources of the broader organisation, human resource practices and working conditions such as pay, job security, training and development experiences and work-family policies (Krishnan & Mary, 2012). POS entails employees' beliefs about how their organisations meet their socio-economic needs and tangible benefits (such as respect, care, wages and medical benefits), and how they respond to increased efforts at work (Burns, 2016). Building on the Social Exchange theory (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012), POS is critical to understanding workplace behaviour, because when employees feel supported by their organisations, they are more likely to return the appreciation. POS is thus associated with a host of positive work outcomes such as increased organisational commitment, job involvement, and performance, and reduced absenteeism, withdrawal behaviours, turnover intention and psychological strain (Krishnan & Mary, 2012). A lack of support or even unfavourable treatment by the organisation, however, could result in poor employee behaviour as employees will not feel obliged to behave satisfactorily when they perceive that they are not valued or cared for (Roemer & Harris, 2018).

The Social Exchange theory further proposes that employees also develop a general view concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and wellbeing at work (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012). *Perceived supervisory support* (PSS) is defined as the extent to which employees believe that their supervisors care for and value their wellbeing and inputs at work (Swanzy, 2020). The support that employees receive from their supervisors provides crucial guidance and feedback that assist them in carrying out responsibilities effectively, which also result in positive work outcomes. Supportive supervisors are also considerate and encouraging towards their subordinates. This is in line with the Social Exchange theory, as organisational support literature suggests that supportive supervisors produce a felt obligation among employees to help their supervisors reach their goals (Edmondson & Boyer, 2012). PSS

is, therefore, more than an important job resource. It strengthens employees' resilience to cope with hardship, while also instilling a sense of appreciation and commitment towards supervisors and the broader organisation (Lu et al., 2013; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012).

In addition to PSS, *perceived co-worker support* (PCS) also involves an interpersonal transfer of instrumental or emotional resources (Chou, 2015). PCS is defined as the degree to which employees perceive that their co-workers are willing to assist them with work to aid in the execution of work performance (Liaw et al., 2009). Co-workers also have the power to provide different types of support to each other such as offering assistance on the job, or more emotionally intense forms of support such as providing counselling concerning personal troubles (Sloan, 2012). When employees receive more emotional support, consideration, task-specific information, and practical assistance from co-workers, they obtain more resources to cope with stressful and demanding situations at work, and their job satisfaction consequently increases (Liaw et al., 2009). Co-workers' mutual support is, furthermore, known to lower employees' withdrawal behaviours and turnover intentions. It also impacts employee wellbeing as positive emotions and motivation are encouraged from interpersonal relationships since there is a degree of experiences shared (Canboy et al., 2020).

Support is regarded as a critical job resource that has been researched extensively as it holds significant implications for organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, productivity, turnover intention and employee health (Roemer & Harris, 2018). In addition, the implications that the Corona Virus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic has had on the workplace (e.g., remote working and work-family conflict), accentuate how powerful support is in ensuring employee wellbeing (Lee et al., 2020).

Support and wellbeing in the workplace. In the workplace, employees are constantly confronted with a variety of challenges that can have harmful effects on their health and wellbeing (Beehr et al., 2010; Roemer & Harris, 2018). To cope with these challenges successfully, employees require the necessary resources to remain healthy and productive in a competitive work environment. As highlighted above, and in line with the Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), job resources such as support have the potential to aid employees when confronted with demanding or stressful situations. The model thus suggests that job resources (such as support) buffer the negative effects of impeding job demands (Roemer & Harris, 2018).

When employees feel valued, cared for and supported by their organisations, supervisors and co-workers, their work environments are likely to be more pleasant and less

stressful. Workplace social support thus allows employees to feel more connected to others in the workplace. As they share their concerns, they are likely to get assistance from others that in turn alleviate their stress, which further prevents their health and wellbeing from deteriorating (Chou, 2015).

The different types of workplace social support are known to reduce job strains by decreasing the negative implications of job demands. In addition, and on a more organisational level, when employees have a feeling of job security and control, a sense of positive affect is instilled that contributes to improved wellbeing (Roemer & Harris, 2018). Furthermore, supervisors are often a direct representation of an organisation and are critical in developing job roles, expectations, and pleasant working conditions. When employees experience favourable working conditions, they may interpret this as a sign of care and respect from their organisation and supervisors (Chou, 2015). However, often in such cases, the perceived support might not hold any advantages for employees' wellbeing, as favourable working conditions might be unnoticed. It is only when employees view unfavourable working environments as supervisors or organisations not being supportive that it will present negative implications for their wellbeing (Beehr et al., 2010; Chou, 2015). In other words, a lack of POS or PSS may hold disadvantages for employee wellbeing.

Additionally, as supervisors provide valuable information that assists employees in improving work performance when faced with complex tasks, PSS is known to alleviate occupational stress when employees find work stressful and challenging. Supportive interpersonal relationships are nevertheless known to reduce psychological strain, emotional exhaustion, burnout, anxiety and depression (Swanzy, 2020). This is also relevant to PCS as supportive relationships among co-workers are likely to fulfil the need for affiliation within the workplace. Therefore, when employees feel close and connected to their co-workers, they are less likely to experience impaired levels of health and wellbeing (Chou, 2015).

As research suggests that the different types of support have a positive effect on the health and wellbeing of employees, the following hypothesis will be tested:

Hypothesis 2: Workplace social support predicts employee wellbeing.

2.4. Organisational Justice, Workplace Social Support and Employee Wellbeing

The review of literature presented in this chapter up to now has highlighted the importance of both organisational justice and workplace social support in explaining employee wellbeing. In addition, the independent organisational justice domains have been noted to impact the various aspects of workplace social support. What remains unclear is the collective effect of organisational justice and workplace social support on employee wellbeing.

In relation to the Social Exchange theory (Nazir et al., 2018), it has been found that perceptions of distributive unfairness (e.g., poor rewards) instil a sense of doubt within employees that leads to poor behaviour. At the same time, it makes employees perceive their organisations or supervisors to disregard their efforts at work, and they consequently experience lower levels of support and their levels of psychological disorders increase as their mental health decreases. Nazir et al. (2018) found that procedural justice is especially related to an employee's perceptions of organisational support. When an organisation provides positive and justified rewards to their employees, employees feel that their organisation is taking care of their needs and can be relied on when they require help. The fairness that employees perceive creates a degree of trust between employees and their organisations, and as a result, those with higher levels of POS may, at least temporarily, ignore perceived injustices in the workplace. Employees, therefore, consider organisational justice as a sign of organisational support.

In addition, for employees to perceive their employment relationship to be fair, an important factor is the kind of support provided by their supervisors (Otto & Mamatoglu, 2015). Supervisors who treat subordinates with respect and empathy contribute to the individual's perception of interpersonal justice. Moreover, those providing equitable workplace information create perceptions of informational justice. Likewise, a study conducted by Fischer et al. (2014) showed that a lack of interpersonal justice, in comparison to other organisational justice domains, is the strongest predictor of employees' mental health problems. Even though studies including interactional justice and PSS are limited, supervisors practising interactional justice are regarded as supportive. Furthermore, as employee wellbeing is influenced by PSS, the relationship between interpersonal justice and PSS is worth exploring.

With the clear relationship between interactional justice (i.e., interpersonal and informational justice) and perceived supervisory support, and with both affecting employee wellbeing, the study will test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between interpersonal justice and employee wellbeing is mediated by perceived supervisory support.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between informational justice and employee wellbeing is mediated by perceived supervisory support.

The literature review presents an interesting approach to researching wellbeing in South Africa, as limited studies comprising PERMA research have been conducted in the specific context. Moreover, organisational justice remains an important issue in the country, and ties in with how support at work impacts employee wellness and organisational effectiveness at large.

Chapter 3: Method

The following chapter presents a detailed outline of the approaches used to conduct the study. The research design, sampling technique and participants, data collection and analysis procedures, and measuring instruments for the study are described in the following sections.

3.1 Research Design

A nonexperimental, quantitative survey study was conducted to examine predictors of employee wellbeing among high-income workers in South Africa. Specifically, a correlational research design was used as the researcher was interested in the relationships that occurred naturally between the dependent (employee wellbeing) and independent (types of organisational justice and workplace social support) variables, without manipulating any of the variables.

The quantitative data collection approach ensured that a larger sample size combined with objective measures was utilised to generalise the results from the sample to a broader population (Bekwa et al., 2018). Survey research, furthermore, assisted the researcher in obtaining vast information about the variables in a designated time period that could then be analysed with the use of statistical software.

3.2. Sampling and Participants

As studies concerning decent work are often restricted to low-income workers, the population of interest to this study was high-income workers employed by South African organisations. The survey was distributed to as many high-income workers employed at South African organisations as possible, and participants categorised as higher Living Standard Measure (LSM) groups (Eighty20, n.d.) were included in the study's sample. By manually adding each participant's LSM responses to the online LSM calculator provided by the South African Audience Research Foundation, it was ensured that only participants from the higher LSM groups were included in the study. Individuals categorised according to LSM groups 7 to 10 are considered to enjoy the best standards of living as they earn the highest salaries and were thus deemed appropriate as the study's sample.

The study relied on a convenience and snowballing (or referral) approach to increase the sample's size sufficiently to allow for the required statistical analyses to test the hypotheses

(Bless et al., 2013). By using this type of sampling method, the desired sample size in a given time period could be achieved.

A total of 176 participants attempted the survey, of which 56 responses were deleted. Of these, 53 failed to complete the survey completely, and three were categorised as falling into LSM group 6 and were not included as higher-income workers. This led to a final sample of 120 participants.

Participants' ages ranged from 20 to 65 years, with 70% (n = 84) being between 20 and 29 years, 12.50% (n = 15) being between 30 and 39 years, 11.67% (n = 14) being between 40 and 49 years, 4.17% (n = 5) being between 50 and 59 years, and 1.67% (n = 2) being between 60 and 65 years. A total of 62.50% (n = 75) of the participants were female and 37.50% (n = 45) were male. The sample, therefore, had an over-representation of females and younger working individuals aged between 20 and 29 years. An overview of the industries in which participants worked is provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Sample Demographics: Field of Work (N = 120)

Field of Work	Number of participants	Percentage
Legal	9	7.50%
Finance	25	20.83%
Health Care	4	3.33%
Education	15	12.50%
Business	40	33.33%
Engineering	11	9.17%
IT & communications	6	5%
Agriculture	4	3.33%
Hospitality	2	1.67%
Psychometrics	2	1.67%
Somatology	2	1.67%

Notes. Business refers to any business-related functions such as Sales, Marketing, Human Resources, Logistics, etc.

Of the 120 participants, 50.83% (61 participants) were categorised as LSM 10, 29.17% (35 participants) were categorised as LSM 9, 12.5% (15 participants) were categorised as LSM 8, and 7.5% (9 participants) were categorised as LSM 7. This meant that participants had

ownership of the majority of major household items implying that they have more spending power and could thus be regarded as higher-income workers.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

After approval from the University of Cape Town's Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee had been granted, an online survey was distributed to the researcher's professional and personal network via her personal *WhatsApp* and *LinkedIn* accounts (e-mail and social media). Working individuals employed by South African organisations were invited to partake in the study presented on *Qualtrics*, an online platform on which the survey was presented and stored. An online survey was deemed as an appropriate data collection method as it allowed for the target population (higher-income workers) to be reached in a suitable timeframe. The survey was also mobile-friendly, which allowed participants to complete the survey with ease whilst accessing it from their mobile devices.

The researcher also posted the survey on various Facebook community groups. In all instances, participants were encouraged to forward the link to colleagues or employed peers to increase the sample size of the study.

Information regarding the study and a link gaining access to the survey was provided through a cover letter accompanying the study's invitation. Participants were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and anonymous, thus ensuring individuals that any information provided would be kept confidential. Appendix A provides the survey invitation and cover letter.

3.4. Measuring Instruments

An online survey, comprising 61 items, based on the *Workplace PERMA Profiler* (Kern, 2014), *Organisational Justice Scale* (Colquitt, 2001) and *Perceived Organisational Support Scale* (Eisenberger, 1986) was used to collect data. All responses were given on a 5-point Likert scale to ensure consistency for the data to be analysed. Additional demographic information relating to participants' living standards was obtained with the *Living Standard Measure* (LSM) (Eighty20, n.d.). Participants were also required to provide information regarding their age, gender and field of work to aid in describing the participants and sample.

A description of the four scales is presented below, with the format of the survey provided in Appendix B.

Employee wellbeing. To measure employee wellbeing, the researcher used the 23-item *Workplace PERMA Profiler* developed by Kern (2014). The scale measured the five dimensions of wellbeing as proposed by Seligman (2011), with three items measuring each dimension (**P**ositive emotions, **E**ngagement, **R**elationships, **M**eaning, **A**ccomplishments). The scale included additional items measuring **N**egative emotions (three items), **H**Health (three items), **L**oneliness (one item) and **H**appiness (one item). As the PERMA dimensions are positioned on the positive side of the mental health spectrum, one should not neglect the impact that negative emotions have on one's wellbeing (Kern, 2014; Kern et al., 2015). Negative emotions were, therefore, also included in the measure, as wellbeing cannot simply be viewed as "the lack of negative psychological states" (Kern et al., 2015; p. 263). Moreover, taking the multidimensionality of wellbeing into account, an aspect of subjective physical health was also measured. The scale was, therefore, deemed an appropriate measure for wellbeing as it considered the multidimensionality of the construct.

The *Workplace PERMA Profiler* comprises an 11-point Likert scale, however, to achieve consistency among the various measuring instruments, the original scale was converted to a 5-point Likert scale. The labels ranged from *Never* (1) to *Always* (5); *Poor* (1) to *Excellent* (5); *Completely dissatisfied* (1) to *Completely satisfied* (5); and *Completely unhappy* (1) to *Completely happy* (5). In addition, the items relating to **N**egative emotions and **L**oneliness were reverse coded to transform a high score on the scale into a corresponding low score. “*At work, how often do you become absorbed in what you are doing?*”, is an example of the items measuring the *engagement* dimension of employee wellbeing.

Appendix C, Table 1, outlines the original and reworded *Workplace PERMA Profiler*. Appendix C also indicates which PERMA dimension each item is related to.

Organisational justice. Colquitt’s (2001) *Organisational Justice Scale* was used to measure organisational justice as it measures the construct’s four justice dimensions. Comprising 20 items, seven items measured procedural justice, four items each distributive justice and interpersonal justice, and five items measured informational justice (Elovinio et al., 2010). The wording of the original items was however changed to fit the intended measurement of the subscale and replicated the scale wording used in a study conducted by Mbolela (2020). For example, the original item stating, “I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work” was changed to “My salary shows the effort I put into work”. The scale was, furthermore, completed on a 5-point Likert scale with labelling ranging from *Never* (1) to *Always* (5).

The scale had been validated in the South African context for low-income workers (Mbolela, 2020). Mbolela (2020), however, reported that studies conducted in America and Australia had replicated the four subscales and reported their good to excellent internal consistency in samples comprising employees in general. Colquitt's (2001) *Organisational Justice Scale* was, therefore, deemed appropriate for the current study. Appendix C, Table 2, outlines the original and reworded *Organisational Justice Scale*.

Workplace social support. As Workplace social support encompasses Perceived organisational support (POS), Perceived supervisor support (PSS) and Perceived co-worker support (PCS), the three types were measured with the eight-item *Perceived Organisational Support Scale* Eisenberger et al., 1986). The original scale comprises 36 items, but to combat participant fatigue, a shorter eight-item version was utilised as it presented similar reliability scores to the original scale. The scale was presented three times to measure each of the three types of POS. For each support type measured, the wording was adopted to either “my organisation”, “my supervisor”, or “my co-workers”. Furthermore, “*My organisation values my contribution to work*”, “*My supervisor values my contribution to work*”, and “*My co-workers value my contribution to work*” are examples of the items measuring the three types of workplace social support.

The original scale requires responses on a 7-point Likert scale, but to maintain consistency in the survey, participants responded to items with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *Never* (1) to *Always* (5). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was found to be $\alpha = 0.93$ in a study conducted by Worley et al. (2009), which furthermore noted that the internal consistency of the eight-item version was close to the original 36-item version. The short version was, therefore, deemed appropriate for the study. Appendix C, Table 3, outlines the original and reworded *Perceived Organisational Support Scale* to fit each type of Workplace social support.

Living standard/ Income level. The *Living Standard Measure* (LSM), comprising 29 items, was used to group participants according to their living standards as proposed by the South African Audience Research Foundation (SAARF) (Eighty20, n.d.). The SAARF *LSM* is a widely used marketing tool in Southern Africa, where the population is divided into 10 LSM groups based on their ownership of certain household items.

Participants were required to use a multiple-choice format to select items present in their household (such as having hot running water, home security service, electric stove, etc).

By selecting the applicable items, a participant was categorised according to a LSM group ranging from either group 1 (the lowest income group) to group 10 (the highest income group). By categorising an individual according to a LSM group, further information of participants' ownership of various household items allowed for conclusions to be drawn on the spending power and income levels of participants. Therefore, instead of directly asking participants about their income, the *LSM* provided a measure for ensuring that higher-income workers were included in the study. Appendix C, Table 4, presents the list of household items that participants had to choose from.

3.5. Data Analysis

The data collected on *Qualtrics* was imported into IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 27. SPSS was used to clean the data by removing incomplete datasets and determining scale reliabilities and validities. After this, measures of central tendency and variability, especially concerning the demographical information of the sample, were established. To establish the degree of the relationships between employee wellbeing and the proposed predictors (types of organisational justice and workplace social support), Pearson product-moment correlation was used. Multiple regression analyses were performed to determine the relevance of each predictor variable in predicting employee wellbeing. The analysis determined whether the subscales of organisational justice, organisational support, supervisory support and so-worker support collectively predicted employee wellbeing and which of the predictor variables explained unique variance in employee wellbeing. Lastly, a mediation analysis was conducted using Hayes' PROCESS macro which was based on different multiple regression procedures. The results of the data analysis are provided in the next chapter.

3.6. Ethical Considerations

The study adhered to the ethical guidelines for research prescribed by the University of Cape Town's Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee (ERC) and the American Psychological Association's guidelines (APA, 2016). These included that participants were treated with respect and protected from any physical and psychological harm. This was done in the following ways:

Participants were informed of the purpose and duration of the study and had to indicate their consent to participate in the study. While the study considered wellbeing at work, it was

not a psychological or health-related study as the scale items required participants to self-assess general states of being and not specific mental or physical conditions (e.g., joyfulness, satisfaction with relationships at work, overall health, etc.). Of course, some participants might still have experienced physical or mental health concerns at the time of completing the questionnaire. For this reason, for the research to have a direct contribution towards the achievement of SDG 3 (wellbeing), the contact number for *LifeLine*, a 24-hour telephonic service that assists individuals with psychological and social stresses and trauma, was provided to participants in the cover letter and at the end of the survey. Participants were also ensured in the cover letter accompanying the questionnaire that their participation was voluntary and that their responses will be kept confidential and anonymous. Data collection only commenced after approval from the ERC had been obtained, that is after the ethicality of the study had been confirmed by an independent committee.

In addition, the study's data management plan only permitted the researcher and her supervisor to have access to the data. The data was, therefore, stored and protected with a secure password on the researcher's laptop.

A discussion of the procedures that were followed during the study is provided in the following chapter, where findings concerning the study's measures and hypotheses are presented in detail.

Chapter 4: Results

The following chapter presents the findings of the study in four sections. In the first section, the construct validity and internal consistency of the scales are described, after which the study's descriptive statistics are presented. In the third section, the study's results relating to the statistical procedures used to test the study's hypotheses are provided. The chapter concludes with the results related to the mediation analysis testing if perceived supervisory support mediated the relationship between interactional justice (i.e., interpersonal and informational justice) and employee wellbeing.

4.1. Structure and Consistency of Measures

The responses to each of the scale and subscale items were subjected to Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFAs) using IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 27. EFAs were conducted to determine whether the scale items belonged to the construct it was theoretically proposed to measure. Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) was the chosen factor analytic procedure. A PAF analysis aims to find the least number of factors that account for the common variance of a set of variables (Field, 2018). In certain instances, however, the Maximum Likelihood method was adopted as some commonalities had exceeded 1 in the PAF analysis, leading to the analysis being terminated. This implied that some unique factors had negative variance, and the Maximum Likelihood method was used instead to determine whether the data was appropriate for further analyses. In general, when data are normally distributed, PAF or Maximum Likelihood is regarded to present the best results, and as a PAF failed, a Maximum Likelihood was used as it is known to produce appropriate results (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

Before considering the factor analytic results, the researcher established the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure to determine whether the sample was adequate to perform the relevant analysis. In line with Field's (2018) recommendation, a KMO score greater than .50 was deemed adequate. In addition, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was conducted to determine whether the variance-covariance matrix was proportional to an identity matrix (i.e., the group variances are the same, and the outcome variables are not correlated). A significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity score ($p < .001$) indicated that the items – overall – correlated with each other, making a factor analysis possible. Factors were considered relevant if their eigenvalue exceeded one (Field, 2018).

When the factor analysis revealed more than one factor, direct oblimin or oblique rotation was used to simplify the interpretation of the item loadings. Oblimin rotation was chosen as many of the factors were theoretically regarded to correlate with one another (Field, 2018). The researcher omitted any items that, after rotation, loaded significantly on more than one factor with an absolute factor loading difference of less than .25 as in these cases it was not possible to allocate the item clearly to one factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

To conclude the analyses concerned with the structure and consistency of the measures, the researcher assessed each scale's Cronbach's alpha (α) score to determine its reliability. To interpret the results, Field's (2018) guidelines were followed: $\alpha < .50$ = unacceptable internal consistency; $.50 \leq \alpha < .60$ = poor internal consistency; $.60 \leq \alpha < .70$ = questionable internal consistency; $.70 \leq \alpha < .80$ = acceptable internal consistency; $.80 \leq \alpha < .90$ = good internal consistency; $\alpha \geq .90$ = excellent internal consistency. Corrected Item Total Correlations were considered significant at scores greater than .30.

4.1.1. Workplace PERMA Profiler

The *Workplace PERMA Profiler* (Kern, 2014) scale consisted of 23 items relating to nine subscales, and three rounds of PAF analyses were conducted to identify a clear factor structure. The results for each round of PAF are presented below, followed by the measure's reliability.

Round 1. Separate PAFs were conducted for each of the seven subscales consisting of more than one item (those comprising **Positive** and **Negative** emotions, **Engagement**, **Relationships**, **Meaning**, **Accomplishments** and **Health**) as an EFA across all items ($N = 23$) would have provided unstable results given the number of participants in the sample ($N = 120$). This is as it is recommended to have at least ten times as many subjects as items in an EFA analysis (Pearson & Mundform, 2010).

As Table 2 on the next page indicates, in all instances, the KMO scores were greater than the acceptable limit of .50 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity significant; and a PAF analysis was accordingly conducted on each of the seven subscales. In all cases, only one factor with an eigenvalue above one emerged and all items loaded significantly on this one factor with loadings greater than .30 (see Table 2). The individual PAF analyses thus indicated that for each of the seven subscales their associated items could be summarised by one higher-order

factor. Accordingly, a mean score was computed for each subscale based on the relevant item scores.

Table 2

Unrotated KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, Eigenvalue, Explained Variance and Factor Loading Scores for the Workplace PERMA Profiler's Subscales (N = 120)

Subscale	Number of items	KMO score	Bartlett's test of sphericity (χ^2_{36}; p < .001)	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)	Factor Loadings (range)
Positive emotions	3	.74	175.60	2.39	79.53	.82 - .86
Negative emotions	3	.67	77.97	1.97	65.53	.60 - .77
Engagement	3	.58	31.85	1.59	52.92	.33 - .73
Relationships	3	.71	107.87	2.14	71.16	.72 - .77
Meaning	3	.70	170.74	2.34	77.97	.73 - .94
Accomplishments	3	.59	59.48	1.78	59.45	.38 - .82
Health	3	.63	138.96	2.15	71.74	.54 - .96

The complete factor loadings relating to each of the seven subscales' items are provided in Appendix D, Table 1.

Round 2. To assess if the data could be summarised into one overall employee wellbeing score, a PAF analysis with direct oblimin rotation was conducted on all seven subscales' scores as well as the two one-item measures (happiness and loneliness). A direct oblimin rotation was preferred as it was assumed that the subscales of the *Workplace PERMA Profiler* were correlated. The KMO score of .87 was acceptable and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($\chi^2_{36} = 652.92$, $p < .001$) was significant, thus indicating the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis. Unexpectedly, the analysis revealed two factors with eigenvalues greater than one (Factor 1: eigenvalue = 4.91, % of variance explained = 54.55 ; Factor 2: eigenvalue = 1.14 , % of variance explained = 12.68). The oblimin rotation accordingly facilitated the interpretation of the subscales and the associated factors. The factor loadings of each subscale are presented in Table 3 on the next page.

Table 3

Rotated Factor Loading Scores >.30 of the Workplace PERMA Profiler's Subscales (N = 120)

Subscale	Factor 1	Factor 2
Engagement	.90	
Meaning	.85	
Happiness	.75	
Positive emotions	.58	.44
Accomplishments	.53	
Negative emotions*		.73
Relationships		.70
Loneliness*		.67
Health		.31

Notes. *Reverse-coded items

The subscales relating to engagement, meaning, happiness and accomplishments formed the first factor, and Negative emotions, relationships, loneliness and health the second. The subscale relating to positive emotions, however, loaded on both factors. Typically, it would thus be removed from the analysis. As the two factors were taken to measure distinct types of wellbeing which were treated as two separate independent variables, the positive emotions subscale was retained and included in both variables. The subscales relating to Factor 1 were categorised as indicating *work-related wellbeing*, whereas those relating to Factor 2 were categorised as *interpersonal wellbeing*. The former type proposes that high levels of wellbeing comprise being engaged in one's work, finding meaning in one's work, accomplishing work-related tasks, and experiencing positive emotions and happiness at work. The second type proposes wellbeing being made up of forming relationships with others, being less lonely and experiencing fewer negative emotions, and more positive emotions. Living a healthy lifestyle by being physically healthy also contributed to this factor.

Internal consistency – Work-related wellbeing. A reliability analysis concerning the mean scores of the relevant subscales measuring *work-related wellbeing* presented good internal consistency ($\alpha = .89$; $n = 120$). The corrected item-total correlations also indicated that each item score contributed in similar ways to the total, as the scores were all greater than .30 (Field, 2018).

Table 2 in Appendix D provides a summary of the results derived from the reliability analysis of the *work-related wellbeing* scale.

Internal consistency – Interpersonal wellbeing. A reliability analysis concerning the mean scores of the relevant subscales measuring *interpersonal wellbeing* presented acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = .78$; $n = 120$). The corrected item-total correlations exceeded .30 for all subscales, except for the health subscale with a correlation of .28. As deleting the item would increase the scale reliability only marginally from .78 to .82 it was retained as part of the *interpersonal wellbeing* scale. The results are provided in Table 3, Appendix D.

Participants' scores on the two types of wellbeing, therefore, were determined as the average of the related subscales' means.

4.1.2. Organisational Justice Scale

The scale measuring organisational justice consisted of 20 items conceptualised as belonging to four subscales, namely distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt, 2001). As the sample size ($N = 120$) did not allow for an EFA across all 20 items (see reasons outlined in Section 4.1.1), separate EFAs were conducted for each subscale. The corresponding results are presented below.

Structure of the organisational justice subscales. In all instances, the KMO scores were greater than .50 and Bartlett's Tests of Sphericity were significant, indicating that the data was appropriate for EFAs to be conducted. The final results, after one item had been removed from the procedural justice subscale, presented unidimensional solutions as noted in Table 4 on the next page.

Table 4

KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, Eigenvalue, Explained Variance and Range of Factor Loading Scores of the Organisational Justice Subscales (N = 120)

Justice subscale	Extraction method	Number of Items	KMO score	Bartlett's test of sphericity (p < .001)	Eigen-values	Explained variance (%)	Factor loadings (range)
Distributive	Unrotated, PAF	4	.86	$\chi^2_6 = 482.71$	3.49	87.14	.89 - .94
Procedural	Rotated, PAF	6	.88	$\chi^2_{21} = 518.93$	4.28	71.31	.76 - .87
Interpersonal	Unrotated, Maximum Likelihood	4	.77	$\chi^2_6 = 447.78$	3.14	78.49	.57 - .99
Informational	Unrotated, Maximum Likelihood	5	.86	$\chi^2_{10} = 435.34$	3.68	73.69	.59 - .94

The initial PAF analysis across the seven procedural justice items had revealed two factors with eigenvalues above 1 (*Factor 1*: eigenvalue = 4.28 , % of variance explained = 61.18 ; *Factor 2*: eigenvalue 2 = 1.01 , % of variance explained = 14.4). Based on the item factor loadings as presented in Appendix E, Table 1, Item 3 (“My employer/ supervisor always uses the same method to make decisions”) did not load significantly on either of the two factors and was excluded from a second PAF analysis. As noted from Table 4 above, the second analysis revealed one factor, with all six remaining items loading significantly on it.

As the PAF analyses on the interpersonal (comprising 4 items) and informational justice (comprising 5 items) subscales did not provide a factor solution as the communalities exceeded 1, the analyses were repeated using the Maximum Likelihood extraction method. In each case, one factor emerged as presented in Table 4 above.

Appendix E, Tables 2 – 5, provide a summary of the item descriptions and factor loadings of the 19-items measuring the various dimensions of organisational justice.

Scale consistency. Reliability analyses were conducted on each organisational justice subscale to determine its reliability. Table 5, on the next page, provides a summary of the

corresponding results. Appendix E, Table 6, provides the detailed reliability analyses' scores of the items relating to each dimension of organisational justice.

Table 5

Reliability Analyses Results: Organisational Justice Subscale (N = 120)

Justice subscale	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Corrected Item-Total Correlation (range)
Distributive	4	.95	.86 - .91
Procedural	6	.92	.73 - .85
Interpersonal	4	.90	.55 - .92
Informational	5	.91	.59 - .86

As noted from the reliability analyses' results, each subscale presented excellent internal consistency. Also, in each case, the corrected item-total correlations were significant with all correlation scores being above .30. The analyses thus confirmed the reliability of each organisational justice subscale. Participants were allocated a score for each of the four justice dimensions by averaging the item scores belonging to the subscale.

The presented results, therefore, indicated that the items measuring organisational justice are valid and reliable to measure the conceptualised dimensions of organisational justice.

4.1.3. Perceived Workplace Social Support Scales

Workplace social support was measured by organisational, supervisory and co-worker support, each comprising eight items derived from the *Perceived Organisational Support Scale* (Eisenberger, 1986). Each subscale's validity was explored using PAF. The results, including the KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity scores, eigenvalue scores, and factor loadings, are summarised in Table 6 on the next page. The KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity results indicated that the data was appropriate for PAF analyses. For each subscale, one factor with an eigenvalue above one emerged, with all scale item loadings being significant.

Table 6

Unrotated KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, Eigenvalue, Explained Variance and Range of Factor Loading Scores for Scales Measuring Workplace Social Support (N = 120)

Support scale	Number of Items	KMO score	Bartlett's test of sphericity		Explained variance (%)	Factor loadings (range)
			$(\chi^2_{28}; p < .001)$	Eigenvalue		
POS	8	.93	793.82	5.78	72.31	.75 - .89
PSS	8	.92	776.73	5.73	71.56	.77 - .89
PCS	8	.92	569.06	5.05	63.09	.70 - .86

Notes. POS = Perceived Organisational Support ; PSS = Perceives Supervisory Support ; PCS = Perceived Co-worker Support.

Appendix F, Tables 1 – 3, present the items' wording and factor loadings of the three workplace social support scales.

Scale consistency. Reliability analyses were also conducted on each support scale and all three scales demonstrated excellent internal consistency in the sample. All subscale items correlated significantly with the scale total (all corrected item-total correlations > .30). The results are presented in Table 7 below. Appendix F, Tables 4 - 6, provide the detailed reliability analyses of each support scale's items.

Table 7

Reliability Analyses Results: Workplace Social Support Scales (N = 120)

Support scale	Number of Items	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected Item-Total Correlation (range)	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted (range)
POS	8	.95	.73 - .86	.93 - .94
PSS	8	.94	.75 - .86	.93 - .94
PCS	8	.92	.67 - .81	.90 - .91

Notes. POS = Perceived Organisational Support ; PSS = Perceives Supervisory Support ; PCS = Perceived Co-worker Support.

As noted from the results, each social support subscale presented valid and reliable results, and three support scale scores were, therefore, computed based on averaging the item scores belonging to the respective subscale. Moreover, it indicated that the Perceived Organisational Support Scale measuring the types of support is valid and reliable to measure the individual types of support.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics

This section presents the descriptive statistics for each of the scales and subscales used in the study and includes the mean and standard deviation scores, minimum and maximum scores, and the skewness and kurtosis (with corresponding standard errors). The mean scores were assessed to the midpoint of each scale which was three as all item responses had been provided on 5-point Likert scales. This implied that an average score greater than 3 indicated a higher degree of the variable being measured, and an average score lower than 3 indicated lower levels of the variable. In addition, the skewness and kurtosis values were used to assess the distribution of the scores, with the former referring to the asymmetry of a distribution, and the latter to the relative height of the distribution that indicates the extent to which there are outliers. A skewness value more than twice its standard error indicates that a distribution is asymmetrical (i.e., it is not normally distributed as a normal distribution is symmetrical with a skewness value of 0). Therefore, it is ideal for skewness values to be as close to 0 as possible (or, between -.50 and .50, the distribution is considered to be approximately symmetrical), where -2 and 2 are used as parameters to highlight any problematic distributions. In addition, positive kurtosis implies that the data presents more extreme outliers than a normal distribution (kurtosis value of 0), and negative kurtosis has fewer extreme outliers than a normal distribution (IBM, 2021). The descriptive statistics are summarised in Table 8 on the next page.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics: Wellbeing Scales, Organisational Justice Scales, and Workplace Social Support Scales (N = 120)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Skewness</i>		<i>Kurtosis</i>	
					<i>Statistic</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>SE</i>
Work-related wellbeing	3.62	.71	1.73	4.93	-.70	.22	.21	.44
Interpersonal wellbeing	2.07	.58	2.07	4.80	-.20	.22	-.26	.44
Distributive Justice	2.80	1.06	1.00	5.00	.16	.22	-.73	.44
Procedural Justice	3.47	.89	1.33	5.00	-.41	.22	-.38	.44
Interpersonal Justice	4.21	.86	1.50	5.00	-1.06	.22	.54	.44
Informational Justice	3.39	.93	1.00	5.00	-.21	.22	-.72	.44
POS	3.47	.88	1.25	5.00	-.18	.22	-.24	.44
PSS	3.75	.83	1.13	5.00	-.48	.22	-.06	.44
PCS	3.61	.81	1.25	5.00	-.48	.22	-.14	.44

Notes. SD = Standard Deviation ; SE = Standard Error ; POS = Perceived Organisational Support ; PSS = Perceived Supervisory Support ; PCS = Perceived Co-worker Support.

The mean scores of the two types of wellbeing imply that the average participant had above average wellbeing in terms of work-related constructs, and lower levels of wellbeing related to their interactions or relationships with others in the workplace. Also, when considering the types of organisational justice, the participants had lower levels of distributive justice, above-average perceptions of interpersonal justice, and average levels of both procedural and informational justice. These findings may highlight why it is beneficial to view organisational justice in terms of its four dimensions and to rather view interactional justice as two separate constructs, i.e., interpersonal and informational justice.

The majority of the scales were negatively skewed except for distributive justice (skewness score of .16). All scales are relatively close to zero with the interpersonal justice being slightly over -1. In addition, the majority of the scales' kurtosis values were negative and close to 0, which revealed normal distributions.

Lastly, the bivariate relationships between employee wellbeing and the types of organisational justice and workplace social support were analysed by conducting a Pearson Product-moment correlation analysis. The Pearson correlation coefficient provided insight into the linear relationships between the variables, and was established by using the following criteria: correlation coefficients ranging between $0 < r < .19$ were deemed as very weak, between $.20 < r < .39$ as weak, between $.40 < r < .59$ as moderate, between $.60 < r < .79$ as strong, and between $.80 < r < 1.00$ as very strong. A positive or negative score indicates the

direction in which two variables move together, i.e., a positive coefficient implies that the variables move in the same direction, and a negative coefficient implies that the two variables move in opposite directions (the inverse effect). The results are provided in Table 9 below.

Table 9

Two-tailed Pearson Product-moment Correlations between Types of Employee Wellbeing and Types of Perceived Organisational Justice and Workplace Social Support (N = 120)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Work-related wellbeing	1								
2. Interpersonal wellbeing	.72 ¹	1							
3. Procedural justice	.64	.56	1						
4. Distributive justice	.39	.27	.35	1					
5. Interpersonal justice	.51	.52	.80	.29	1				
6. Informational justice	.54	.55	.83	.30	.71	1			
7. POS	.68	.66	.66	.45	.60	.65	1		
8. PSS	.58	.62	.82	.33	.79	.81	.74	1	
9. PCS	.61	.73	.64	.30	.57	.61	.77	.72	1

Notes. POS = Perceived Organisational Support ; PSS = Perceived Supervisory Support ; PCS = Perceived Co-worker Support ; ¹ = note that 'positive emotions' is included in both, work-related wellbeing and interpersonal wellbeing, thus inflating the strength of this correlation.

4.3. Multiple Regression Analyses

The following section presents the results of the multiple regression analyses used to test the study's hypotheses. As stated in Chapter 2, the study aimed to determine to what extent organisational justice and workplace social support predict employee wellbeing. Standard multiple regression analyses were thus conducted; (1) to determine whether the four types of organisational justice (i.e., procedural, distributive, interpersonal, and informational justice) predicted employee wellbeing, and (2) to determine whether the three types of workplace social support (POS, PSS, PCS) predicted employee wellbeing. The study's hypotheses, therefore, entailed:

Hypothesis 1: Organisational justice predicts employee wellbeing; and

Hypothesis 2: Workplace social support predicts employee wellbeing.

As the EFAs had revealed two distinct types of wellbeing, the hypotheses were split into the following four hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: Organisational justice predicts work-related wellbeing;

Hypothesis 1b: Organisational justice predicts interpersonal wellbeing;

Hypothesis 2a: Workplace social support predicts work-related wellbeing; and

Hypothesis 2b: Workplace social support predicts interpersonal wellbeing.

Before the regression analyses were conducted, the researcher tested whether the data fulfilled the required assumptions. The type of assumptions and assumption tests conducted are presented in Section 4.3.1.

4.3.1. Assumptions of Multiple Regression

The researcher assessed the following assumptions to determine whether any of the assumptions for multiple regression were violated which could result in the regression results being biased.

Additivity and linearity. This assumption considers the relationship between the dependent variables (employee wellbeing – *work-related wellbeing* and *interpersonal wellbeing*) and the predictor variables (types of organisational justice and workplace social support) to be described by a linear (straight) line (Field, 2018). To test the assumption, the scatterplots of standardised residuals against standardised predicted values were examined for all instances. Appendix G, Figure 1 - 14, indicates that the data points scattered closely around the 45-degree line in all instances, thus indicating that the predictor variables are related in an additive and linear way to the dependent variable. This assumption was therefore met.

Independent residuals. This assumption holds that there is no relation between the prediction errors. This is important, as correlated residuals result in biased regression outcomes (Field, 2018). For this assumption to be met, Durbin-Watson values, that test for serial correlations between residuals, should range between 0 and 4 with a value of two indicating no correlation at all. As presented in Appendix H, Table 1, the Durbin-Watson values were well within the statistical value range for each of the regression models to be tested. All values also ranged between 1 and 2, indicating complete independence and thus showing that the assumption of independent residuals was met (Field, 2018).

Homoscedasticity. The assumption of homoscedasticity is concerned with the variance of residuals being consistent at each predicted value of the independent variable (Field, 2018). To test this assumption, the scatterplots presenting standardised predicted vs standardised observed residuals were considered for evidence of a cone-shape pattern implying that the data are heteroscedastic. As presented in Appendix I, Figures 1 – 4, none of the scatterplots presented cone-shaped patterns, indicating that the data were homoscedastic.

Normal distribution of residuals. This assumption holds that the underlying residuals are normally distributed. This can be assessed using a normal Predicted Probability (P-P) plot, where the graph plots the expected cumulative probability on the y-axis and observed cumulative probability on the x-axis. The residuals are normally distributed when they follow the diagonal line, implying that they do not deviate from the straight line, i.e., the error terms are normally distributed and there are no significant outliers. Appendix J, Figures 1 – 4, indicate the distribution of the residuals. Figures 1, 2 and 3 indicating the distribution of residuals for the prediction models, show that the residuals are closely, but not completely, following the diagonal line. The assumption of normal distribution of residuals is, therefore, slightly violated, but not to an extent that it will influence the results as slight deviations from normality will not affect the results of the regression analysis (Hayes, 2013).

Multicollinearity. Multicollinearity entails the predictor variables to be highly correlated ($r > .90$) with one another (Field, 2018). Regarding multiple regression, the predictor variables should not be multicollinear, as, with multicollinearity present, it is not possible to accurately associate variance in the dependent variable. As noted, from the correlation matrix presented in Table 9 above, none of the predictor variables, that is the four types of organisational justice and three types of workplace social support, are highly correlated with one another. There is thus an absence of multicollinearity.

As none of the assumptions was severely violated, multiple regression analyses were conducted for each of the hypotheses for each type of wellbeing (*work-related wellbeing* and *interpersonal wellbeing*). In the following two sections, the results are provided below concerning each type of wellbeing.

4.3.2. Multiple Regression Results – Work-related Wellbeing

To test ***Hypothesis 1a***, a standard multiple regression was performed to determine whether the four types of organisational justice predict *work-related wellbeing*. The regression results supported the hypothesis, as the regression was significant ($F(4,115) = 22.12$, $p < .001$)

with 41,50% (adjusted $R^2 = .415$) of the variance in *work-related wellbeing* explained by the four types of organisational justice together.

Of the four organisational justice types, procedural and distributional justice accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance in work-related wellbeing ($\beta_{\text{Procedural}} = .55$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{\text{Distributional}} = .19$, $p < .02$). Interpersonal and informational justice did, however, not ($\beta_{\text{Interpersonal}} = -.008$, $p = .95$; $\beta_{\text{Informational}} = .04$, $p = .76$). The organisational justice predictors concerned with how fair work-related resources and decisions are implemented are thus particularly important contributors to *work-related wellbeing*.

A second multiple regression analysis, concerned with **Hypothesis 2a**, was conducted to determine what types of workplace social support predicted *work-related wellbeing*. The results indicated that 47.20% (adjusted $R^2 = .472$) of the variance in the data can be explained by the three workplace social support types collectively. This indicated a significant amount of variance as the overall regression model was significant, $F(3,116) = 36.46$; $p < .001$. The regression results thus supported the hypothesis.

Of the three workplace social support types, POS accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance in *work-related wellbeing* ($\beta_{\text{POS}} = .46$, $p < .001$). PSS and PCS did, however, not ($\beta_{\text{PSS}} = .12$, $p = .24$; $\beta_{\text{PCS}} = .16$, $p = .15$). The results thus highlight that POS is more concerned about the official rules and guidelines that employees perceive in the work environment, rather than how one gets along with supervisors and co-workers. Therefore, PSS and PCS are more closely related as both constructs are concerned with the direct interactions that employees have at work. The two constructs thus contribute to *work-related wellbeing* in similar ways and thus neither explains unique variance in *work-related wellbeing* that is not already explained by POS.

A third multiple regression analysis concerning *work-related wellbeing* was conducted with the four types of organisational justice and the three types of workplace social support together. The results indicated that 51.20% (adjusted $R^2 = .512$) of the variance in *work-related wellbeing* was explained by the seven predictor variables collectively. The model was statistically significant, $F(7,112) = 18.86$; $p < .001$). Thus, one can conclude that organisational justice and workplace social support are both important for *work-related wellbeing*.

The results, furthermore, indicated that procedural justice and POS accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance in *work-related wellbeing* ($\beta_{\text{Procedural_Justice}} =$, $p < .003$

; $b_{POS} = .38$, $p < .002$). These two predictors are thus particularly important contributors to *work-related wellbeing*. The results are summarised in Table 10 below.

Table 10

Multiple Regression Results with Work-related Wellbeing as the Outcome Variable and Types of Organisational Justice and Workplace Social Support as Predictor Variables (N = 120)

Predictor Variable	Standardised beta coefficients	Significance level
	(β)	(Sig.)
Distributive Justice	.08	.25
Procedural Justice	.43	.003
Interpersonal Justice	-.05	.66
Informational Justice	-.07	.60
POS	.38	.002
PSS	-.10	.51
PCS	.15	.16

Notes. β = Standardised beta coefficient ; Sig. = Significance level ; POS = Perceived organisational support ; PSS = Perceived supervisory support ; PCS = Perceived co-worker support.

* $p < .05$

4.3.3. Multiple Regression Results – Interpersonal Wellbeing

A standard multiple regression was performed to determine to what extent organisational justice predicts *interpersonal wellbeing*. In terms of *interpersonal wellbeing*, being concerned with the relationships that employees have within the workplace, **Hypothesis 1b** was supported. The four types of organisational justice together explained 33.7% (adjusted $R^2 = .337$) of the variance in *interpersonal wellbeing*, which constituted as being significant, ($F(4,115) = 16.14$, $p < .001$). None of the organisational justice types predicted unique proportions of variance in *interpersonal wellbeing*, however, from Table 11 on the next page, it is noted that informational justice was close to being significant. This is plausible as informational justice is concerned with the interactions that employees have with their supervisors or employers.

Table 11

Multiple Regression Results with Interpersonal Wellbeing as the Outcome Variable and Types of Organisational Justice as Predictor Variables (N = 120)

Predictor Variable	Standardised beta coefficients (β)	Significance level (<i>Sig.</i>)
Distributive justice	.04	.33
Procedural justice	.11	.30
Interpersonal justice	.14	.11
Informational justice	.15	.07

Notes. $p < .05$

In terms of **Hypothesis 2b**, a multiple regression analysis revealed that workplace social support predicted *interpersonal wellbeing*. The regression results indicated that the model explained 54.6% (adjusted $R^2 = .546$) of the variance in *interpersonal wellbeing* and that it was a significant predictor of interpersonal wellbeing, $F(3,116) = 48.77$, $p = .001$. The results thus supported the hypothesis.

Of the three workplace social support types, only PCS accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance in *interpersonal wellbeing* ($\beta_{PCS} = .34$, $p < .001$). POS and PSS did not ($\beta_{POS} = .13$, $p = .08$; $\beta_{PSS} = .09$, $p = .18$), however, POS was close to significant.

A final multiple regression analysis was conducted on the seven predictor variables and *interpersonal wellbeing*. The results indicated that the model was significant (F), with 53.70% (adjusted $R^2 = .537$) of the variance in *interpersonal wellbeing* explained by the seven predictor variables together. The model was statistically significant ($F(7,112) = 20.70$, $p < .001$), and from the seven predictor variables, it is noted that only PCS explained a significant proportion of the variance in *interpersonal wellbeing*. The results are summarised in Table 12, on the next page.

Table 12

Multiple Regression Results with Interpersonal Wellbeing as the Outcome Variable and Types of Organisational Justice and Workplace Social Support as Predictor Variables (N = 120)

Predictor Variable	Standardised beta coefficients	Significance level
	(β)	(Sig.)
Distributive Justice	-.01	.90
Procedural Justice	-.03	.85
Interpersonal Justice	.11	.35
Informational Justice	.08	.52
POS	.19	.11
PSS	.01	.94
PCS	.48	.001

Notes. POS = Perceived Organisational Support ; PSS = Perceived Supervisory Support ; PCS = Perceived Co-worker Support.

*p < .05

The findings from this section have indicated that the multiple regression analyses have supported the first two (overarching) hypotheses of the study. In the next section, the results relating to the mediation analyses are explored.

4.4. Mediation Analysis

As outlined in the literature review based on existing empirical research, it was assumed that PSS would mediate the relationship between interpersonal and informational justice and employee wellbeing. The study, therefore, had two additional hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between interpersonal justice and employee wellbeing is mediated by perceived supervisory support; and

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between informational justice and employee wellbeing is mediated by perceived supervisory support.

To measure the mediation effects, the hypotheses were also split into the following four hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: The relationship between interpersonal justice and work-related wellbeing is mediated by perceived supervisory support;

Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between interpersonal justice and interpersonal wellbeing is mediated by perceived supervisory support;

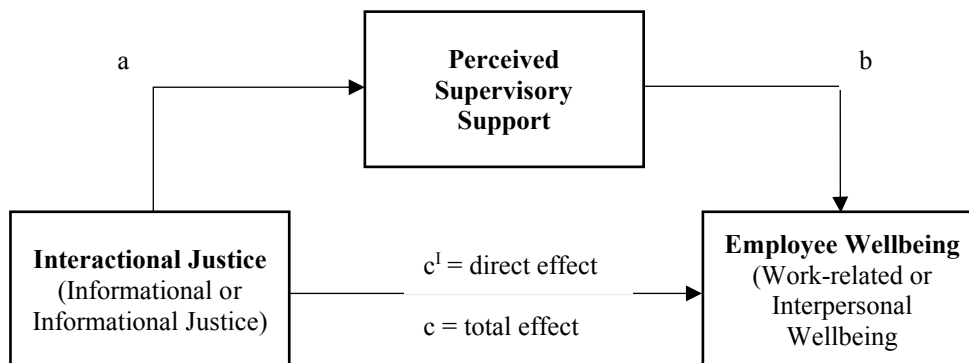
Hypothesis 4a: The relationship between informational justice and work-related wellbeing is mediated by perceived supervisory support; and

Hypothesis 4b: The relationship between informational justice and interpersonal justice is mediated by perceived supervisory support.

To conduct the mediation analyses, four conditions had to be met (Field, 2018). Firstly, the predictor variable should significantly predict the outcome variable in model 1. Secondly, the predictor variable should significantly predict the mediator in model 2, and thirdly, the mediator should significantly predict the outcome variable in model 3. Lastly, the predictor variable should predict the outcome variable less strongly in model 3 than in model 1 (Field, 2018). In all instances, the conditions were met, and the results are explained below as retrieved from Hayes' *PROCESS* tool, model 4. The results are explained in line with the mediation analyses as represented in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1

Model of Interactional Justice (Interpersonal or Informational Justice) as Predictor of Employee Wellbeing (Work-related or Interpersonal Wellbeing), mediated by Perceived Supervisory Support.



In the following two sections, the results are provided concerning each type of wellbeing.

4.4.1. Mediation Analyses Results – Work-related Wellbeing

In terms of *Hypothesis 3a*, the mediation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between interpersonal justice and *work-related wellbeing* as mediated by PSS. The

results indicated that interpersonal justice significantly predicted *work-related wellbeing* (c-path: $b = .42$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .29 to .55)). Interpersonal justice also significantly contributed to PSS (a-path: $b = .76$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .65 to .87)), and PSS significantly contributed to *work-related wellbeing* (b-path: $b = .41$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .20 to .61)). Analysing the indirect effect, the results revealed that PSS significantly mediated the relationship between interpersonal justice and *work-related wellbeing* (ab-path: $b = .31$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .15 to .48)). Furthermore, PSS accounted for 73.81% of the total effect (indirect effect/ total effect).

The results thus revealed that when controlling for the indirect effect, the relationship between interpersonal justice and wellbeing is smaller (c¹-path: $b = .11$, $p = .28$ (95% CI, -.09 to .31) - which is no longer significant) when not including the mediator (c-path: $b = .42$). This implies that the relationship between interpersonal justice and wellbeing can be explained through the relationship with PSS. Therefore, the hypothesis has been supported, as PSS is known to mediate the relationship between interpersonal justice and *work-related wellbeing*. Appendix K, Figure 1, provides a graphical representation of PSS as the mediator.

With regards to **Hypothesis 4a**, the mediation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between informational justice and *work-related wellbeing* as mediated by PSS. The results revealed that informational justice significantly predicted *work-related wellbeing* (c-path: $b = .41$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .30 to .53)). Informational justice also significantly contributed to PSS (a-path: $b = .72$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .63 to .82)), and PSS significantly contributed to *work-related wellbeing* (b-path: $b = .36$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .14 to .57)). In terms of the indirect effect, the results suggested that PSS significantly mediated the relationship between informational justice and *work-related wellbeing* (ab-path: $b = .26$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .10 to .43)). In addition, PSS accounted for 63.41% of the total effect (indirect effect/ total effect).

The results thus supported the hypothesis, as an analysis of the direct effect (controlling for the indirect (ab) effect) indicated that the relationship between informational justice and *work-related wellbeing* is smaller (c¹-path: $b = .15$, $p = .12$ (95% CI, -.04 to .35) – which is not significant) than not including the mediator (ab-path: $b = .26$). PSS is thus required for informational justice to significantly predict *work-related wellbeing*. Appendix K, Figure 2, provides a graphical representation of the above-described mediation effect.

4.4.2. Mediation Analyses Results – Interpersonal Wellbeing

With regards to **Hypothesis 3b**, the mediation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between interpersonal justice and *interpersonal wellbeing* as mediated by PSS. The results revealed that interpersonal justice significantly predicted *interpersonal wellbeing* (c-path: $b = .36$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .25 to .46)). Interpersonal justice also significantly predicted PSS (a-path: $b = .76$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .65 to .87)), and PSS significantly predicted *interpersonal wellbeing* (b-path: $b = .37$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .21 to .53)). An analysis of the indirect effect suggested that PSS significantly mediated the relationship between interpersonal justice and *interpersonal wellbeing* (ab-path: $b = .28$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .16 to .43)). In addition, PSS accounted for 77.78% of the total effect.

The results thus supported the hypothesis. When one controls for the indirect (ab) effect, the relationship between interpersonal justice and *interpersonal wellbeing* is smaller ((c^l-path: $b = .08$, $p < .33$ (95% CI, .23 to .12) – which is also not significant) when not including the mediator (ap-path: $b = .28$). This implies that the relationship between interpersonal justice and *interpersonal wellbeing* can be explained through the relationship with PSS. Appendix K, Figure 3, provides a graphical representation of PSS' mediation effect.

For the last hypothesis, **Hypothesis 4b**, the mediation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between informational justice and *interpersonal wellbeing* as mediated by PSS. The results revealed that informational justice significantly predicted *interpersonal wellbeing* (c-path: $b = .34$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .25 to .44)). Informational justice also significantly predicted PSS (a-path: $b = .72$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .97 to .82)), and PSS positively affected *interpersonal wellbeing* (b-path: $b = .35$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .18 to .52)). Analysing the indirect effect, the results suggested that PSS significantly mediated the relationship between informational justice and *work-related wellbeing* (ab-path: $b = .25$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .12 to .39)). In addition, PSS accounted for 73.53% of the total effect.

Based on the direct effect (c^l-path: $b = .09$, $p < .25$ (95% CI, -.6 to .24) – which is no longer significant), the results explain that when controlling for the indirect (ab) effect, the relationship between informational justice and *interpersonal wellbeing* is smaller than when accounting for the mediator (ab-path: $b = .25$). The hypothesis was thus supported, and PSS mediated the relationship between informational justice and *interpersonal wellbeing*. Appendix K, Figure 4, provides a graphical representation of the mediation effect.

The presented findings are discussed in more detail, and in relation to previous literature, in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The following chapter presents a summary of the study's main findings. It provides a discussion of the results, after which the study's limitations, future recommendations and practical implications are presented before ending with an overall conclusion.

5.1. Summary of Main Findings

With high-income workers often neglected in decent work studies, the study aimed to determine to what extent organisational justice and workplace social support predict employee wellbeing amongst high-income workers. In addition, the study sought to determine whether perceived supervisory support (PSS) could mediate the relationship between interactional justice (i.e., interpersonal and informational justice) and employee wellbeing. The researcher adopted the PERMA model to wellbeing (Seligman, 2011) as a multifaceted approach to measuring employee wellbeing. The results revealed that the PERMA dimensions clustered into two distinct superordinate types of wellbeing in this dataset. These are related to *work-related wellbeing* and *interpersonal wellbeing*. The remaining analyses were, therefore, conducted separately for each type of wellbeing.

Regarding the first set of hypotheses (organisational justice predicts employee wellbeing), a multiple regression analysis indicated that the types of organisational justice predicted the first type of wellbeing, i.e., work-related wellbeing. In particular, the results revealed that distributive and procedural justice (i.e., how fair work-related resources and decisions are implemented) accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance in work-related wellbeing. In terms of the second type of wellbeing, interpersonal wellbeing, the analysis supported the hypothesis. It was, however, found that none of the organisational justice types significantly contributed to interpersonal wellbeing.

With regards to the second set of hypotheses (workplace social support predicts employee wellbeing), the multiple regression analysis supported the hypothesis and revealed that perceived organisational support (POS) (i.e., the indirect support received from organisations) accounted for unique variance in work-related wellbeing. Finally, considering interpersonal wellbeing, the results supported the second hypothesis, and co-worker support (PCS) (i.e., the direct interactions employees have with co-workers or colleagues) was found to significantly contribute to interpersonal wellbeing.

Two additional multiple regression analyses were performed with each wellbeing type as the outcome variable, and types of organisational justice and workplace social support as

predictor variables. With regards to work-related wellbeing, the results revealed that procedural justice and POS are particularly important contributors to work-related wellbeing. In the second analysis, it was confirmed that PCS contributed significantly to interpersonal wellbeing.

As it was further assumed that PSS could mediate the relationships between types of interactional justice and employee wellbeing, mediation analyses were performed for each predictor variable (i.e., interpersonal or informational justice) and the corresponding outcome variable (i.e., work-related or interpersonal wellbeing). In all four cases, the hypotheses were supported, and it was found that PSS significantly contributed to the relationships. PSS thus mediated the relationships.

The results highlight some of the factors which should be considered when establishing a decent working environment for high-income workers, as the implementation of the given decent work conditions can assist in managing the wellbeing of high-income workers. The results are discussed in the following section.

5.2. Discussion of Results

In this section, the possible reasons for the results related to the hypotheses are discussed. As the wellbeing dimensions on the wellbeing scale unexpectedly did not group into one overall wellbeing indicator, but into two distinct types of wellbeing, the reasons for this result are discussed first.

5.2.1. Types of Wellbeing Explained

The PERMA model was used as a theoretical framework to understand what constitutes wellbeing in the workplace. As outlined by Seligman (2018, p.1), the PERMA model represents the "five building blocks of wellbeing" which can aid in the management of employee wellbeing. In this study, the PERMA dimensions were complemented by measures of happiness, negative emotions, loneliness, and subjective health, as aligned with Butler and Kern (2016). In this dataset, these dimensions represented two types of wellbeing: *work-related wellbeing* and *interpersonal wellbeing*. Positive emotions, engagement, meaning, accomplishments, and happiness made up *work-related wellbeing*, and relationships, negative emotions, loneliness, health and positive emotions indicated interpersonal wellbeing.

Work-related wellbeing thus derives from the job. In particular, it is concerned with how individuals perceive the nature of their jobs. Work-related wellbeing, therefore, means that employees are engaged in their work, find meaning in it, accomplish work-related tasks, and experience positive emotions and happiness concerning their jobs. As all dimensions are

interconnected, higher levels of work-related wellbeing could, therefore, arise from an individual's psychological connection to work-related activities that cause the individual to be interested in or absorbed by his or her job (i.e., implying that they are engaged). The engagement might further allow the individual to find value in their work, and as the individual recognises the significance that they play in performing the work, that is that the work holds meaning, they may experience happiness and other positive emotions such as joy, gratitude, hope, pride or inspiration. Such positive emotions might then serve as motivation to achieve job responsibilities or goals (i.e., accomplishments). Therefore, having a sense of achievement further instils positive emotions within individuals and can result in increased engagement at work, and overall work-related wellbeing. This suggests that the work-related wellbeing dimensions might reinforce each other.

The second type of wellbeing, *interpersonal wellbeing*, is concerned with individuals' wellbeing arising from their interactions and relationships at work. The results indicated that this type of wellbeing is concerned with the direct interactions that employees have at work (such as with supervisors or co-workers), and the impact that these relationships have on them. With the COVID-19 pandemic that occurred whilst the study was conducted, it is plausible why interpersonal wellbeing emerged as a type of wellbeing in the dataset. The participants' lower levels of interpersonal wellbeing can thus be ascribed to working remotely and being socially disintegrated. Therefore, an individual is noted to have higher levels of interpersonal wellbeing when they have interactions with or form relationships with supervisors and co-workers. This is associated with experiencing more positive emotions, and fewer negative emotions such as loneliness. Moreover, as individuals experience more positive emotions, they might regard themselves as healthy too. It might, therefore, also contribute to the experience of fewer negative emotions, such as sadness, fear, disgust or anger. This likely makes them more pleasant to be around, and this, in turn, likely improves their relationships with co-workers for example. Accordingly, they will feel socially integrated, cared about and supported by others which combat loneliness and the experience of negative emotions. In addition, an individual's subjective health is also likely to be influenced by encouragement from their social ties at work (e.g., to live a healthier lifestyle).

The two types of wellbeing presented in the study thus contribute to the difficulty of establishing a universally accepted definition for wellbeing (Dodge et al., 2012). As two types of wellbeing emerged, rather than one overall wellbeing factor, the results had indicated how wellbeing is relevant to specific situations, i.e., one's direct work (*work-related wellbeing*), or

the interactions that one has in the workplace (*interpersonal wellbeing*). It is, therefore, plausible why numerous attempts in literature have been made to explain the construct.

In each of the following sections, the study's findings concerning each type of wellbeing and the study's hypotheses are discussed.

5.2.2. Work-related Wellbeing

Organisational justice as predictor of work-related wellbeing. The four dimensions of organisational justice predicted, as expected, work-related wellbeing, in that the more fairness employees perceive, the higher they rate their work-related wellbeing. The results showed that distributive and procedural justice are especially important for work-related wellbeing. This aligns with Cohen-Charash and Spector's (2001) findings that procedural justice was the most important determinant of organisational justice. As highlighted in the literature review that procedural justice emerged from studies related to distributive justice (as the distribution of rewards was not always as important as the process by which they were allocated) (Virtanen & Elovainio, 2018), the researcher expected both justice types to be significant contributors to work-related wellbeing. It thus implies that both the fair distribution of resources and the decisions taken to derive the distribution of the resources are important for employees' work-related wellbeing, that is their wellbeing concerning the intrinsic nature of their jobs.

The importance of distributive justice for wellbeing is explained by the Effort-Reward-Imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996). When employees perceive a lack of distributive justice it is likely due to a perceived mismatch between their efforts exerted at work and the rewards received in exchange. The Effort-Reward-Imbalance model theorises that such situations affect employee wellbeing, as it is highly likely that employees will be unhappy about the unequal rewards received. In particular, perceptions of distributive injustice can result in employees experiencing fewer positive emotions or happiness at work. They will likely also find less value in their jobs as they will question their significance in the organisation, and their levels of engagement might be negatively affected. This, in turn, and parallel with the Social Exchange theory will reduce what employees achieve at work, thus resulting in reduced productivity as they will reduce their efforts at work due to equalising the imbalance of their perceived lower rewards.

With regards to procedural justice, the results indicated that when employees perceive that the decision process leading to a particular outcome was fair, they have higher levels of work-related wellbeing. However, perceptions of justice will not necessarily lead to

experiences of positive emotions (as fair decision-making might be unnoticed), but perceptions of injustice in this regard will undoubtedly lead to fewer positive emotions (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Perceived procedural injustice, for example when an unpromoted worker is angry and questioning the system used to decide promotions, can furthermore lead to employees adopting withdrawal behaviours and reducing their efforts at work (i.e., lower engagement). More specifically, employees may become less engaged in their work as they question the value that they are adding to their work or organisations. This is because they might feel insignificant as they are not rewarded properly. As outlined above, this is likely linked to fewer accomplishments in the workplace too. The impact of injustice on work-related wellbeing, is thus cyclical, as the construct's various dimensions affect one another. Therefore, when employees feel insignificant due to not being rewarded fairly, they may become discouraged at work as they perceive not to have a purpose in the workplace.

With work-related wellbeing referring to wellbeing about the nature of one's work, the results revealed that procedural justice, compared to the other justice types, had the strongest relationship with work-related wellbeing. In addition, as interpersonal and informational justice also contribute to work-related wellbeing, it is rather because of how the constructs relate to procedural justice. As indicated by the results, both interpersonal and informational justice have a significantly strong relationship with procedural justice. A possible explanation could be that individuals' perceptions of procedural justice are influenced by the quality treatment and information they receive from decision-makers enacting procedures appropriately (Kernan & Hanges, 2002; Tyler & Bies, 1990). Alternatively, it is noted that employees' perceptions of procedural justice are likely to be enhanced when they are allowed to present information and voice their concerns before decisions are made (Baldwin, 2006). Therefore, as organisations enable employees to participate in decision-making, not only are they likely to feel more valued by their organisations, but they will provide input that will ensure that their wellbeing is not negatively influenced by organisational practices in the long run. This explanation could also serve as to why interpersonal justice and informational justice did not explain parts of variance in work-related wellbeing.

With regards to the last cluster of hypotheses (interactional justice (i.e., interpersonal and informational justice) predicts work-related wellbeing), the two justice types significantly contributed to work-related wellbeing when the relationship was mediated by PSS. Therefore, the support that employees receive from their supervisors is likely to contribute to their perceptions of interpersonal and information justice, which is likely to positively impact their work-related wellbeing. The results revealed that both interpersonal and informational justice

are significantly related to PSS. Hence, it supports literature maintaining that for employees to perceive their employment relationship to be fair, an important factor is the kind of support provided by their supervisors (Otto & Mamatoglu, 2015).

Workplace social support as predictor of work-related wellbeing. In line with previous literature, the study's results revealed that employees perceive greater work-related wellbeing the more organisational, supervisory or co-worker support they perceive (Chou, 2005). The results also revealed that of the three types of workplace social support, POS had the strongest relationship with work-related wellbeing. It is, however, important to note that as supervisors often act as the representative of an organisation (Roemer & Harris, 2018), there is a possibility that participants regarded PSS as POS. Literature, nonetheless, maintains that supportive supervisor behaviour is often regarded as a good predictor of POS, which has also been noted to contribute to the achievement of employee wellbeing (Roemer & Harris, 2018). Therefore, the results might indicate that POS accounts for PSS too, and could be that as more employees work remotely, they differentiate less between their supervisors and organisations.

The results are also in line with the Social Exchange theory (Homans, 1961) that highlights how POS impacts employee behaviour, attitudes and work-related wellbeing. When employees perceive that they are supported by their organisations, they are likely to return their appreciation by working harder and being more engaged in their work (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012). Thus, the guidance that employees receive from their organisations, supports them in combatting stress at work. It allows them to work more productively and to remain unaffected despite the challenges of the modern world of work. As a result, employees are likely to complete more work-related tasks and responsibilities that foster feelings of pride and happiness as well as a sense of achievement (i.e., accomplishments). Moreover, when employees feel that they are valued by their organisations, they are likely to experience positive emotions such as gratitude or hope. The support that employees perceive from their organisations can also create a shared purpose, through which employees recognise that they are contributing towards an organisation's bigger picture (i.e., meaning) (Canboy et al., 2020).

As the results indicated that employees' work-related wellbeing is also strongly influenced by PCS, the support that employees receive from their co-workers are deemed to foster positive emotions within them while also influencing their engagement at work. PCS is also likely to serve as encouragement in the workplace, as they realise what meaning they have in their jobs, or are encouraged to complete more work-related tasks.

Even though not the objective of the study, with the strong relationship between POS and procedural justice, one can argue that the findings support research maintaining that procedural justice is often regarded as a sign of organisational support (Nazir et al., 2018). When employees perceive that they are fairly rewarded for their input at work, they may perceive their organisations as being supportive and caring. In addition, when they have a voice to alleviate the possibility of distributive or procedural injustice, it is noted that nondirective social support enables shared decision-making as the support provider seeks to promote the support receiver's intentions (Johnsen, 2018). Employees are then also likely to represent the voices of their co-workers that contribute to their own wellbeing.

5.2.3. Interpersonal Wellbeing

Organisational justice as predictor of interpersonal wellbeing. With interpersonal wellbeing being concerned with the interactions and relationships that employees have with their co-workers and supervisors, it is plausible why procedural, interpersonal and informational justice have moderate relationships with interpersonal wellbeing. On the contrary, the results indicated that distributive justice has a weak relationship with interpersonal wellbeing, and can be explained by its moderate relationship with POS. Therefore, as employees perceive fair distributions of resources in the workplace (such as fair salaries), they often ascribe it to their organisations as being supportive (Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012), and not to their supervisors or co-workers. Therefore, distributive justice is unlikely to be influenced by supervisors, or more specifically co-workers, and hence, do not significantly contribute to interpersonal wellbeing.

As mentioned previously that both interpersonal and informational justice have significantly strong relationships with procedural justice, it is understandable why procedural justice has the strongest relationship with interpersonal wellbeing too. Aligned with the notion that supervisors serve as representatives of the organisation (Roemer & Harris, 2018), it is often them who implement regulations and procedures developed on an organisational level. The results thus suggest that employees' perceptions of how fairly the processes regarding how disputes are resolved, or resources are distributed, account for the quality treatment they receive from their supervisors and thus contributes to their interpersonal wellbeing. Therefore, when employees report greater interpersonal wellbeing, it is because they are likely to perceive fair decision-making involving them, and fair treatment in general that contribute to them experiencing more positive emotions and fewer negative emotions.

In addition, the fair treatment that employees receive with regards to how organisational processes concerning them are implemented, imply that their superiors are respectful and that it allows them to build interpersonal relationships that also contribute to them experiencing decreased levels of loneliness. It can also contribute to their health, as organisational fairness as depicted by supervisors, may alleviate forms of stress or anxiety at work (Fischer et al., 2014). Thus, as the results indicated, it is plausible that PSS strengthens the relationship between both interpersonal and informational justice, and interpersonal wellbeing. In addition, PSS as a mediator in the above relationship could also account for employees' increased perceptions of procedural justice.

Workplace social support and interpersonal wellbeing. Social interactions play an important role in one's life, and research notes how social support is conducive to health and wellbeing, and predictive of health-promoting behaviours (Johnsen et al., 2018). As noted that interactions in the workplace greatly influence the wellbeing of employees, workplace social support was especially important during the onset of uncertainty caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. This also highlights why the results indicated that PCS, rather than POS or PSS, had a stronger relationship with interpersonal wellbeing. Physical distancing required to reduce transmissions of COVID-19 has disintegrated social networks in the workplace. As the majority of organisations required their employees to work from home, literature has noted how the mental health of self-isolated or quarantined individuals has been at risk. Nonetheless, despite intensified social isolation, PCS has been noted to alleviate anxiety, depression or suicidal behaviours or ideations (Pera, 2020). Therefore, the relationships that employees have with their co-workers ought to fulfil the need for affiliation since they are socially isolated due to the pandemic.

As employees rely on their supervisors or co-workers for support or guidance during the uncertainty caused by the pandemic, their interpersonal wellbeing is noted to improve due to more interactions that combat their loneliness. Similarly, maintaining relationships in the workplace, despite being socially disintegrated, can foster positive emotions as supervisors or co-workers encourage one another to remain positive during the challenges imposed by the pandemic. Likewise, encouragement from co-workers can help employees achieve a healthier lifestyle (such as reduced depression levels), which is especially important during the pandemic's restrictions. In addition, employees' negative emotions (such as sadness or frustration as a result of COVID-19 implications) ought to lessen as their supervisors or co-workers provide them with counselling or guidance concerning personal troubles or struggles

regarding work. Alternatively, as employees guide their peers, they in return, experience positive emotions such as joy or gratitude.

The results, however, indicated that, on average, the participants' interpersonal wellbeing levels were low, indicating relatively high negative emotions and loneliness, unsatisfactory relationships, and lower health. Many industries were required to halt their operations due to the COVID-19 restrictions, and many organisations had shifted to work from home operations. Therefore, even though many of the restrictions have been lifted, organisations have either adopted a hybrid working approach or have continued with their operations remotely. As a result, the participants' poor interpersonal wellbeing might be due to a lack of social interactions. As modern society has not yet experienced anything similar to the pandemic, a variety of challenges occurred in the workplace that organisations and employees were not prepared for. More specifically, the majority of employees had to adapt to a work from home lifestyle, where they might have faced additional challenges such as increased work-family conflict, or online and technological challenges. The rapid changes have thus negatively affected employees and many may have experienced increased levels of negative emotions, stress, depression or anxiety (Pera, 2020). In addition, the participants were experiencing increased loneliness and their limited workplace interactions prevented them from having a sense of belongingness.

Despite the pandemic, PSS and PCS tend to create a sense of mutual understanding or support amongst co-workers. This is as employees seek relatability from their supervisors or co-workers who are most likely facing the same difficulties, or who have experienced the same work-related situations in the past. Therefore, another explanation why PSS and PCS contribute to interpersonal wellbeing, is that employees would seek empathy from those who have experienced similar challenges in the workplace (Sloan, 2012).

The above discussion highlights that the two types of wellbeing should be differentiated as they relate in different ways to organisational justice and types of workplace social support. Practical implications of the study, with specific reference to high-income workers, are presented in the following section.

5.3. Practical Implications

The study sought to contribute to the area of Organisational Psychology, with specific reference to employee wellbeing in South Africa. More specifically, the study considered factors contributing to what constitutes decent work amongst high-income workers, which is

also an unusual focus in the South African context considering the high levels of unemployment in the country. The study, therefore, succeeded in demonstrating to what extent organisational justice and workplace social support contribute to the wellbeing of high-income workers, while also ensuring decent work.

As the emergence of two types of wellbeing about distinct aspects show, different aspects of organisational justice and perceived workplace social support are related to different parts of wellbeing. Therefore, as high-income workers tend to be knowledge workers, they are more likely to perform their work virtually than low-income workers who often perform manual labour. Some of the findings, for example, the split of the wellbeing measure into work-related and interpersonal wellbeing, might thus be as a result of the study having taken place during the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic has changed the nature of work from office-based to virtual work, where social distancing resulted in fewer social interactions and a greater risk for loneliness. In particular, employees had fewer interactions with their co-workers as informal interactions in an office environment has fallen away. The findings thus highlight the importance of the social support component to wellbeing in the workplace.

Organisations whose staff is working remotely should thus think about how they could create spaces virtually that replace the informal interactions between co-workers in the office environment as it is important for employees' wellbeing beyond the support supervisors and the organisation provide. Equally so, virtual interactions with supervisors seem to make it less likely for employees to distinguish between their supervisors and organisations – which works well if the supervisor is supportive, but where the supervisor is seen as unsupportive it means the employee also gains a negative view of the organisation. In addition to the implications of an online workplace, organisations should develop strategies to socially integrate new employees. As the findings highlighted, it is thus critical that organisations ensure the wellbeing of newcomers by modifying onboarding processes to combat the implications of social isolation in a virtual workplace.

In addition, supervisory support significantly contributes to the relationship between interactional justice (i.e., interpersonal and informational justice) and both work-related and interpersonal wellbeing. Also, as noted that both interpersonal and information justice significantly relate to procedural justice, organisations could consider sending supervisors on training aimed at improving their interpersonal skills. The training should be aimed at improving skills such as verbal and non-verbal communication, listening skills, patience, empathy, leadership skills, etc. These skills should thus enable supervisors to be perceived as supportive, which will contribute to their employees perceiving them as more respectful and

empathetic, especially while providing them with information concerning them in the workplace. Consequently, employees' wellbeing will be supported while maintaining both interpersonal and informational justice (which is also likely to contribute to perceptions of procedural justice). The mentioned training could furthermore also support supervisors in promoting socially integrated workplaces where employees are working remotely.

Alternatively, high-income workers, being knowledge workers, could be allowed to provide insight into the implementation of more effective solutions about how organisational systems could be improved. In particular, high-income workers could be involved in establishing performance appraisal procedures and policies, as this is likely to increase employees' perceptions that resources are distributed, and procedures applied, fairly. It will thus prevent any procedural injustice occurring that could negatively impact employees' wellbeing. As organisations allow employees to contribute to decisions, employees thus perceive that their superiors trust them which then contribute to feelings of being valued. This is also likely to make employees perceive their organisations or supervisors as more supportive. A return of their appreciation may be a more productive workforce. In summary, by ensuring that distributive and procedural justice are maintained, employees' wellbeing is noted to improve as they perceive organisational support. Investing in organisational justice is thus in the interest of both the employees and their organisations.

In addition to the implementation of wellness programmes and costs associated with employee health care, the study highlights how organisations could focus on creating fair and supportive working conditions to promote employee wellbeing. Therefore, factors that contribute to decent working conditions, can support the management of employee wellbeing.

5.4. Limitations and Future Recommendations

The findings of the study should, however, be considered in light of some limitations, as limitations are important to view the results in a particular context. As the study was concerned with the predictors of employee wellbeing, caution should be taken when interpreting the findings of the correlational study as it may pose unclear inferences. Thus, it will not be possible to know from a positive correlation if the types of organisational justice or workplace social support protects employee wellbeing, or if individuals with greater wellbeing perceive their organisations as more fair or supportive as they are feeling well.

In addition, as the study was concerned with wellbeing (or perceived to be related to mental health), participants could have been reluctant to disclose information as wellbeing-

related matters are often stigmatised. The participants could thus also have a preconceived idea as they could view mental health, wellbeing or health and wellness topics in the workplace as overrated. Therefore, it is likely that participants completed the survey in a rush that could provide inaccurate results as they could misinterpret questions.

The use of convenience sampling could also limit the findings as possible sample bias could affect the results. In addition, the majority of the participants were part of a younger generation. The sample, therefore, lacked an equal representation of generations in the workplace, as older participants were significantly underrepresented due to younger participants likely referring the survey only to their peers of the same generation. Therefore, as younger employees could value relationships over work-related benefits, the two types of wellbeing might be particularly relevant in younger individuals that might not emerge in older samples. Also, as the study was conducted online via *LinkedIn*, *WhatsApp* and other social media platforms, older generation participants could be less likely to complete the survey as they are often challenged by technology-related issues. An improper representation of older workers could thus prohibit one to determine what aspects of wellbeing are more important to older workers.

It is thus recommended that future research investigates the phenomenon of the two types of wellbeing that had emerged in the study. In particular, it should be viewed in line with a sample comprising individuals working virtually, and in comparison, to a sample of individuals working face-to-face. This will allow one to determine whether the Workplace PERMA Profiler has the two dimensions of wellbeing (as found in the current study) in both samples. Alternatively, it is recommended that the wellbeing of different generations is compared, whilst also determining whether the two types of wellbeing feature in all generational groups.

5.5. Conclusion

In an attempt to determine what factors contribute to decent working conditions for high-income workers and how it impacts employee wellbeing, the study demonstrated to what extent organisational justice and workplace social support predict the wellbeing of high-income workers. In particular, the study revealed two types of wellbeing (work-related and interpersonal wellbeing) that highlighted how organisations can promote employee wellbeing.

Work-related wellbeing is concerned with employees' engagement at work, how they find meaning in their jobs, how they accomplish work-related tasks, and how they experience

positive emotions and happiness concerning the workplace. Interpersonal wellbeing is more concerned with the interactions and relationships that employees have in the workplace, and how it impacts them as they experience more positive emotions, and fewer negative emotions and loneliness.

The study thus assessed to what extent organisational justice and workplace social support in the workplace related to the mentioned types of wellbeing. The study highlighted how COVID-19 had disintegrated the workplace as many organisations required their employees to work remotely. Therefore, the study proposed that organisations should seek ways for employees to interact with one another in a virtual working environment. In addition, the study highlighted the importance of supervisory support in achieving interpersonal and informational justice and proposed training aimed at interpersonal skills for supervisors to aid in the management of employee wellbeing.

In conclusion, the study maintained that by rewarding employees fairly for their work, involving them in decision-making, supporting them and ensuring that they are socially integrated, organisations contribute to what constitutes decent work as proposed by the International Labour Organisation (International Labour Organisation, 2015). Therefore, by ensuring fair and supportive working conditions, organisations promote the wellbeing of high-income workers while contributing to the attainment of Sustainable Development Goals 3 (that seeks to ensure healthy lives and wellbeing for all) and 8 (that is concerned with the promotion of decent work for all).

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Appendices

Appendix A

Online survey invitation and cover letter



A survey of organisational justice, support and employee wellbeing in South Africa

Dear Participant,

If you are currently employed at a South African organisation, I invite you to participate in the research project that I am completing as part of my Master's degree in Industrial/Organisational Psychology at the University of Cape Town (UCT).

With the importance of wellbeing at the centre of many organisational discussions, the study aims to determine to what extent fairness and support at work contribute to employee wellbeing. Your experience at work is a valuable source of information for the study with which I seek to contribute to creating fair and supportive working conditions for all working individuals in the country.

To participate you would complete the following online survey. It should take approximately 15 minutes of your time, and your responses will be kept anonymous and confidential. Your participation is completely voluntary, and you can choose to stop your study participation at any time.

By completing the questionnaire, you are providing consent for me to use your responses for my dissertation.

Should you require further information, or would like to follow up on the results of the research, do not hesitate to contact me (VLJLAN001@myuct.ac.za; 072 784 9749) or my supervisor, Dr Ines Meyer (ines.meyer@uct.ac.za). Thank you for your time – I appreciate your participation!

Lana Viljoen

Master's in Industrial and Organisational Psychology Student

***If you do not feel well and would like to speak to someone about it you can contact *LifeLine* on 0861 322 322.**

Appendix B

Survey

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female
- Other (Please specify)

- Prefer not to say

What is your age?

- 20 – 29
- 30 – 39
- 40 – 49
- 50 – 59
- 60 – 69
- 70 – 79

What is your field of work?

- Legal
- Finance
- Health Care
- Education
- Business (Marketing, Management Consulting, etc).
- Engineering/ Manufacturing
- Information technology and communications
- Other (Please specify)

In general,

How would you say your health is?

Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent
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Reflecting on your job, please select the answer that best represents your view.

Is your work purposeful and meaningful?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

Do you receive help and support from co-workers when you need it?

Do you feel that what you do at work is valuable and worthwhile?

Do you feel excited and interested in your work?

How lonely do you feel at work?

Reflecting on your professional relationships with your co-workers, please select the answer that best represents your view.

My co-workers...

Value my contribution to work.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

Fail to appreciate any extra effort from me.

Would ignore any complaints from me.

Care about my wellbeing.

Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.

Care about my general satisfaction at work.

Show very little concern for me.

Take pride in my accomplishments at work.

Please select the answer that best represents your view.

Compared to others of your same age and sex, how is your health?

Poor	Below average	Average	Above average	Excellent
------	---------------	---------	---------------	-----------

Please select the answer that best represents your view.

At work...

Do you feel appreciated by your co-workers?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

Do you generally feel that you have a sense of direction in your work?

How satisfied are you with your professional relationships?

Do you feel content?

Reflect on the relationship between you and your employer/ supervisor. Select the answer that best represents your opinion.

I can tell my employer/ supervisor what I think before they decide something that affects me.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

I can influence the decisions my employer/ supervisor makes.

My employer/ supervisor always uses the same method to make decisions.

My employer/ supervisor is fair when they make decisions.

My employer/ supervisor uses correct information when they decide on something.

I can ask my employer/ supervisor to change the decisions they have made.

How my employer/ supervisor makes decisions is ethical.

My employer/ supervisor...

Is polite to me.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

Treats me with dignity.

Treats me with respect.

Makes inappropriate comments.

My employer/ supervisor...

Is open when communicating with me.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

Gives me detailed explanations about how decisions are made.

Gives me understandable explanations about decisions are made.

Takes a long time before they communicate information.

Makes sure everyone understands the information they give.

Please select the answer that best represents your view.

At work...

How often do you feel you are making progress towards accomplishing your work-related goals?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

How often do you become absorbed in what you are doing?

How often do you feel joyful?

How often do you feel anxious?

How often do you achieve the important work goals you have set for yourself?

My supervisor...

Values my contribution to work.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

Fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.

Would ignore any complaints from me.

Cares about my wellbeing.

Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.

Cares about my general satisfaction at work.

Shows very little concern for me.

Takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

Please select the answer that best represents your view.

How satisfied are you with your current physical health?

Completely dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Neutral	Somewhat satisfied	Completely satisfied
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Please select the answer that best represent your view.

My salary...

Shows the effort I put into my work.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

Shows what I have contributed to my work.

Is fair to the amount of work I have done.

Is fair compared to how I perform.

At work...

How often do you feel positive?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

How often do you feel angry?

How often are you able to handle your work-related responsibilities?

How often do you feel sad?

How often do you lose track of time while doing something you enjoy?

Reflecting on the position that you have within your organisation, please select the answer that best represents your view.

My organisation...

Values my contribution to work.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very often	Always
-------	--------	-----------	------------	--------

Fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.

Would ignore any complaints from me.

Cares about my wellbeing.

Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.

Cares about my general satisfaction at work.

Shows very little concern for me.

Takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

Taking all things together...

How happy would you say you are with your work?

Very unhappy	Somewhat unhappy	Neutral	Somewhat happy	Very happy
--------------	---------------------	---------	-------------------	------------

Please select ALL the items applicable to your household:

- Tv set?
- Swimming pool?
- DVD player/ Blue Ray Player?
- Pay TV (M-Net/ DStv /Top TV)?
- Air conditioner?
- Computer (Desktop/ Laptop)?
- Vacuum cleaner/ floor polisher?
- Dishwashing machine?
- Washing machine?
- Tumble dryer?
- Home telephone (landline)?
- Deep freezer – free standing?
- Refrigerator or combined fridge/ freezer?
- Electric stove?
- Microwave oven?
- Built-in kitchen sink?
- Home security service?
- 3 or more cell phones in household?
- 2 or more cell phones in household?
- Home theatre system?
- A motor vehicle?
- Tap water in house/ on plot?
- Hot running water from geyser?
- Flush toilet in/ outside house?
- Brick house, cluster house or town house?
- Live in a metropolitan (city) area?
- Live in a rural area (not Gauteng or Western Cape)?
- No radios, or only one radio in my household?
- No domestic workers, paid house helpers (part-time domestics and gardeners)?

Appendix C

Original and adapted items for measurement scales

Table 1

The Original and Reworded Workplace PERMA Profiler Scale measuring the wellbeing dimensions

Dimension	Original item	Reworded items
		At work...
Accomplishments	How often do you feel you are making progress towards accomplishing your work-related goals?	How often do you feel you are making progress towards accomplishing your work-related goals?
Engagement	At work, how often do you become absorbed in what you are doing?	How often do you become absorbed in what you are doing?
Positive emotions	At work, how often do you feel joyful?	How often do you feel joyful?
Negative emotions	At work, how often do you feel anxious?	How often do you feel anxious?*
Accomplishments	How often do you achieve the important work goals you have set for yourself?	How often do you achieve the important work goals you have set for yourself?
		In general...
Health	In general, how would you say your health is?	How would you say your health is?
		Reflecting on your job, please select the answer that best represents your view...
Meaning	To what extent is your work purposeful and meaningful?	Is your work purposeful and meaningful?
Relationships	To what extent do you receive help and support from co-workers when you need it?	Do you receive help and support from co-workers when you need it?
Meaning	In general, to what extent do you feel that what you do at work is valuable and worthwhile?	Do you feel that what you do at work is valuable and worthwhile?
Engagement	To what extent do you feel excited and interested in your work?	Do you feel excited and interested in your work?
Loneliness	How lonely do you feel at work?	How lonely do you feel at work?*

Health	How satisfied are you with your current physical health?	Please select the answer that best represents your view... How satisfied are you with your current physical health?
Positive emotions	At work, how often do you feel positive?	At work... How often do you feel positive?
Negative emotions	At work, how often do you feel angry?	How often do you feel angry?*
Accomplishments	How often are you able to handle your work-related responsibilities?	How often are you able to handle your work-related responsibilities?
Negative emotions	At work, how often do you feel sad?	How often do you feel sad?*
Engagement	At work, how often do you lose track of time while doing something you enjoy?	How often do you lose track of time while doing something you enjoy?
Health	Compared to others of your same age and sex, how is your health?	Please select the answer that best represents your view... Compared to others of your same age and sex, how is your health?
Relationships	To what extent do you feel appreciated by your co-workers?	At work... Do you feel appreciated by your co-workers?
Meaning	To what extent do you generally feel that you have a sense of direction in your work?	Do you generally feel that you have a sense of direction in your work?
Relationships	How satisfied are you with your professional relationships?	How satisfied are you with your professional relationships?
Positive emotions	At work, to what extent do you feel content?	Do you feel content?
Happiness	Taking all things together, how happy would you say you are with your work?	Taking all thing together... How happy would you say you are with your work?

*Reverse-coded item

Table 2*The Original and Reworded Perceived Organisational Justice Scale*

Dimension	Original item	Reworded item
Procedural	I can tell my employer/ supervisor what I think before they decide on doing something that affects me.	I can tell my employer/ supervisor what I think before they decide on doing something that affects me.
	I can influence the decisions my employer/ supervisor makes.	I can influence the decisions my employer/ supervisor makes.
	My employer/ supervisor always uses the same way to make decisions.	My employer/ supervisor always uses the same way to make decisions.
	My employer/ supervisor is fair when they make decisions.	My employer/ supervisor is fair when they make decisions.
	My employer/ supervisor uses correct information when they decide on something.	My employer/ supervisor uses correct information when they decide on something.
	I can ask my employer/ supervisor to change the decisions they have made.	I can ask my employer/ supervisor to change the decisions they have made.
	How my employer/ supervisor makes decisions is ethical.	How my employer/ supervisor makes decisions is ethical.
Distributive		My salary...
	I think my wage shows the effort I put into my work.	Shows the effort I put into my work.
	I think my wage shows what I have contributed to my work.	Shows what I have contributed to my work.
	I think my wage is fair for the amount of work I have done.	I fair for the amount of work I have done.
	I think my wage is fair compared to how I perform at work.	Is fair compared to how I perform.
Interpersonal		My employer/ supervisor...
	My employer/ supervisor is polite to me.	Is polite to me.
	My employer/ supervisor treats me with dignity.	Treats me with dignity.
	My employer/ supervisor treats me with respect.	Treats me with respect.
	My employer/ supervisor makes inappropriate comments.	Makes inappropriate comments.

Informational

My employer/ supervisor is open when communicating with me.

My employer/ supervisor gives me detailed explanations about how decisions are made.

My employer/ supervisor gives understandable explanations about how decisions are made.

My employer/ supervisor takes a long time before they communicate information.

My employer/ supervisor makes sure everyone understands the information they give.

My employer/ supervisor...

Is open when communicating with me.

Gives me detailed explanations about how decisions are made.

Gives me understandable explanations about how decisions are made.

Takes a long time before they communicate information.*

Makes sure everyone understands the information they give.

*Reverse-coded item

Table 3

The Original and Reworded Perceived Organisational Support Scale for Workplace Social Support types

Support type	Original items	Reworded items
Perceived Organisational Support	My organisation values my contribution to work.	My organisation... Values my contribution to work.
	My organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	Fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.*
	My organisation would ignore any complaint from me.	Would ignore any complaint from me.*
	My organisation cares about my wellbeing.	Cares about my wellbeing.
	Even if I did the best job possible, my organisation would fail to notice.	Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.*
	My organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.	Cares about my general satisfaction at work.
	My organisation shows very little concern for me.	Shows very little concern for me.*
	My organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	Takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
Perceived Supervisory Support	My organisation values my contribution to work.	My supervisor... Values my contribution to work.
	My organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	Fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.*
	My organisation would ignore any complaint from me.	Would ignore any complaint from me.*
	My organisation cares about my wellbeing.	Cares about my wellbeing.
	Even if I did the best job possible, my organisation would fail to notice.	Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.*
	My organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.	Cares about my general satisfaction at work.
	My organisation shows very little concern for me.	Shows very little concern for me.*
	My organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	Takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

Perceived Co-worker Support

My organisation values my contribution to work.
 My organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.
 My organisation would ignore any complaint from me.
 My organisation cares about my wellbeing.
 Even if I did the best job possible, my organisation would fail to notice.
 My organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.
 My organisation shows very little concern for me.
 My organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

My co-workers....

Value my contribution to work.
 Fail to appreciate any extra effort from me.*
 Would ignore any complaint from me.*
 Care about my wellbeing.
 Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.*
 Care about my general satisfaction at work.
 Show very little concern for me.*
 Take pride in my accomplishments at work.

*Reverse-coded item

Table 4*Living Standard Measure Group Calculator*

Items to select to calculate Living Standard Measure Group
Tv set
Swimming pool
DVD player/ Blue Ray Player
Pay TV (M-Net/ DStv /Top TV)
Air conditioner
Computer (Desktop/ Laptop)
Vacuum cleaner/ floor polisher
Dishwashing machine
Washing machine
Tumble dryer
Home telephone (landline)
Deep freezer – free standing
Refrigerator or combined fridge/ freezer
Electric stove
Microwave oven
Built-in kitchen sink
Home security service
3 or more cell phones in household
2 or more cell phones in household
Home theatre system
A motor vehicle
Tap water in house/ on plot
Hot running water from geyser
Flush toilet in/ outside house
Brick house, cluster house or town house
Live in a metropolitan (city) area
Live in a rural area (not Gauteng or Western Cape)
No radios, or only one radio in my household
No domestic workers, paid house helpers (part-time domestics and gardeners)

Appendix D

Structure and consistency of the Workplace PERMA Profiler

Table 1

Factor Loadings of the Workplace PERMA Profiler Subscales' Items (N = 120)

Dimension	Item	Factor loading
Positive emotions	How often do you feel joyful?	.82
	How often do you feel positive?	.86
	Do you feel content?	.82
Negative emotions	How often do you feel anxious?	.60
	How often do you feel angry?	.72
	How often do you feel sad?	.77
Engagement	How often do you become absorbed in what you are doing?	.58
	Do you feel excited and interested in your work?	.73
	How often do you lose track of time while doing something you enjoy?	.33
Relationships	Do you receive help and support from co-workers when you need it?	.76
	Do you feel appreciated by your co-workers?	.77
	How satisfied are you with your professional relationships?	.72
Meaning	Is your work purposeful and meaningful?	.79
	Do you feel that what you do at work is valuable and worthwhile?	.94
	Do you generally feel that you have a sense of direction in your work?	.73
Accomplishments	How often do you feel you are making progress towards accomplishing your work-related goals?	.82
	How often do you achieve the important work goals you have set for yourself?	.69
	How often are you able to handle your work-related responsibilities?	.38
Health	How would you say your health is?	.54
	How satisfied are you with your current physical health?	.79
	Compared to others of your same age and sex, how is your health?	.96

Table 2*Reliability Analysis Results: Work-related Wellbeing Subscales (N = 120 ; $\alpha = .89$)*

Subscale	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Engagement	.72	.88
Meaning	.88	.84
Happiness	.84	.87
Positive emotions	.82	.85
Accomplishments	.63	.90

Table 3*Reliability Analysis Results: Interpersonal Wellbeing Subscales (N = 120 ; $\alpha = .78$)*

Subscale	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Negative emotions	.67	.71
Relationships	.72	.69
Loneliness	.50	.77
Health	.28	.82
Positive emotions	.70	.69

Appendix E

Structure and consistency of Organisational Justice Scale

Table 1

Round One - Rotated Factor Loadings of Procedural Justice Scale Items (N = 120)

Item number	Item description	Factor loadings (Factor 1)	Factor loadings (Factor 2)
1	I can tell my employer/ supervisor what I think before they decide on doing something that affects me.	.68	
2	I can influence the decisions my employer/ supervisor makes.	.87	
3	My employer/ supervisor always uses the same way to make decisions.		
4	My employer/ supervisor is fair when they make decisions.	.53	-.47
5	My employer/ supervisor uses correct information when they decide on something.	.32	-.59
6	I can ask my employer/ supervisor to change the decisions they have made.	.91	
7	How my employer/ supervisor makes decisions is ethical.		-.74

Table 2

Rotated Factor Loadings of Procedural Justice Scale Items (N = 120)

Item description	Factor loadings
I can tell my employer/ supervisor what I think before they decide on doing something that affects me.	.88
I can influence the decisions my employer/ supervisor makes.	.78
My employer/ supervisor is fair when they make decisions.	.90
My employer/ supervisor uses correct information when they decide on something.	.76
I can ask my employer/ supervisor to change the decisions they have made.	.76
How my employer/ supervisor makes decisions is ethical.	.78

Table 3

Unrotated Factor Loadings of Distributive Justice Scale Items (N = 120)

Item description	Factor loadings
My salary...	
Shows the effort I put into my work.	.94
Shows what I have contributed to my work.	.91
I fair for the amount of work I have done.	.89
Is fair compared to how I perform.	.90

Table 4*Unrotated Factor Loadings of Interpersonal Justice Scale Items (N = 120)*

Item description	Factor loadings
My employer/ supervisor...	
Is polite to me.	.90
Treats me with dignity.	.99
Treats me with respect.	.91
Makes inappropriate comments.	.57

Table 5*Unrotated Factor Loadings of Informational Justice Scale Items (N = 120)*

Item description	Factor loadings
My employer/ supervisor...	
Is open when communicating with me.	.83
Gives me detailed explanations about how decisions are made.	.94
Gives me understandable explanations about how decisions are made.	.93
Takes a long time before they communicate information.	.59
Makes sure everyone understands the information they give.	.78

Table 6*Reliability Analysis Results: Procedural Justice Scale (N = 120 ; $\alpha = .92$)*

Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I can tell my employer/ supervisor what I think before they decide on doing something that affects me.	.83	.90
I can influence the decisions my employer/ supervisor makes.	.75	.91
My employer/ supervisor is fair when they make decisions.	.85	.89
My employer/ supervisor uses correct information when they decide on something.	.73	.91
I can ask my employer/ supervisor to change the decisions they have made.	.73	.91
How my employer/ supervisor makes decisions is ethical.	.74	.91

Table 7*Reliability Analysis Results: Distributive Justice Scale (N = 120 ; $\alpha = .95$)*

Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My salary...		
Shows the effort I put into my work.	.91	.93
Shows what I have contributed to my work.	.88	.93
I fair for the amount of work I have done.	.86	.94
Is fair compared to how I perform.	.87	.94

Table 8*Reliability Analysis Results: Interpersonal Justice Scale (N = 120 ; $\alpha = .90$)*

Item description	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My employer/ supervisor...		
Is polite to me.	.82	.86
Treats me with dignity.	.92	.82
Treats me with respect.	.86	.84
Makes inappropriate comments.	.55	.96

Table 9*Reliability Analysis Results: Informational Justice Scale (N = 120 ; $\alpha = .91$)*

Item description	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My employer/ supervisor...		
Is open when communicating with me.	.80	.89
Gives me detailed explanations about how decisions are made.	.86	.87
Gives me understandable explanations about how decisions are made.	.86	.87
Takes a long time before they communicate information.	.59	.92
Makes sure everyone understands the information they give.	.76	.89

Appendix F

Structure and consistency of Perceived Organisational Support Scales

Table 1

Unrotated Factor Loadings of Perceived Organisational Support Scale (N = 120)

Item description	Factor loading
My organisation...	
Values my contribution to work.	.79
Fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	.81
Would ignore any complaint from me.	.82
Cares about my wellbeing.	.84
Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.	.87
Cares about my general satisfaction at work.	.88
Shows very little concern for me.	.75
Takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	.83

Table 2

Unrotated Factor Loadings of Perceived Supervisory Support Scale (N = 120)

Item description	Factor loading
My supervisor...	
Values my contribution to work.	.81
Fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	.79
Would ignore any complaint from me.	.78
Cares about my wellbeing.	.87
Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.	.81
Cares about my general satisfaction at work.	.84
Shows very little concern for me.	.89
Takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	.78

Table 3

Unrotated Factor Loadings of Perceived Co-worker Support Scale (N = 120)

Item description	Factor loading
My co-workers...	
Value my contribution to work.	.70
Fail to appreciate any extra effort from me.	.71
Would ignore any complaint from me.	.81
Care about my wellbeing.	.82
Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.	.86
Care about my general satisfaction at work.	.72
Show very little concern for me.	.73
Take pride in my accomplishments at work.	.73

Table 4*Reliability Analysis Results: Perceived Organisational Support Scale (N = 120 , $\alpha = .95$)*

Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My organisation...		
Values my contribution to work.	.77	.94
Fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	.79	.94
Would ignore any complaint from me.	.79	.94
Cares about my wellbeing.	.81	.94
Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.	.86	.93
Cares about my general satisfaction at work.	.85	.93
Shows very little concern for me.	.73	.94
Takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	.80	.94

Table 5*Reliability Analysis Results: Perceived Supervisory Support Scale (N = 120 , $\alpha = .94$)*

Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My supervisor...		
Values my contribution to work.	.78	.94
Fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	.77	.94
Would ignore any complaint from me.	.76	.94
Cares about my wellbeing.	.84	.93
Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.	.79	.94
Cares about my general satisfaction at work.	.81	.93
Shows very little concern for me.	.86	.93
Takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	.75	.94

Table 6*Reliability Analysis Results: Perceived Co-worker Support Scale (N = 120 , $\alpha = .92$)*

Item description	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My co-workers...		
Value my contribution to work.	.67	.91
Fail to appreciate any extra effort from me.	.66	.91
Would ignore any complaint from me.	.77	.90
Care about my wellbeing.	.78	.90
Would fail to notice even if I did the best job possible.	.81	.90
Care about my general satisfaction at work.	.69	.91
Show very little concern for me.	.70	.91
Take pride in my accomplishments at work.	.69	.91

Appendix G

Assumption of Additivity and Linearity

Figure 1

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Work-related Wellbeing and Procedural Justice

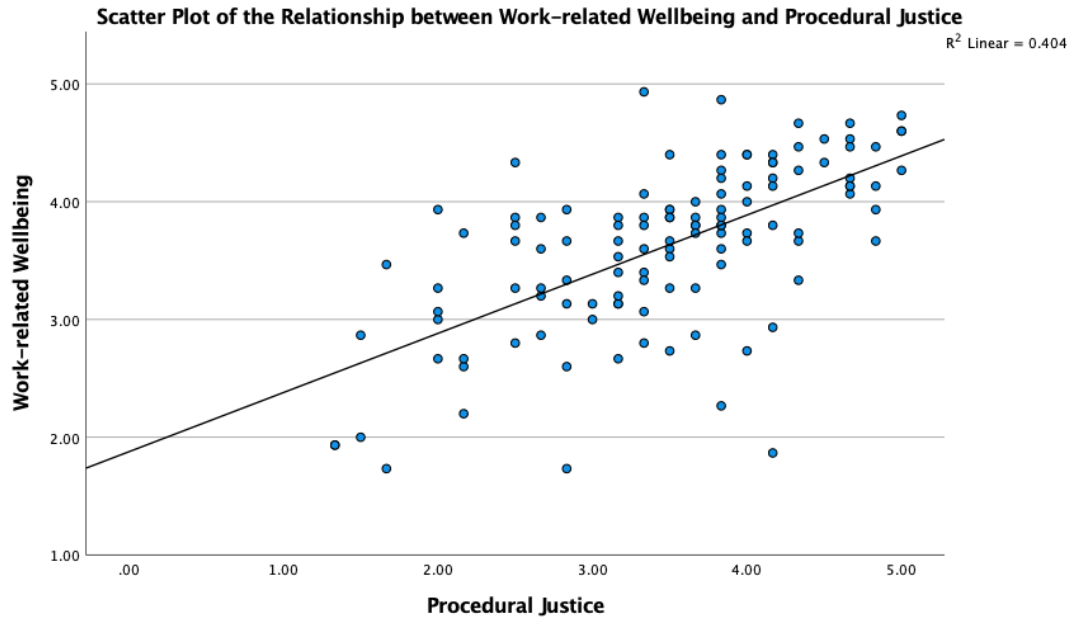


Figure 2

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Work-related Wellbeing and Distributive Justice

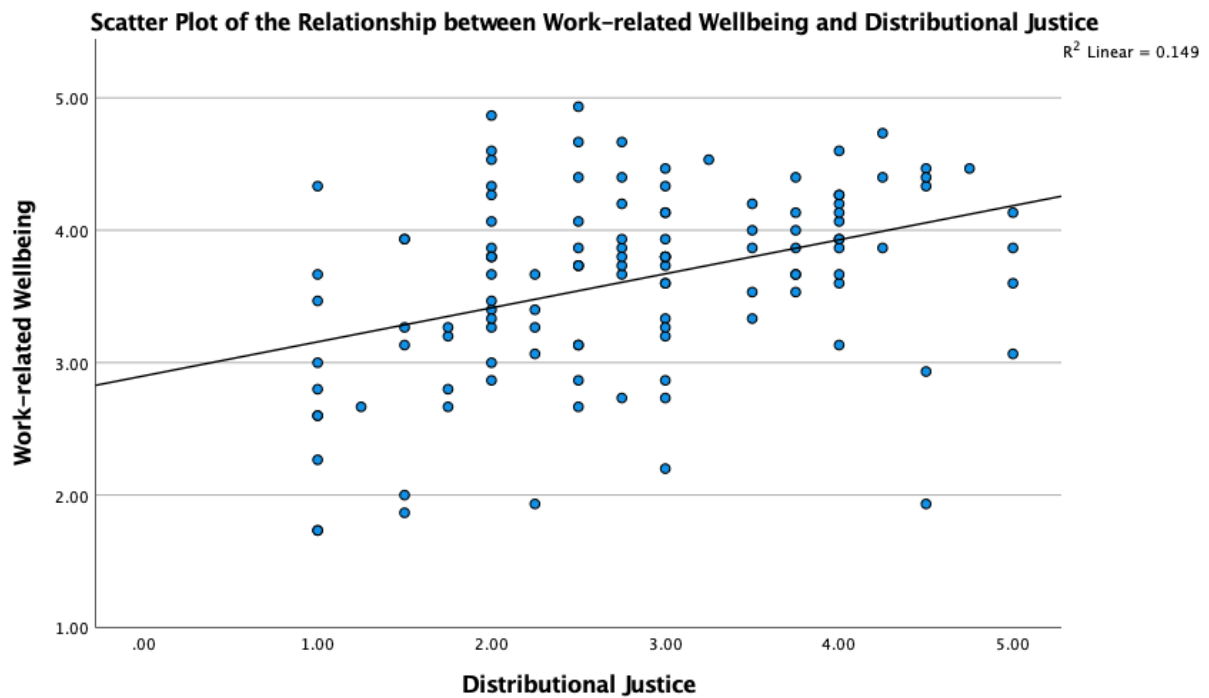
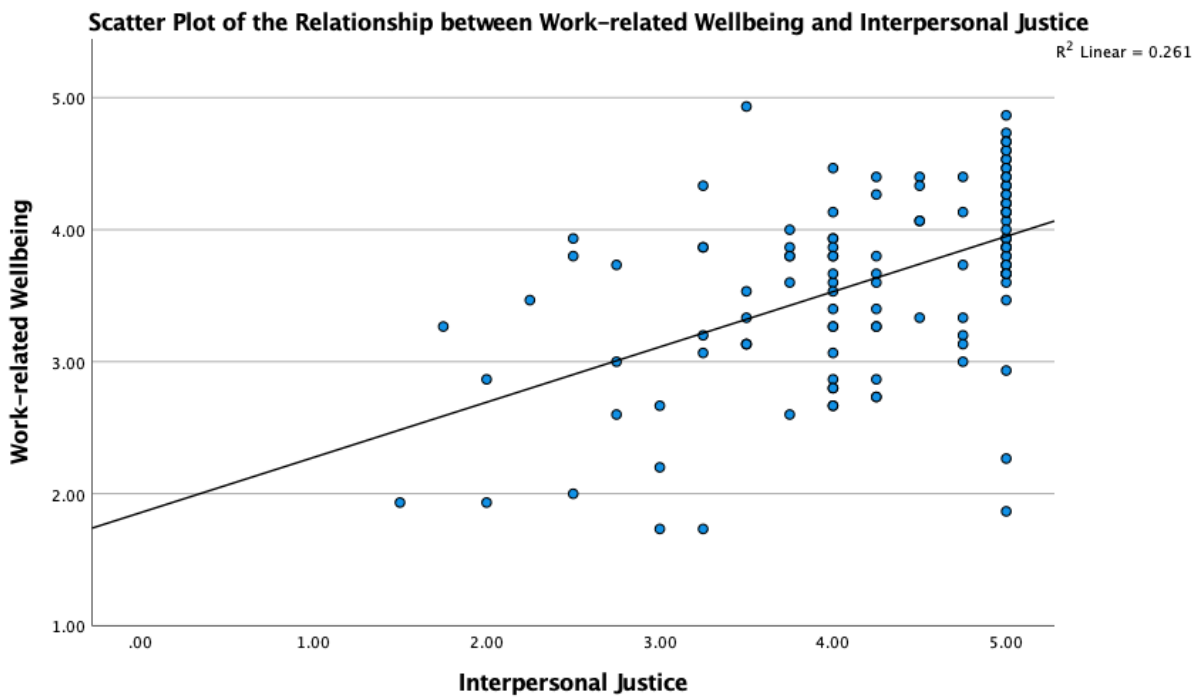


Figure 3

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Work-related Wellbeing and Interpersonal Justice

**Figure 4**

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Work-related Wellbeing and Informational Justice

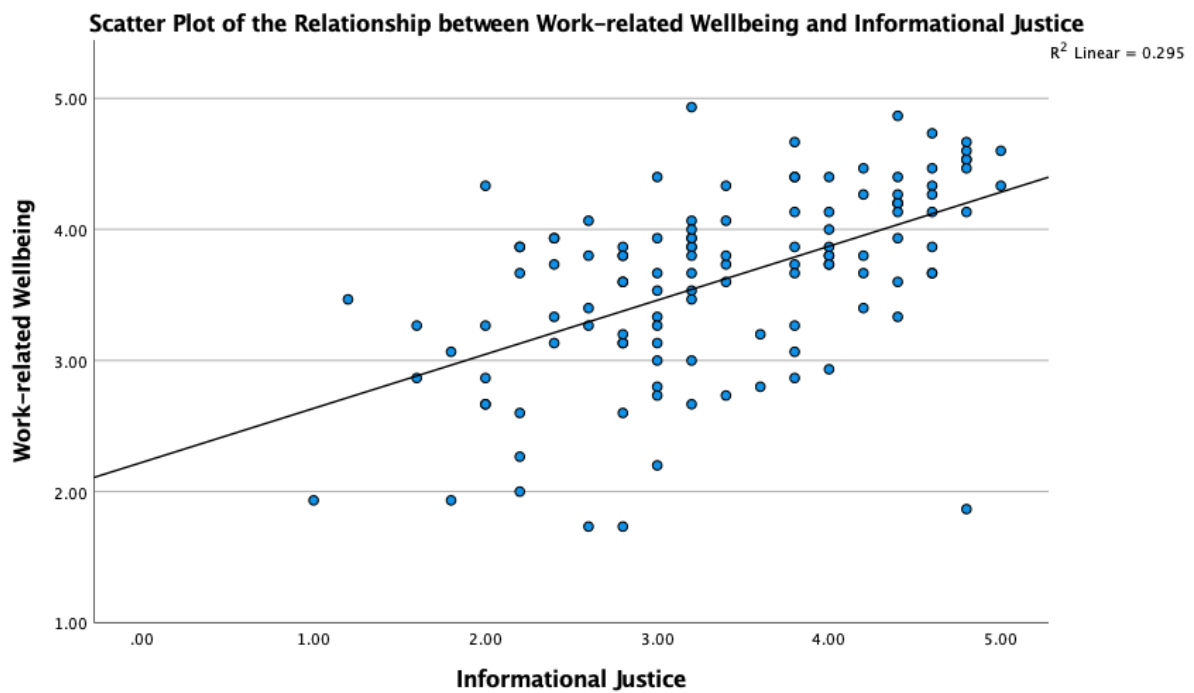
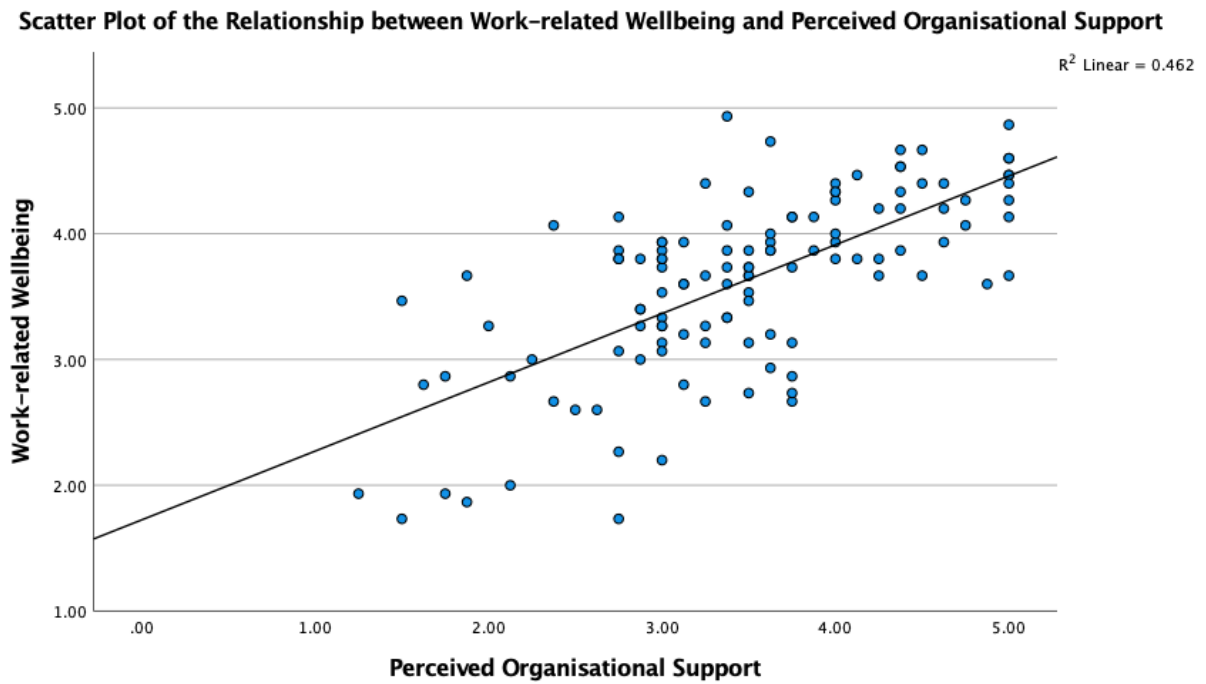


Figure 5

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Work-related Wellbeing and Perceived Organisational Support

**Figure 6**

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Work-related Wellbeing and Perceived Supervisory Support

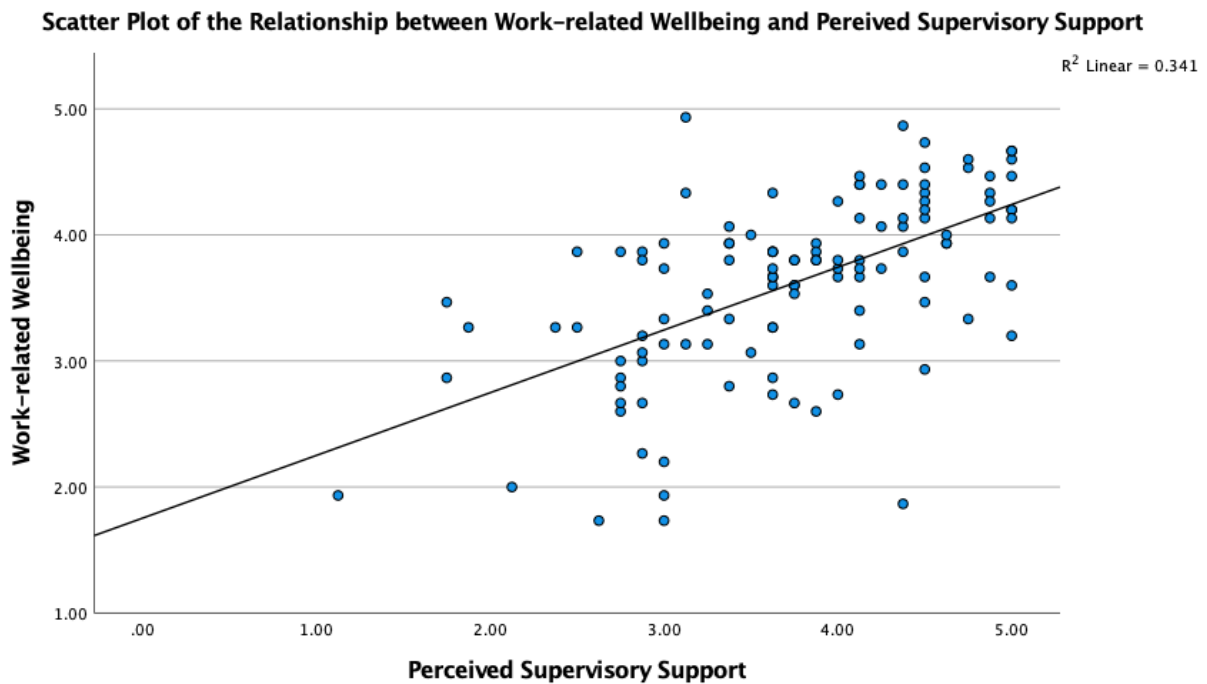
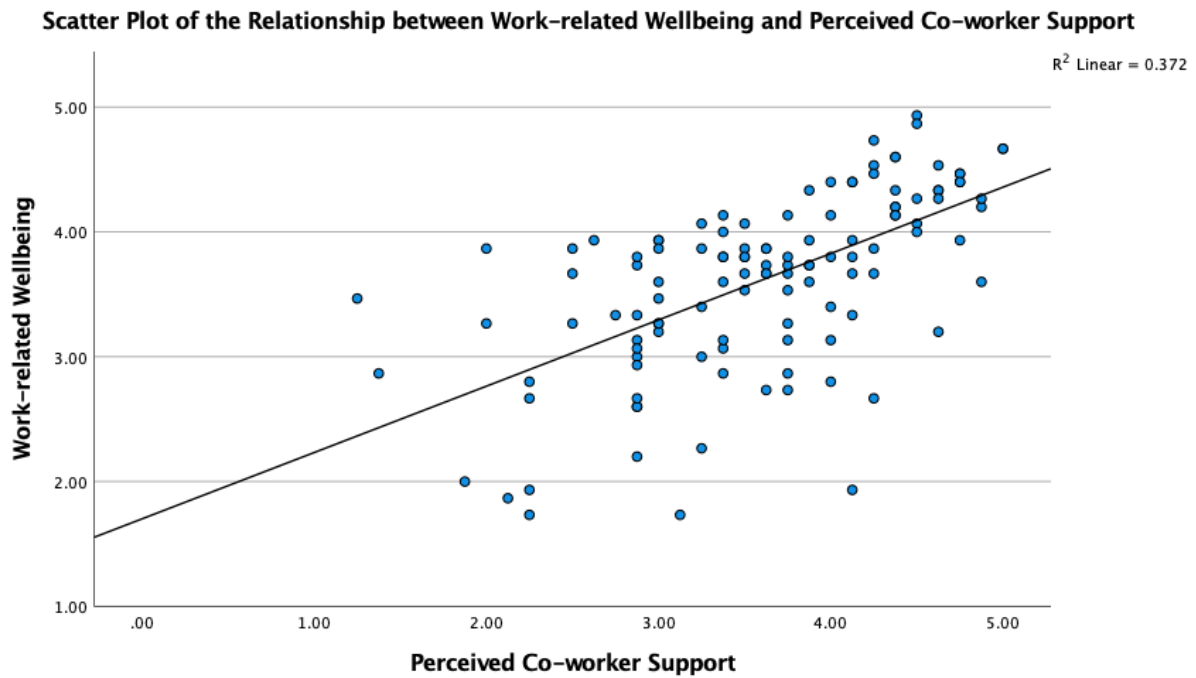


Figure 7

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Work-related Wellbeing and Perceived Co-worker Support

**Figure 8**

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Interpersonal Wellbeing and Procedural Justice

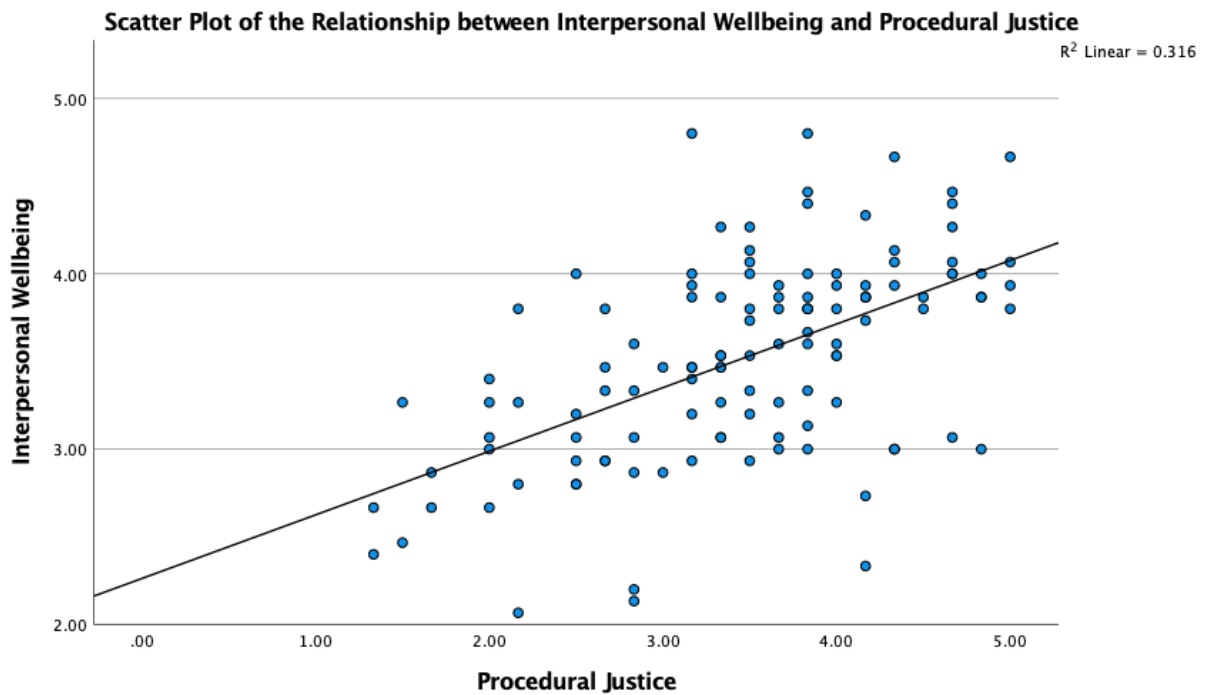
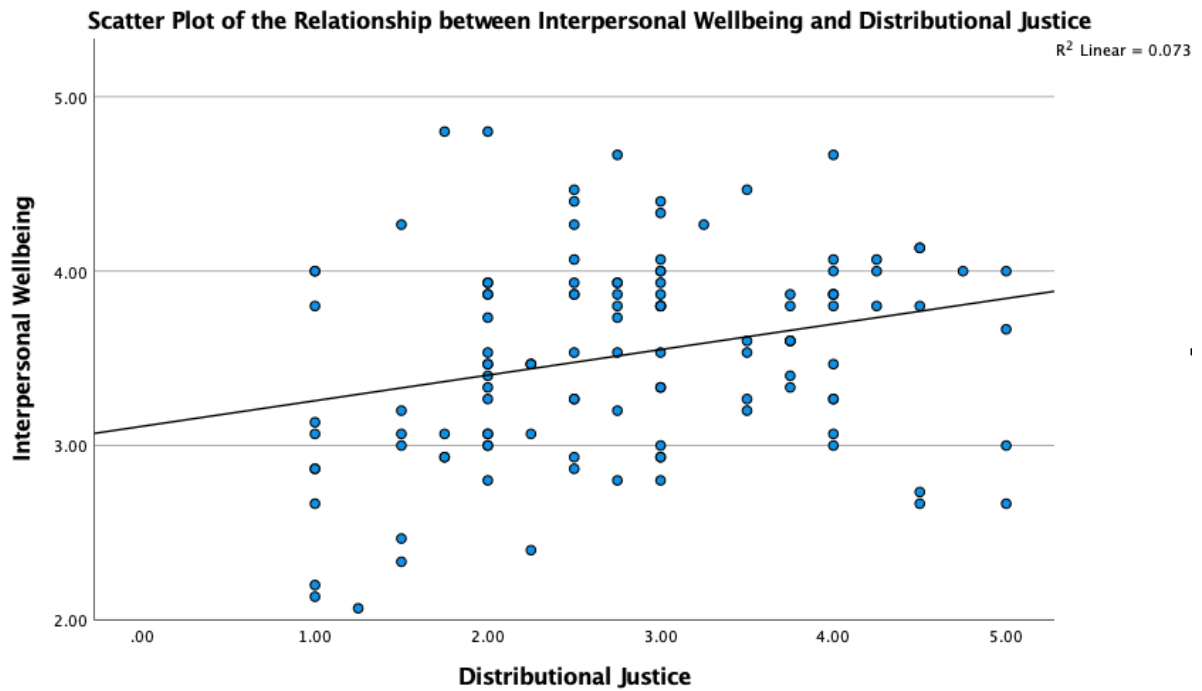


Figure 9

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Interpersonal Wellbeing and Distributive Justice

**Figure 10**

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Interpersonal Wellbeing and Interpersonal Justice

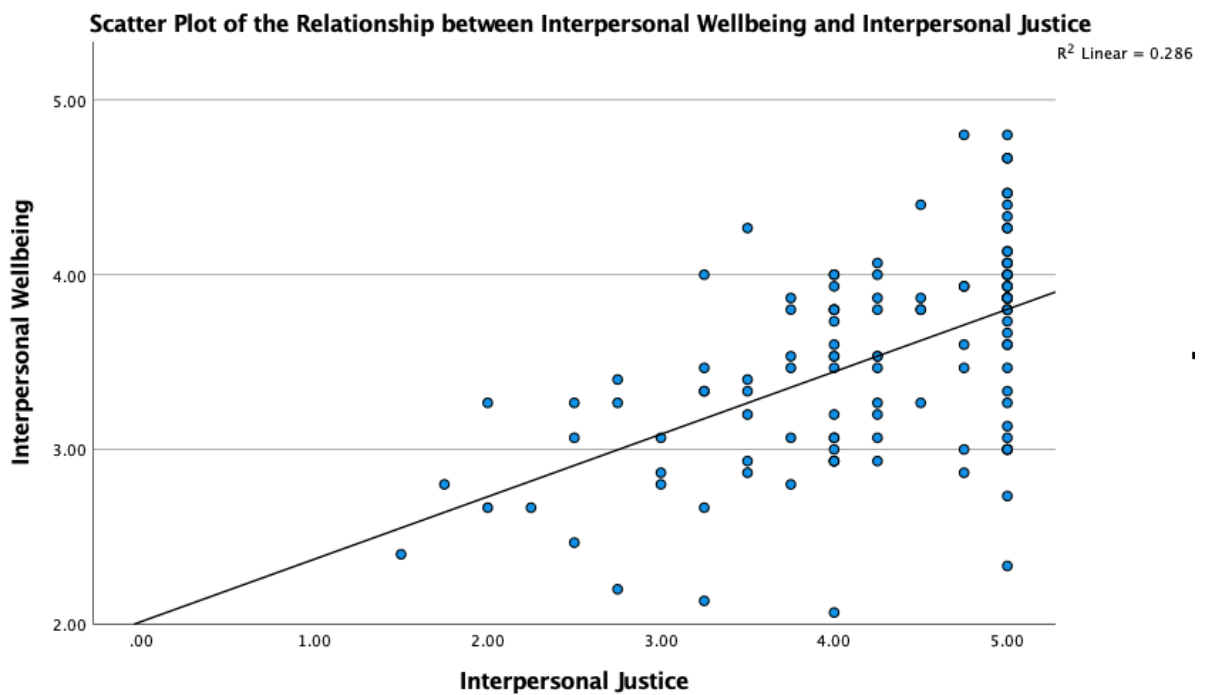
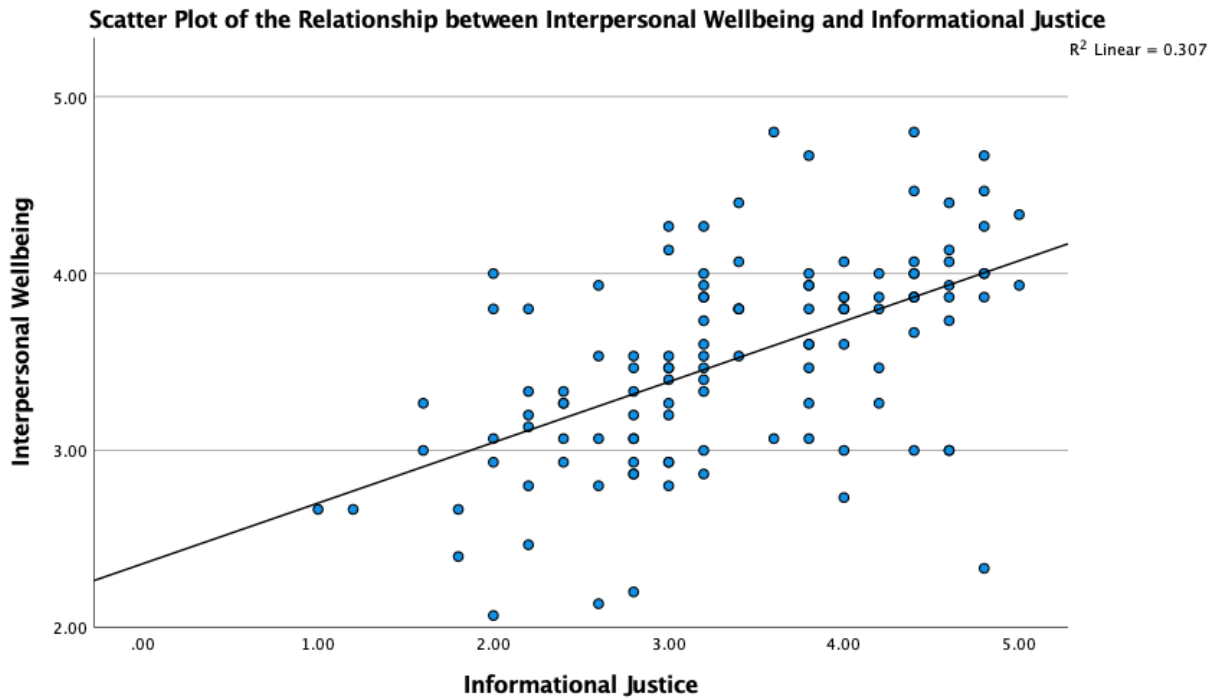


Figure 11

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Interpersonal Wellbeing and Informational Justice

**Figure 12**

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Interpersonal Wellbeing and Perceived Organisational Support

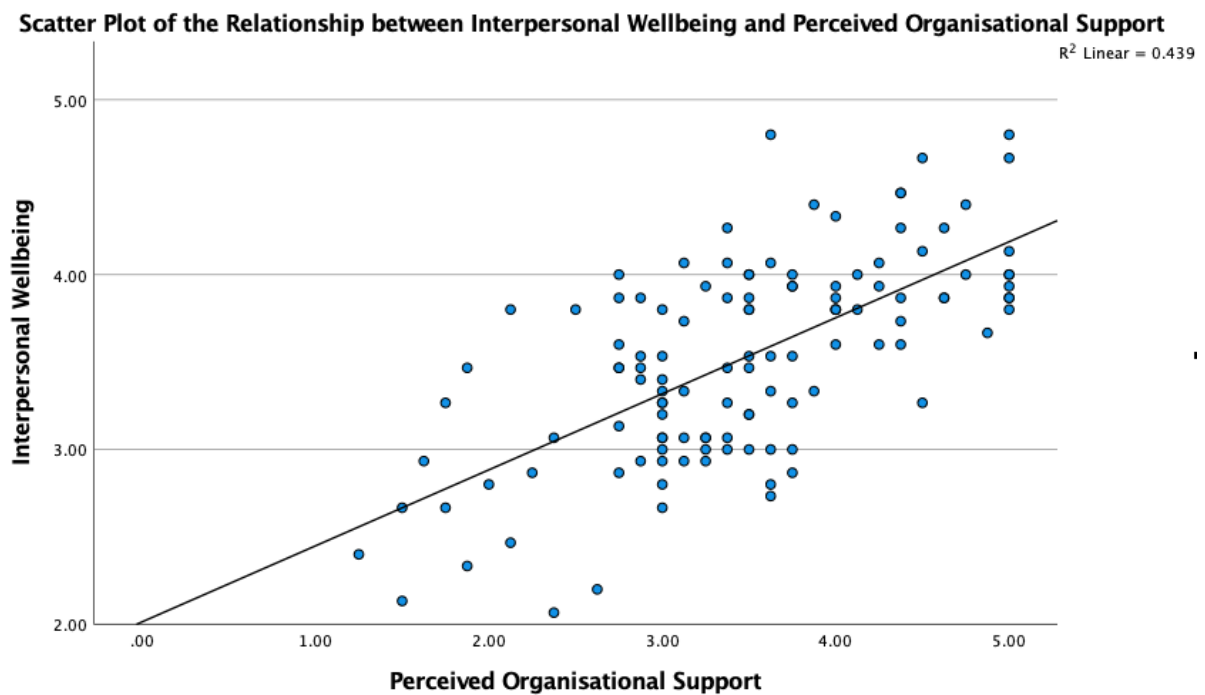
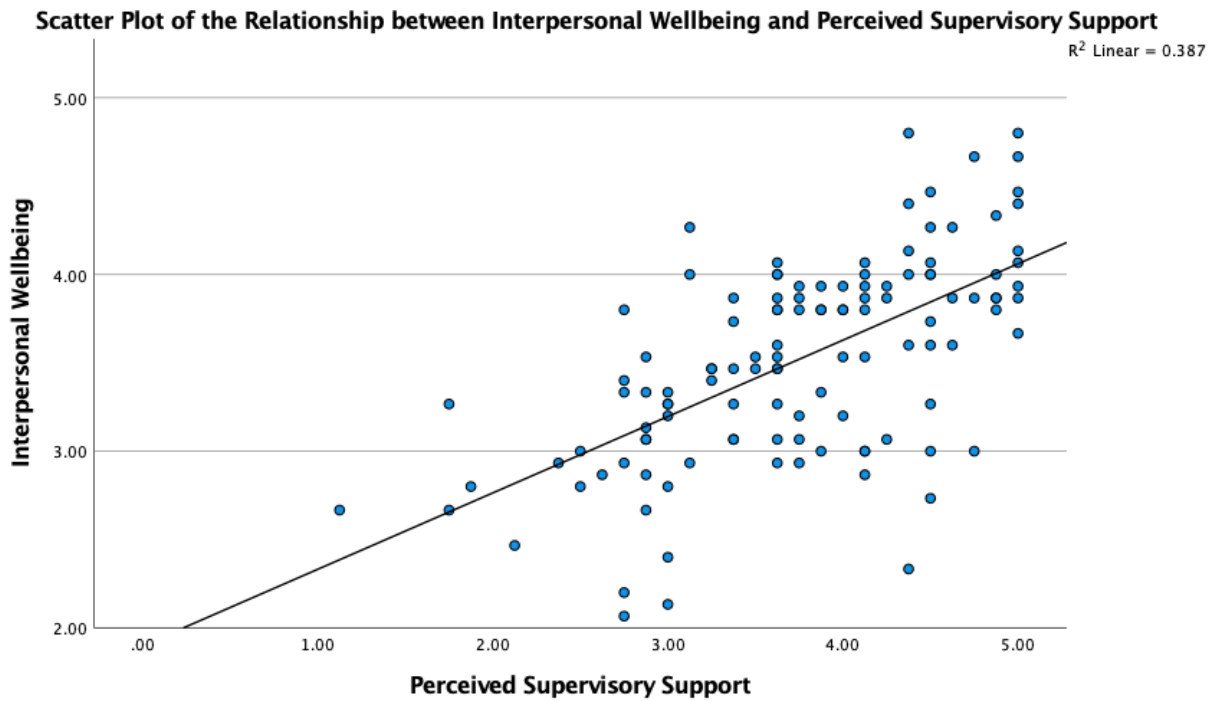
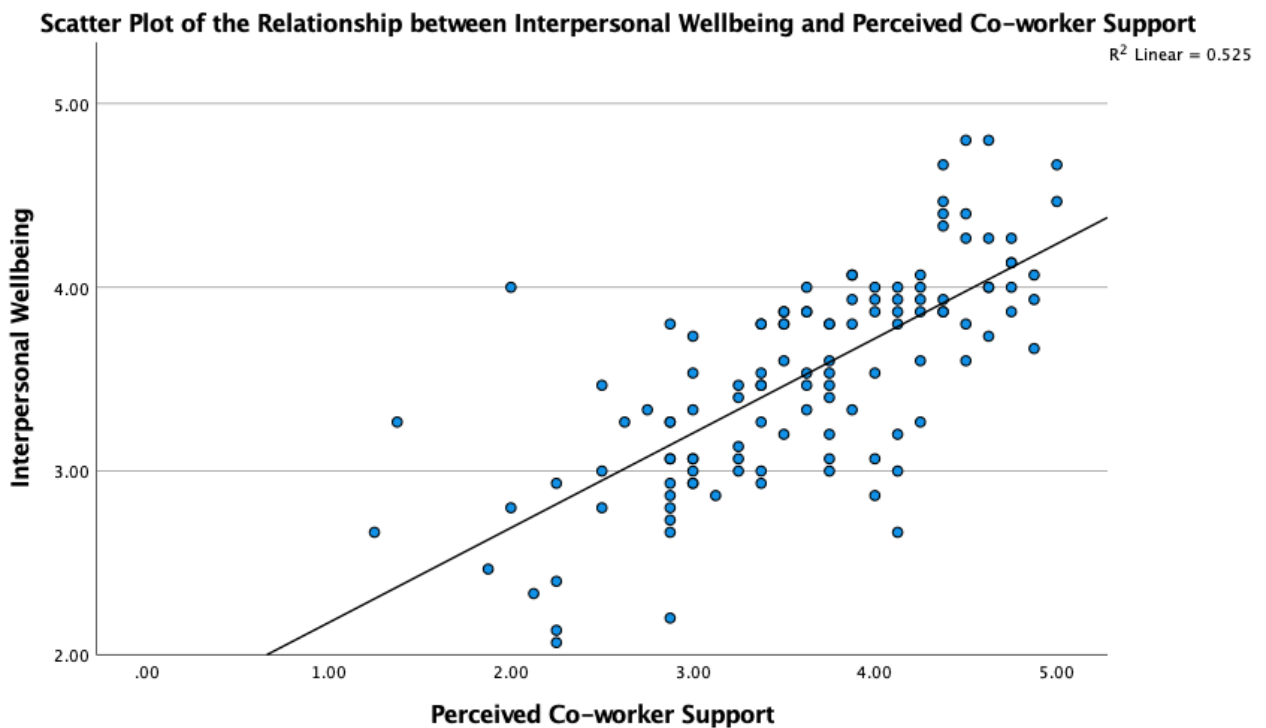


Figure 13

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Interpersonal Wellbeing and Perceived Supervisory Support

**Figure 14**

Scatter Plot of the Linear Relationship between Interpersonal Wellbeing and Perceived Co-worker Support



Appendix H

Assumption of Independent residuals

Table 1

Durbin-Watson scores of Regression Models

Regression Model	Durbin-Watson
Hypothesis 1a: Work-related wellbeing	1.14
Hypothesis 2a: Work-related wellbeing	1.07
Hypothesis 1b: Interpersonal wellbeing	1.69
Hypothesis 2b: Interpersonal wellbeing	1.83

Notes. Hypothesis 1a: Organisational justice predicts work-related wellbeing; Hypothesis 2a: Workplace social support predicts work-related wellbeing; Hypothesis 1b: Organisational justice predicts interpersonal wellbeing; Hypothesis 2b: Workplace social support predicts interpersonal wellbeing

Appendix I

Assumption of Homoscedasticity

Figure 1

Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals of the Regression Model (Organisational Justice types predicting Work-related wellbeing)

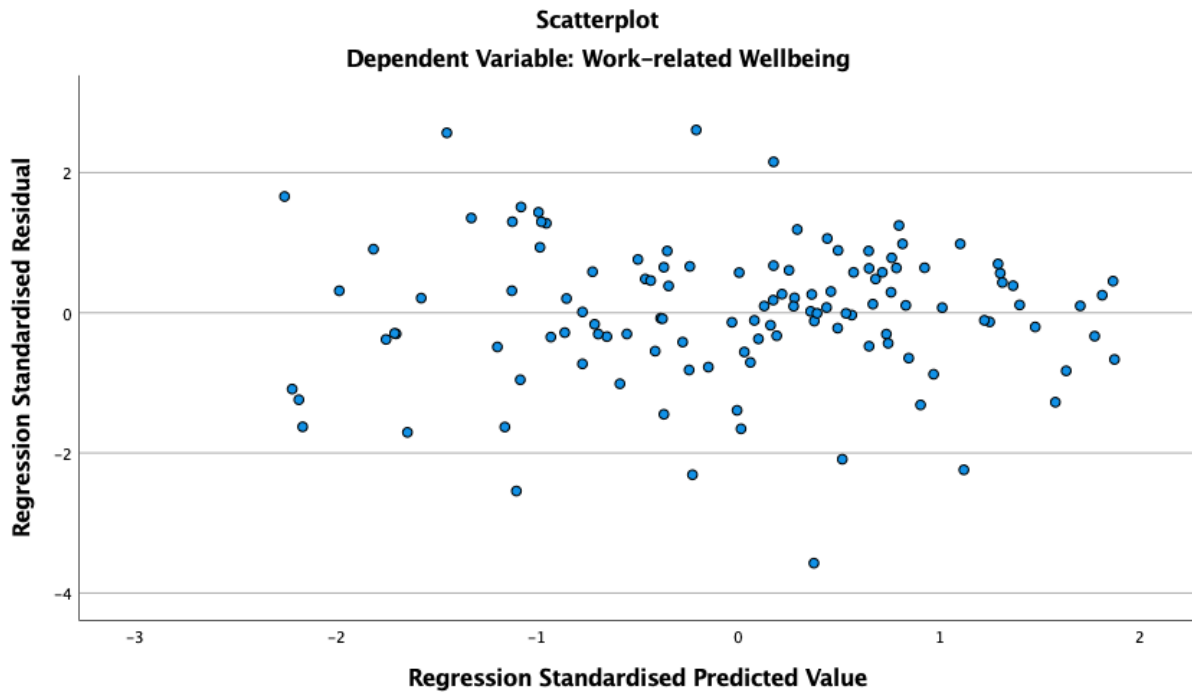


Figure 2

Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals of the Regression Model (Workplace Social Support predicting Work-related Wellbeing)

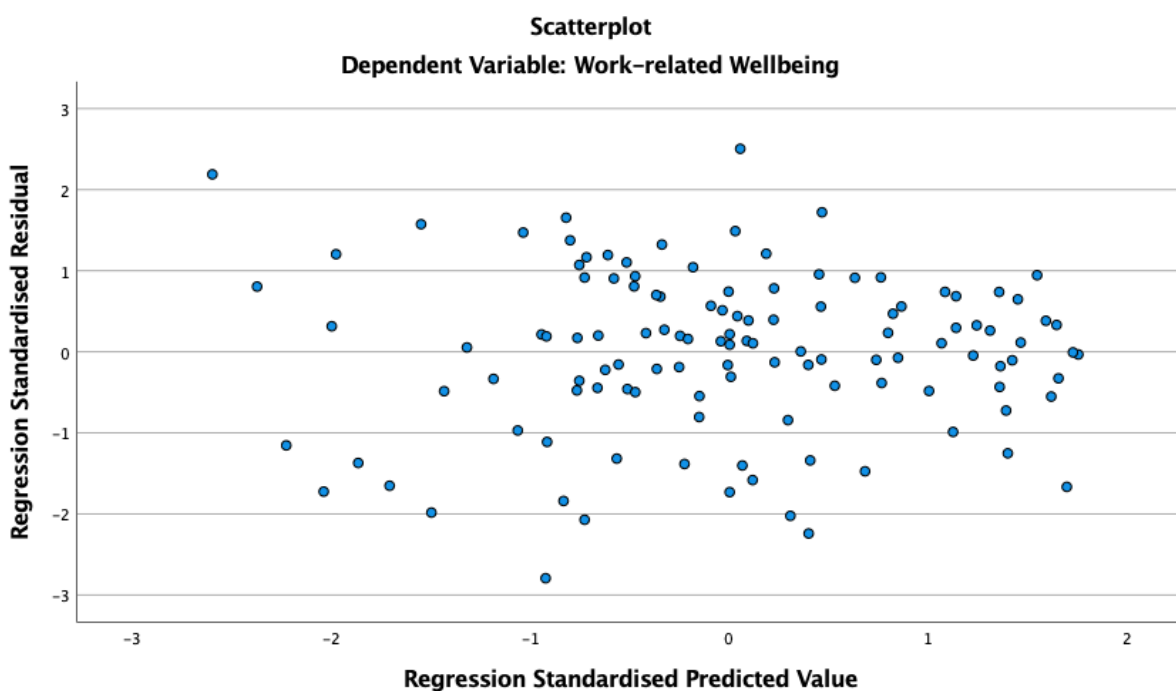
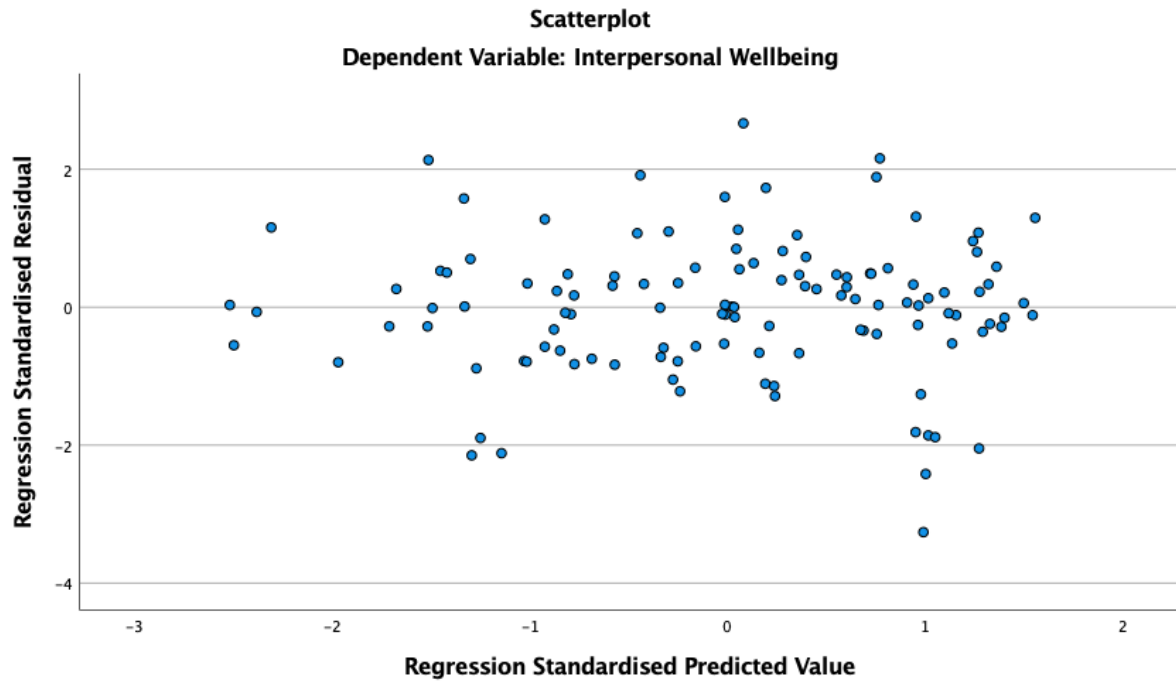
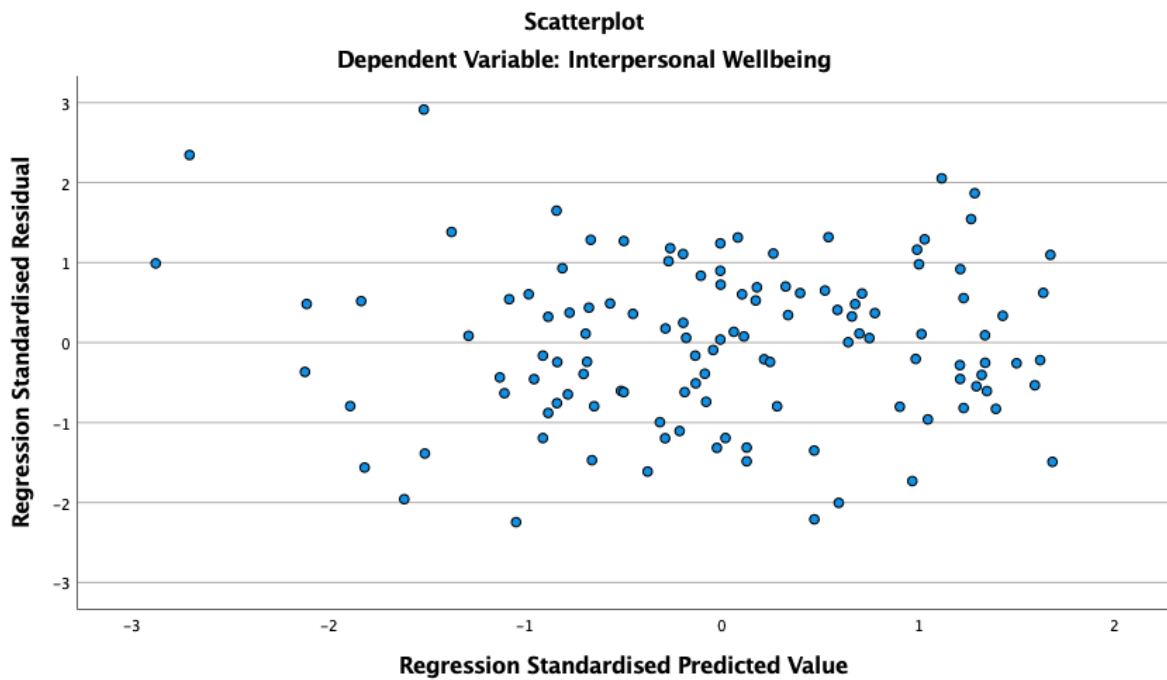


Figure 3

Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals of the Regression Model (Organisational Justice types predicting Interpersonal Wellbeing)

**Figure 4**

Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals of the Regression Model (Workplace Social Support types predicting Interpersonal Wellbeing)



Appendix J

Assumption of Normality

Figure 1

Normal P-P Plot of Normal Distributed Residuals for the Regression Model (Organisational Justice as predictors of Work-related wellbeing)

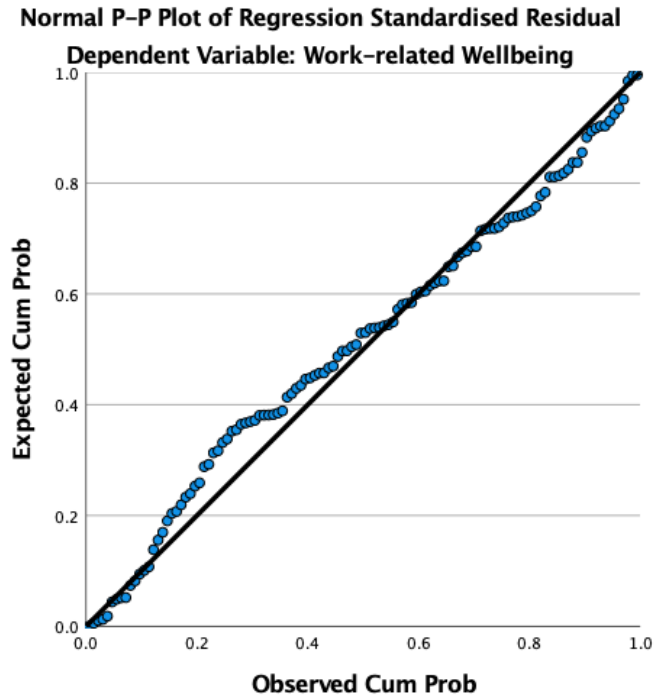


Figure 2

Normal P-P Plot of Normal Distributed Residuals for the Regression Model (Workplace Social Support as predictors of Work-related wellbeing)

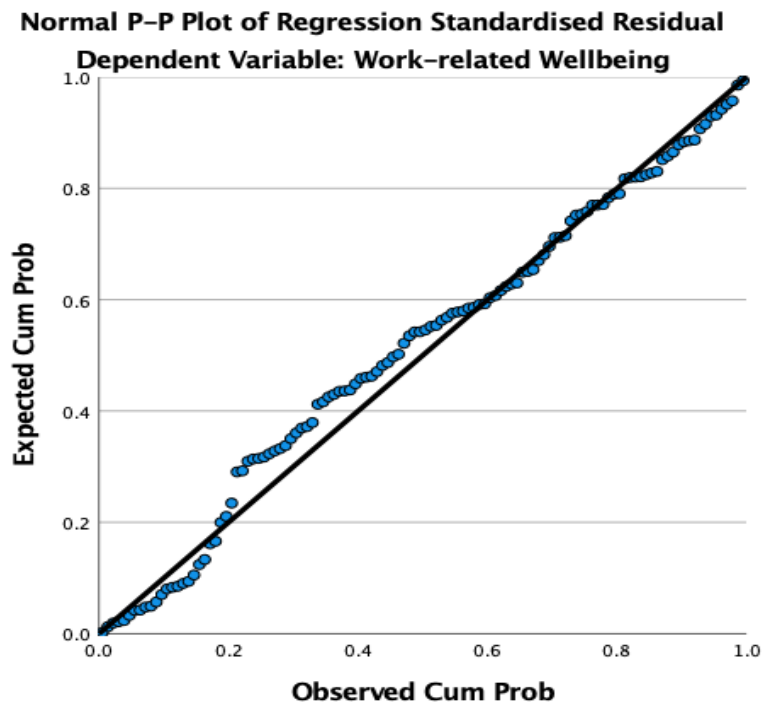
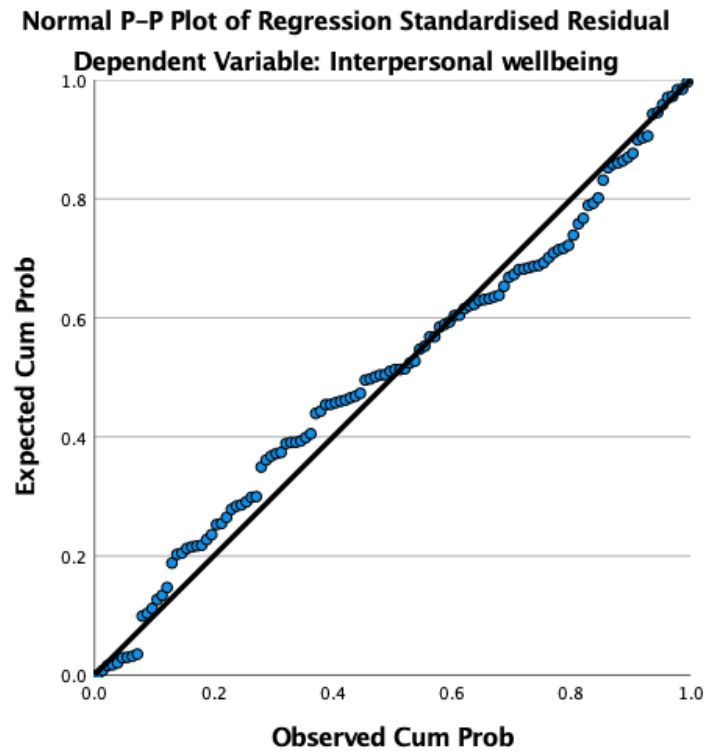
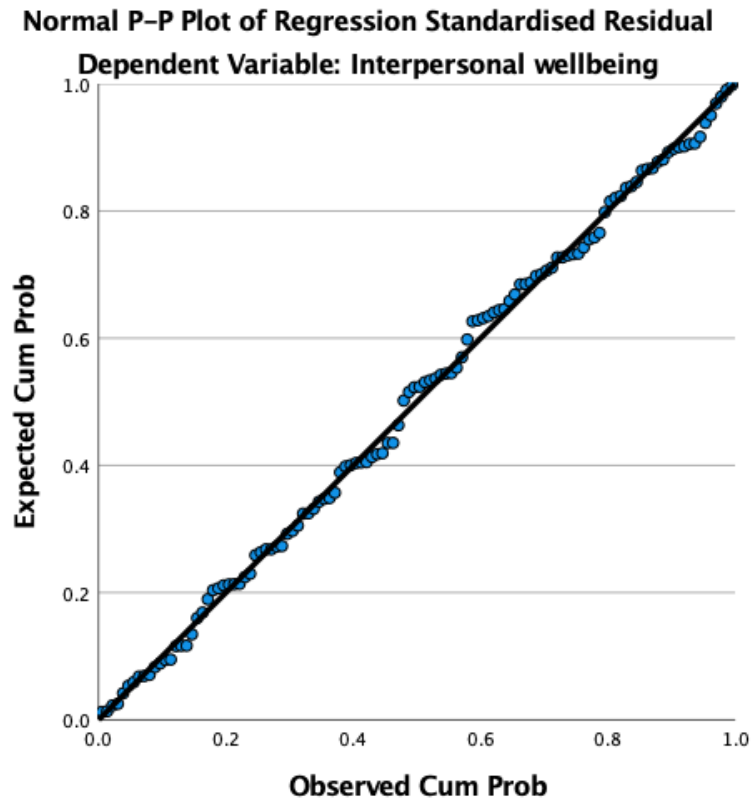


Figure 3

Normal P-P Plot of Normal Distributed Residuals for the Regression Model (Organisational Justice as predictors of Interpersonal wellbeing)

**Figure 4**

Normal P-P Plot of Normal Distributed Residuals for the Regression Model (Workplace Social Support as predictors of Interpersonal wellbeing)

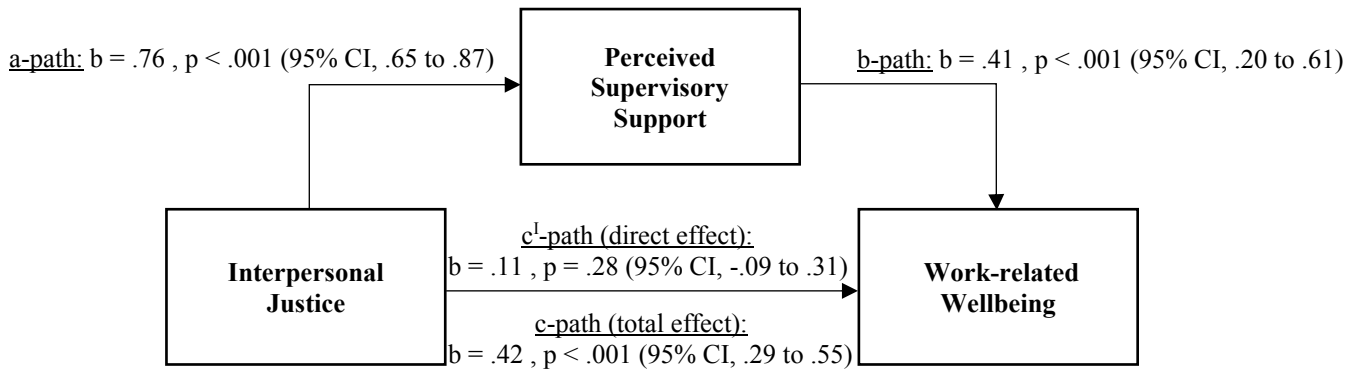


Appendix K

Mediation effects

Figure 1

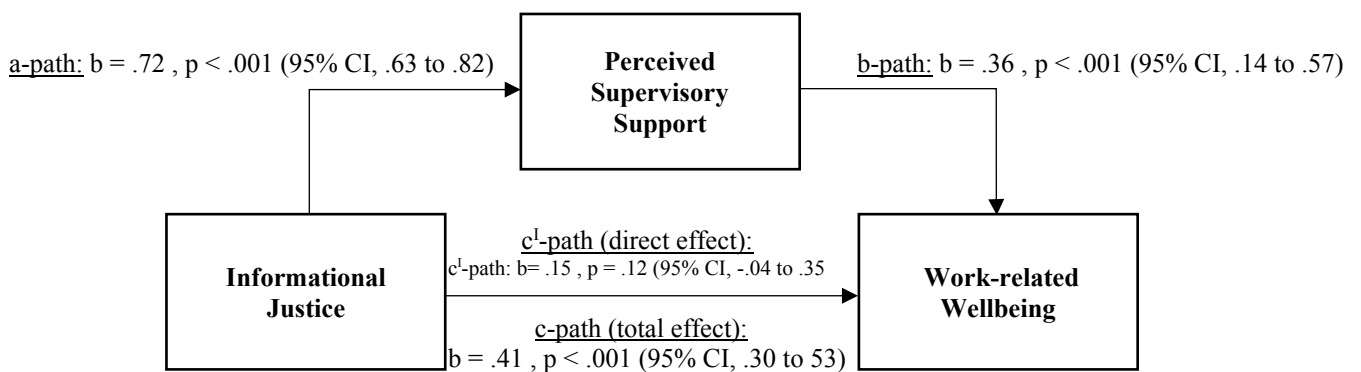
Model of Interpersonal Justice as predictor of Work-related Wellbeing, mediated by Perceived Supervisory Support.



Notes. ab-path (indirect effect): $b = .31$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .15 to .48)

Figure 2

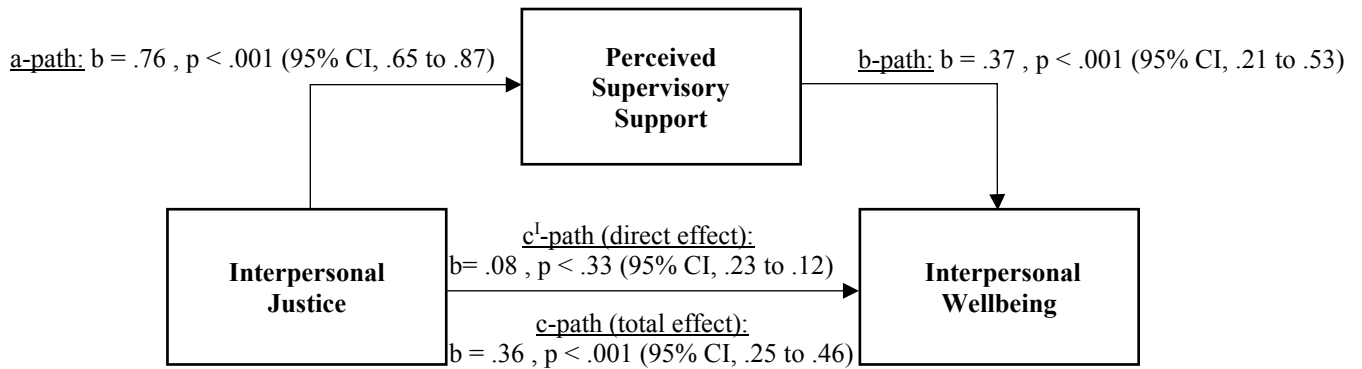
Model of Informational Justice as predictor of Work-related Wellbeing, mediated by Perceived Supervisory Support.



Notes. ab-path (indirect effect): $b = .26$, $p < .001$ (95% CI, .10 to .43)

Figure 3

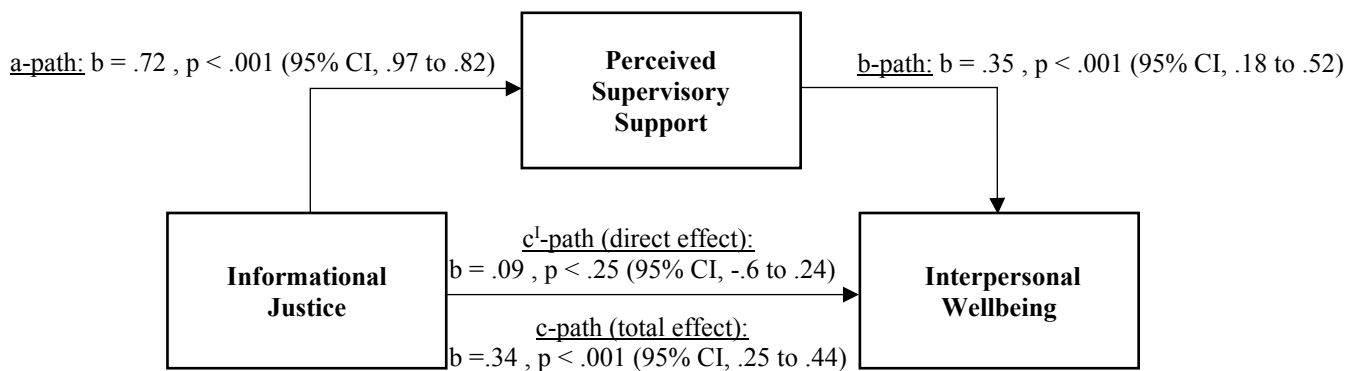
Model of Interpersonal Justice as predictor of Interpersonal Wellbeing, mediated by Perceived Supervisory Support.



Notes. ab-path (indirect effect): $b = .28, p < .001$ (95% CI, .16 to .43)

Figure 4

Model of Informational Justice as predictor of Interpersonal Wellbeing, mediated by Perceived Supervisory Support.



Notes. ab-path (indirect effect): $b = .25, p < .001$ (95% CI, .12 to .39)