

**THE IMPACT OF REMOTE AND HYBRID WORK AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-
BEING ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR: THE MODERATING
EFFECT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL**

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Declaration of Independent Work

I, Mothepane Seqhobane, identity number ##### and student number #####, hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the degree *DOCTOR OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT*, is my own independent work and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as with other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

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Summary

Remote and hybrid work have become prevalent modes of employment, accelerated by technological advancements and global events, notably the Covid-19 pandemic. This shift in the work landscape has raised questions about its impact on employees' psychological well-being and their organisational citizenship behaviour, which refers to discretionary actions that employees undertake to benefit their organisations. In addition, the role of psychological capital – a psychological resource characterised by resilience, optimism, hope, and self-efficacy – has garnered attention as a potential moderator in this relationship.

This study examined the effects of remote and hybrid work on employees' psychological health. The remote and hybrid work environment presents unique challenges such as isolation, blurred work-life boundaries, and communication difficulties. These challenges can impact an individual's psychological well-being, affecting their emotional, psychological, and social health. The study further delved into the relationship between psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour. Employees with higher levels of psychological well-being are more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour as they have the emotional and psychological resources to do so. However, it remains essential to investigate this association in the context of remote and hybrid work, which may introduce unique stressors.

The study was guided by objectivism and adhered to the positivist paradigm. A structured questionnaire was administered through QuestionPro, and 402 employed individuals completed the questionnaire. The respondents were targeted as part of the Central University of Technology, Free State's (CUT) Maccauvlei project. Informed consent was obtained from the respondents before the commencement of the study. The questionnaire was divided into five sections: (1) the respondents' demographics, (2) remote and hybrid work benefits and disadvantages, (3) intrapersonal and transpersonal well-being, (4) organisational citizenship behaviour, and (5) psychological capital. Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was used to analyse the relationship between the variables.

The findings of the study show that psychological well-being and psychological capital have a high predictive power towards organisational citizenship behaviour. Also, remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological capital have a high predictive power towards psychological well-being. Findings further indicate that psychological capital only has a positive moderating effect on the relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being. However, the psychological capital moderating effect indicated no effect on other tested relationships. In addition, findings show that the lower the level of psychological capital, the stronger the positive relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being. In contrast, the higher the level of psychological capital, the weaker the positive relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being.

This research has significant practical implications for organisations aiming to enhance employee well-being and foster organisational citizenship behaviour within remote and hybrid work settings. These implications include managers establishing trusting relationships with employees to facilitate open channels of communication, and employers leading by example, thereby setting a precedent and fostering an environment where going above and beyond is valued. Therefore, this study proposes targeted interventions such as fostering emotional awareness and social presence among employees. The study also contributes to the broader literature on remote and hybrid work, psychological well-being, and organisational citizenship behaviour by integrating the moderating role of psychological capital.

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List of acronyms

4IR	Fourth industrial revolution
AVE	Average variance extracted
CR	Composite reliability
CUT	Central University of Technology
HR	Human resource
HRM	Human resource management
HTMT	Heterotrait-monotrait ratio
PLS-SEM	Partial least squares structural equation modelling
ROI	Return on investment
RSPH	Royal society for public health
SDGs	Strategic development goals
US	United States
VIF	Variance inflation factor
WHO	World health organisation

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The advancement of Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) technologies (e.g., artificial intelligence) has contributed to shaping the new world of work. The contemporary workplace is characterised by various forms of digital technology that enable employees to work from anywhere and at any time (Fernandes, 2021). The internet and various 4IR technologies have completely changed how employees live and work. With the Covid-19 outbreak in early 2020, multiple organisations have transitioned to remote and hybrid work through the use of 4G and 5G wireless technology, as well as online applications like Zoom and Microsoft Teams (Mostafa, 2021).

The pandemic's detrimental disruption of all industries on a global scale has caused an upsurge in remote and hybrid work. Remote and hybrid work has become the new universal norm, necessitating organisations to adapt and change their operations to ensure sustainability. Remote working can be referred to as telecommuting, teleworking, flexible work, virtual work, distributed work or distance work, while hybrid working grants employees the flexibility to decide when to alternate working from home and the office (Fernandes, 2021).

Although it is an exciting prospect for those employees who seek flexibility, remote working can result in psychological well-being challenges for others (Grabarek, 2018). Russell (2019) states that working from home may lead to feelings of isolation and loneliness for employees, especially if they experience a lack of support from management and colleagues. Grabarek (2018) further argues that remote work has the potential to result in “no work boundaries”, poor communication and increased conflict leading to stress, depression and anxiety.

Compared to traditional employment, modern employees are expected to work in technologically advanced environments. This means the nature of jobs has changed from using predominantly manual approaches to performing jobs that are more psychologically and emotionally demanding (First, 2020). This can impact adversely on the psychological well-being of employees (Görgens-Ekermans & Herbert, 2013). Psychological well-being is a combination of experiencing positive emotions and

effective functioning (Fernandes, 2021); hence, LifeSpeak (2021) suggests that employers need to create work environments that not only encourage, but also support the psychological well-being of employees.

According to Cserháti (2020), an employee's psychological well-being has financial implications for employers as it can lead to higher staff turnover, lower employee morale, excessive sick leave, and reduced productivity and efficiency. However, they also note that positive organisational behaviour and enhanced levels of psychological capital can contribute positively to psychological well-being. Psychological capital is proposed as a higher-order construct that embodies four factors: (1) resilience (the ability to recover from challenges or failures); (2) hope (the motivation to succeed in a goal or task); (3) optimism (an individual's expectation for positive outcomes); and (4) self-efficacy (an individual's confidence in their ability to achieve something and overcome difficult challenges). Shihaam (2014) claims that psychological well-being can be enhanced by developing the psychological capital of employees. Therefore, this study focused on the factors that can potentially affect the work behaviour of employees, which include depression, anxiety, and stress associated with remote working and altered expectations.

Van Nistelrooij (2016) mentions that employees who feel they have psychological support have the potential to experience, among other things, enhanced organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour is defined as going above and beyond an individual's scope of work and includes actions such as: voluntarily taking on additional work responsibilities, contributing to the community, developing skills beneficial to the organisation, working overtime, adhering to organisational rules even when no one is watching, promoting and protecting the organisation, and having a positive attitude towards the organisation and its activities (Fajar & Soeling, 2017; Thiruvankadam & Durairaj, 2017).

Fernandes (2021) note that psychological challenges such as burnout can be avoided if managers help employees contribute positively to the organisation by enhancing organisational citizenship behaviour. They further state that employees who "go the extra mile" are often intrinsically motivated which, in turn, leads to increased job performance

and job satisfaction. However, high employer expectations towards employees might lead to unhealthy work–life balance and increased levels of stress (First, 2020).

This study supports South Africa's Strategic Development Goals (SDGs). Considering our national context, the research findings are expected to contribute towards the nation's "decent work and economic growth" goals. With regard to the 10-year national plan for sustainable consumption and production, the researcher expresses the hope that her findings on remote and hybrid work could help decouple economic growth from environmental degradation. Working remotely can assist businesses in reducing expenditures across various categories, including office space and supplies, work equipment, electricity, water, internet usage, and many more.

In addition, this study aims to defend employees' rights and aid organisations in fostering and maintaining secure workplaces. This will be accomplished through disseminating and providing organisations with verified information on the potential negative impacts of non-conducive working conditions on psychological health and the corresponding levels of distress. Furthermore, the study proposes recommendations on how employers can support remote and hybrid employees for improved psychological health and boost organisational citizenship behaviour of remote and hybrid employees. The researcher would like to persuade businesses to improve and modify organisational policies to accommodate remote work to help employees maintain a healthy work–life balance.

1.2 Previous research

Numerous authors have undertaken research on psychological well-being, organisational citizenship behaviour, and remote work before and after the Covid-19 pandemic. Prior to Covid-19, Allen, Golden, and Shockley (2015) concentrated on the effectiveness of telecommuting and its effect on employees. Their findings revealed a positive correlation between telecommuting, reduced physical activity and poor health consequences due to factors such as a lack of body movement. According to their research, a lack of body movement results in health challenges like excess weight gain, cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and premature mortality.

Also pre Covid, Lee (2018) examined the level of workplace engagement among remote employees. The results demonstrated that daily occurrences, such as a lack of

communication and decision making, have a significant influence on employee workplace engagement. These occurrences were more prevalent among remote employees due to reduced employer–employee communication and the “real time” advantages of the conventional face-to-face working environment. Lee (2018) also found that working remotely often resulted in a shortage of resources, frustration, inadequate decision making, a lack of contribution towards work schedules, and poor interaction – all of which erodes workplace engagement.

Similarly, Van Nistelrooij (2016) explored the association between work–home culture and organisational citizenship behaviour with the mediating role of work–family enrichment. The findings indicated a positive correlation between work–home culture and reduced levels of work–family conflict. For example, work–home culture hindrances such as working hours had no influence on organisational citizenship behaviour or work–family enrichment. This concurs with Lee (2018), who found a direct relationship between work–home culture support and organisational citizenship behaviour and an indirect relationship mediated by work–family enrichment.

With a focus on the intricacy of workplace embeddedness, Eddleston and Mulki (2017) investigated how remote workers manage their work–family boundaries. They identified a positive link between working remotely and the inability to disengage from work, showing a strong correlation between occupational stress and a person’s inability to disengage from work. The results also suggest that the inability to disconnect from work increases work–family conflict, though this was not significantly correlated with family–work conflict. This, in turn, implies that working from home could cause remote employees to overwork, interfering with family time.

The relationship between organisational silence and organisational citizenship behaviour was the subject of research by Acaray and Akturan (2015). The study revealed that the acquiescent and defensive components of organisational silence had a negative effect on organisational culture. These results imply that preventing employees from expressing opinions about their jobs causes a decrease in organisational citizenship behaviour. Crawford, MacCalman, and Jackson (2011) examined the health and welfare of remote and mobile personnel with an emphasis on musculoskeletal and psychological well-being. They concluded that musculoskeletal issues such as muscle pain faced by

remote employees were conclusively linked to psychological symptoms such as excessive work demands, poor time management, job instability, a lack of engagement with co-workers, and a sense of being overworked. Findings also revealed a moderate relationship between remote work and psychological well-being.

A survey was conducted by Rahimpour, Zahed, Khaleghkhah, and Sepehri (2011) to ascertain the association between corporate culture and organisational citizenship behaviour. They found a positive and significant correlation between organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational culture. Gupta, Shaheen, and Reddy (2017) performed research to establish the impact of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour, focusing on the mediating role of work engagement. They also found a positive and significant association between organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological capital.

Their results confirmed that employees with high psychological capital were more efficacious and positive, which encouraged them to engage in extra-role work behaviour. Gupta and colleagues further discovered a link between psychological capital and work engagement, substantiating the notion that employees with high psychological capital seem to be highly optimistic, confident, generous, helpful, efficacious, and resilient in the face of work challenges. The association between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour was positively mediated by work engagement, implying that employees exhibited organisational citizenship behaviours when actively engaged in their work.

Studies published during and after Covid-19 expanded on remote and hybrid work. Researchers like Butakhieo and Vyas (2020) focused on how working from home during Covid-19 affected work and personal domains among Hong Kong employees. Their results confirmed a positive link between remote work and increased levels of stress, burnout, job insecurity, anxiousness, and loneliness. To further comprehend how the pandemic altered the workplace, Cserháti (2020) investigated how the world of work was expected to evolve after the pandemic. Findings showed that employers and employees contemplated the expansion of remote work due to cost reduction, more global employment prospects, increased profit margins, increased flexibility, the ability to work from anywhere, and reduced commuting costs. Similarly, Al-Habaibeh, Watkins, Waried,

and Javareshk (2021) examined the challenges and opportunities of working remotely during the pandemic. They found that a lack of physical activity and working from home exacerbated loneliness. On the other hand, findings showed that remote workers saved money on travel expenses, which enhanced productivity but inhibited the establishment of good work–life boundaries.

During the pandemic Mostafa (2021) investigated how remote work affected employee well-being and work–life balance in Egypt and demonstrated a correlation between the advantages of working remotely, including increased flexibility, for improved personal and work–life integration. However, results showed that advantages such as flexibility arose at the expense of increased workload, longer hours, job instability, a loss of motivation, and a lack of collaboration with co-workers and team members. Moreover, psychological well-being was found to improve when employees worked from home with the aid of communication-enabled technology, which helped mitigate the consequences of feeling isolated and alienated from co-workers.

Bick, Blandin, and Mertens (2021) focused on the efficiency of working from home both before and after the pandemic. They identified that about 71.7% of remote workers were efficient and successful for only one month during the Covid-19 outbreak. Their findings further indicated that there was little correlation between post-crisis employment outcomes and working from home. In a similar vein, Wang, Liu, Qian, and Parker (2020) investigated the work design perspective with regard to how remote working could be efficiently deployed during the pandemic. Findings showed that the characteristics of virtual work were positively associated to employee performance and well-being through encountered difficulties. Particularly, social support was positively correlated with lower levels of remote working; job autonomy was negatively related to loneliness; workload and monitoring were both linked to higher work–home interferences, while self-discipline was a significant moderator of several of these relationships.

Oakman, Kinsman, Stuckey, Graham, and Weale (2020) assessed the effects of working from home on psychological and physical health, including how to optimise health. Results revealed a significant association between remote work and several health outcomes including pain, self-reported health, safety, well-being, stress, depression, fatigue, quality of life, strain, and happiness. The impact of health outcomes was strongly

influenced by the degree of colleague and organisational support available to employees, social integration, and levels of work–family conflict. Overall, women were found to be less likely to experience improved health outcomes when working from home.

Saxena and Gautam (2020) explored employee mental health amid Covid-19, particularly regarding stressors and distress. Their outcomes revealed a positive association between remote working and anxiety and stress. In a similar vein, Meyer, Zill, Dilba, Gerlach, and Schumann (2021) focused on demands, resources, and exhaustion to determine employee psychological well-being during the pandemic. Findings showed that the pandemic particularly affected working women as they experienced increased fatigue as childcare was not available. However, some of these effects were mitigated by job autonomy and partner support. The study concluded that the pandemic had a greater negative impact on women's psychological health than it did on men's.

Hybrid work has also become a new working paradigm post Covid-19. Trivedi and Patel (2022) examined the mining public opinion to determine public opinion about hybrid working. They found that most individuals displayed positive attitudes concerning the hybrid work arrangement. Another study, by Radonić, Vukmirović, and Milosavljević (2021), focused on the impact of hybrid workplace models on intangible assets, which include human, relational, structural and intellectual capital. They confirmed that the hybrid working paradigm had a favourable impact on the intangible assets of companies in the information and communications technology industry, which could propel the financial success of these companies. The findings suggest that hybrid working patterns, which are prevalent across many industries, would not jeopardise the development of intangible assets, which are the ultimate resource for contemporary businesses.

Likewise, Lenka (2021) conducted a study on the hybrid work model as the future of remote work. Results showed a positive correspondence between hybrid work and efficient work operations, enhanced performance, motivation, employee engagement, and improved teamwork. In an effort to comprehensively unpack the concept of hybrid work, Choudhury, Khanna, Makridis, and Schirmann (2021) conducted a study entitled “Is hybrid work the best of both worlds? Evidence from a field of experiment”. They found

that working an intermediate number of days increases the quantity and novelty of work products produced, as well as the number of emails sent and received. The findings also propose that hybrid work may indeed offer employees the “best of both worlds”, providing them a greater work–life balance, without the concern of being isolated from colleagues.

In contrast to research done before Covid-19, Ellingrud (2021) found that the prevalence of remote work was substantially higher post Covid-19. The study indicated that 75% of employees wanted to work in both hybrid and remote work arrangements after Covid-19, and 70% of employees indicated that the opportunity to work remotely for at least two to three days per week had become a prerequisite when choosing a job. Furthermore, 72% of chief executive officers claimed that their companies had implemented a long-term remote working model beneficial for their employees (First, 2020). Research by Adekoya, Adisa, and Aiyenitaju (2022) demonstrated that, through remote working, some employees have developed leadership qualities, learnt self-discipline, and devised more efficient and flexible ways to complete tasks.

1.3 Background to the problem

According to Baker (2021), multiple organisations have adopted and embraced remote and hybrid work arrangements as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic. This had a substantial impact on work outcomes and employee organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour is considered a key determinant of organisational success and is influenced by various factors, including work arrangements and employee psychological capital. McGinnis (2020) explains psychological capital as an individual’s positive psychological state of development that includes four dimensions: self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience. According to Shihaam (2014), these dimensions have been found to promote positive work outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance, and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Remote and hybrid work may reduce an employee’s sense of belonging, social support, and communication opportunities, which, in turn, may negatively impact their organisational citizenship behaviour (BusinessTech, 2020). In contrast, employees with high levels of psychological capital may be more resilient to these challenges and more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour despite the limitations of remote and hybrid work. For example, employees with high levels of self-efficacy may be more

proactive in finding ways to support their colleagues and the organisation, even in a virtual environment. Baker (2021) affirms that employees with high levels of psychological capital may be more motivated to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour due to the perceived benefits of such behaviours, including increased job satisfaction and career opportunities. Positive organisational citizenship behaviour may also improve other aspects of the workplace, such as creativity and productivity, consequently enhancing organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.4. Problem statement

The prominence of remote and hybrid work has increased significantly driven by the prevalence of 4IR technologies and the Covid-19 pandemic. This, together with psychological well-being, can have an impact on the organisational citizenship behaviour of employees (Oakman et al., 2020). By considering the moderating effect of psychological capital, the main objective of this study was to ascertain the effects of remote and hybrid work on employee psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour. The findings of this study are expected to provide valuable insights for organisations and managers to design effective policies and practices that promote employee well-being and enhance organisational citizenship behaviour in remote and hybrid work settings.

1.4.1 Main research question

What is the impact of remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being on organisational citizenship behaviour, and to what extent does psychological capital moderate this relationship?

1.4.2 Subsidiary research questions

1. What is the relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being?
2. What is the relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being?
3. What is the relationship between psychological capital and psychological well-being?
4. What is the relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour?

5. What is the relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and organisational citizenship behaviour?
6. What is the relationship between psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour?
7. What is the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour?
8. To what extent does psychological capital moderate the relationship between:
 - a) Remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being?
 - b) Remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being?
 - c) Remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour?
 - d) Remote and hybrid work disadvantages and organisational citizenship behaviour?
 - e) Psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour?
9. What recommendations can enhance psychological well-being, organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological capital in remote and hybrid work settings?

1.4.3 *Main objective*

The main objective of this study was to determine the impact of remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being on organisational citizenship behaviour by considering the moderating effect of psychological capital.

1.4.4 *Subsidiary objectives*

1. To determine the relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being.
2. To determine the relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being.
3. To determine the relationship between psychological capital and psychological well-being.
4. To determine the relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour.
5. To determine the relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and organisational citizenship behaviour.

6. To determine the relationship between psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour.
7. To determine the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour.
8. To determine the extent to which psychological capital moderates the relationship between:
 - a) Remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being.
 - b) Remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being.
 - c) Remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour.
 - d) Remote and hybrid work disadvantages and organisational citizenship behaviour.
 - e) Psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour.
9. To make recommendations on how psychological well-being, organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological capital can be enhanced in remote and hybrid work settings.

1.4.5 *Research hypotheses*

- H₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being.
- H₂: There is a statistically significant relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being.
- H₃: There is a statistically significant relationship between psychological capital and psychological well-being.
- H₄: There is a statistically significant relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour.
- H₅: There is a statistically significant relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and organisational citizenship behaviour.
- H₆: There is a statistically significant relationship between psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour.
- H₇: There is a statistically significant relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour.
- H₈: There is a statistically significant moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between:
 - a) Remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being.

- b) Remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being.
- c) Remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour.
- d) Remote and hybrid work disadvantages and organisational citizenship behaviour.
- e) Psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.4.6 Aim

The aim of the study was to contribute both theoretically and empirically towards enhancing psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour in a post-Covid-19 world.

1.5 Research philosophy/paradigm

Research philosophy is about the way in which data about a phenomenon should be gathered, examined, and used. Assumptions are tentative statements of reasoning, yet they are founded on the philosopher's knowledge and insights. Research philosophy guides the researcher's knowledge development in a particular field, including data collection and analysis (Eriksson & Petrosian, 2020). A research paradigm helps to define a research philosophy. A paradigm is a system of beliefs, or worldviews, employed by the researcher to produce knowledge. It is a collection of presumptions, research methods, and standards of rigour that are accepted as common knowledge. A paradigm represents the philosophical stance of the researcher, which underpins the ontology, epistemology, and research methodologies to be applied (Zarah, 2020).

Ontology is the study of "being" and raises fundamental concerns regarding the nature of reality and the nature of human beings in the world. It is concerned with what exists and what can be learnt about reality (Eriksson & Petrosian, 2020). Epistemology deals with the nature of knowledge aimed at making sense of the world (Singh, 2019). The researcher's ontological position for this study was objectivism, which maintains that certain phenomena exist independently of human knowledge or perception. Objectivism is the belief that reality exists independently of consciousness. (Žukauskas, Vveinhardt, & Andriukaitienė, 2018). The study further adhered to the positivist epistemological stance, which asserts that only facts derived from the scientific method can make legitimate knowledge claims (Cheung, 2019).

1.7 Ethical considerations

Ethics are crucial to research and impact all participants in a study. A researcher must conduct themselves honourably and uphold the moral standards and professional norms of ethical research (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis, & Bezuidenhout, 2014). In research ethics, it is important to consider whether a researcher's actions adhere to a set of moral standards or principles (Cheung, 2019) (see Annexure A).

In this study, the following ethical considerations were adhered to:

- Participants were formally informed that they were taking part in a research study and received clear explanations as to what was required of them during their participation and how results would be used.
- No harm was caused to the research participants.
- Confidentiality was maintained during the research proceedings.
- Participants were not deceived in any way.
- All participants were informed of what the research was about and what the researcher sought to establish with the study (Kumar, 2014).

1.8 Significance of the study

This study revealed whether remote and hybrid work benefits and disadvantages and psychological well-being (intrapersonal and transpersonal) have an influence on employee organisational citizenship behaviour. In addition, the study determined whether psychological capital has any moderating effect between remote and hybrid work benefits and disadvantages, psychological well-being (intrapersonal and transpersonal), and organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.9 Study challenges

The researcher faced a few challenges in conducting this study. First, it was a laborious task to obtain the participants of the required number of respondents. Some respondents expressed no interest in taking part in the questionnaire, while some did attempt to complete it on QuestionPro, but abandoned it before submitting. Moreover, most organisations rejected the researcher's request for employees to partake in the questionnaire, while some respondents indicated that they did not have time to fill in a questionnaire.

1.10 Thematic overview

The variables included in this study were remote and hybrid work, psychological health, organisational citizenship behaviour, and psychological capital. The chapter division of this thesis reflects these variables.

Chapter 1 includes a basic overview of the study, outlining the background, aim, objectives, research questions, research methodology, and ethical considerations. Chapters 2 to 4 covers the literature review to provide a deeper comprehension of the abovementioned variables. Therefore, these literature chapters discuss remote working and psychological well-being, as well as organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological capital.

Chapter 2 defines remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being. Employer and employee benefits associated with remote and hybrid work and challenges experienced by employees and teams are also detailed. Further insight is provided on employee responsibilities related to remote and hybrid work to ensure adequate health, along with employer strategies to support remote and hybrid work. Additional discussions address psychological well-being in the context of remote and hybrid work, the characteristics of intrapersonal and transpersonal well-being, and work-related causes of psychological well-being. The chapter also explains the promotion of employee health in the workplace, as well as the benefits of a healthy workforce. Other topics include factors influencing psychological well-being such as how human resource management (HRM) can positively influence adequate employee health.

Chapter 3 defines organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological capital and critically discusses aspects such as individual and organisational levels of organisational citizenship behaviour, dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour, and the relationship between social loafing and organisational citizenship behaviour. Further insight is provided on HR practices for improved organisational citizenship behaviour, as well as on the interrelationship between psychological capital and positive psychology. This chapter also explains different psychological constructs and delineates the association between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. Lastly, the study's theoretical and conceptual framework is addressed.

Chapter 4 presents the methodology adopted in the study. The discussion includes aspects such as the research philosophy/paradigm, research approach/design, and the study population. Additional comments are provided on the data collection process, data collection procedure followed by the researcher, and the reliability and validity assurance of the study. The chapter explains how the data were analysed and discusses the pilot study that was conducted to ensure the feasibility and effectiveness of the research methods.

In chapter 5, the data analyses are discussed, and the findings are provided. Chapter 6 presents the conclusions based on the analysis of the findings and recommendations pertaining to the psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour of remote and hybrid workers.

1.11 Summary

This chapter provided an outline of the research undertaken in this study. It included a detailed introduction, background to the study, previous research in the field, the problem statement, as well as the objectives and aim of the study. The chapter further provided an overview of the research methodology, ethical considerations, study significance and limitations, as well as the chapter division of the thesis.

CHAPTER 2: CONTEXTUALISING REMOTE AND HYBRID WORK AND THE NEED FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

2.1 Introduction

According to Al-Rfou (2021), 81% of the global workforce experienced workplace changes as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic. Therefore, organisations should continuously find ways to mitigate risk and reduce resistance to change, as noted by researchers like Savić (2020). Change is a central aspect of human existence that can elicit fundamental human responses, such as anxiety or depression (Bailey & Raelin, 2015). The pandemic created numerous changes and challenges such as unprecedented job losses, increased health concerns, restraints on professional advancement, and a higher prevalence of remote and hybrid work (Mostafa, 2021). Remote and hybrid work, which allows employees to work outside of traditional office settings, has become increasingly popular. While these work arrangements offer several benefits, such as flexibility and reduced commute times, they can also present challenges to the psychological well-being of employees.

Many organisations in both private and public sectors have embraced remote and hybrid work paradigms as an effective, long-term corporate strategy and method of doing business post Covid-19 (Ellingrud, 2021). Most businesses have started preparing for remote and hybrid work, as well as the complexities of how to combine remote and office employment more permanently (Bailey & Raelin, 2015). According to research by Ellingrud (2021) across different sectors, 68% of employers indicated that employees should be in the office at least three times a week in order to retain a distinct company culture, whereas 55% of employees would prefer to be remote at least three days a week. However, 87% of employees view office employment as important for building relationships and collaborating with team members.

This chapter will explain the concepts of remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being. It will outline the advantages of remote and hybrid work for both employees and employers, including challenges experienced by remote and hybrid employees and teams. The chapter will unpack employee responsibilities related to remote and hybrid work with the aim of promoting good health. Employer strategies to assist remote and hybrid workers to ensure good health and efficiency in service delivery will also be

discussed. Psychological well-being in the context of remote and hybrid work will be alluded to as well.

Literature will be presented on the characteristics of intrapersonal and transpersonal well-being, including the work-related causes of poor psychological well-being. Discussions will cover strategies for promoting employee health and well-being within the organisation, along with the benefits associated with a healthy workforce. The chapter will further allude to factors that contribute to employee psychological well-being, as well as how HRM can improve employee health.

2.2 Explaining remote and hybrid work

Remote working is explained as a flexible work arrangement that allows employees to work from home away from their central offices, whereas hybrid working is an approach that allows employees to work between the office and home according to their desired needs. With remote working, employees do not have physical contact with their colleagues but an online connection through 4IR technological innovations (Janza, 2021).

An engineer, Jack Nilles, is believed to have coined the term “remote working” in the 1970s during the oil crisis in the United States (US) to refer to employees working from home. Many companies have subsequently used remote working while addressing internal workforce challenges. In the 1980s remote working became a way of helping employees manage and balance work and family responsibilities. It became more prolific as technology advanced through recent decades (Janza, 2021).

With more businesses embracing remote and hybrid working pre and post-Covid-19, the concept of the traditional and physical office has become obsolete (Al-Rfou, 2021). However, remote working was not common practice in some parts of the world. For example, reports on South Africa indicate that only 21% of professionals worked from home before the pandemic, with the number increasing to 79% after the pandemic. In many European countries only 5% of employees worked from home prior to the pandemic, with an increase to more than 50% after the pandemic (Fernandes, 2021; McCarthy, 2021). On the other hand, US employees were already familiar with the

remote working concept, with about 3.9 million employees working from home before the pandemic (Wang *et al.*, 2020).

Similarly, multiple industries are moving towards hybrid work. Chamorro-Premuzic and Berg (2021) found that the organisations in their study developed a distinctive hybrid model appropriate for their employee needs. Rozentals (2022) also asserts that a successful hybrid model requires commitment from executive members, efficient communication, as well as policies and procedures that govern the arrangement. As Simpkins and Bhatnagar (2022) claim, a hybrid model offers autonomy, work–life balance, and improved physical and psychological health.

A case in point is the Credit Suisse bank which collapsed due to a lack of consideration for its employee needs, such as well-being and work–life balance, by adopting a traditional work culture and requiring that employees go to the office (Tsipursky, 2023). This led to low morale, a lack of flexibility, elevated stress levels, and high turnover rates. Consequently, the organisation lost talented employees to competitors that embraced remote and hybrid work.

Turner and Baker (2022) state that collaboration is one of the critical components of a successful hybrid work culture, while Beno (2021) is of the opinion that organisations must embrace hybrid work, promote collaboration, and foster an engaging workplace environment for all employees. Likewise, Saxena and Gautam (2020) affirm that organisational leaders have a responsibility to nurture and shape a positive organisational culture to address issues like inclusion, especially if employees are working from home.

Encouraging a culture that recognises remote and hybrid work as beneficial has the ability to boost employee and team creativity, satisfaction, and collaboration. Chamorro-Premuzic and Berg (2021) explain that organisational leaders can strengthen organisational culture by creating a digital workplace that enables all employees to collaborate from any location. A digital workspace may reduce feelings of isolation, uncertainty and promote fairness, consequently enhancing cooperation between remote and home-based employees.

Three different types of hybrid models have been set out by Brower (2021): (1) the split-week model, which permits employees to work from home two to three days a week and two to three days at the office; (2) shift employment, which permits employees to work a morning shift at home and an afternoon shift at the workplace, or vice versa; and 3) week-by-week, which permits employees to eventually split their time between working from home and in the office on a weekly basis.

2.3 Remote and hybrid work benefits

As noted by Hafermalz and Riemer (2021), both employers and employees can benefit from remote working. Employers experience a broader spectrum of recruitment because there are no geographical limits to potential talent. They save on organisational costs such as rent, electricity, building maintenance, computer systems, and many more. Furthermore, leave applications decrease, while the chances of employee retention increase. On the other hand, employees gain flexibility, and full pay checks, and are likely to be happier. They experience autonomy and have full control of the environment in which they work, for example, humidity, air, lighting, or room temperature. Moreover, both employers and employees save on commuting costs (Turner & Baker, 2022).

2.4 Remote and hybrid work challenges for employees

Many challenges and changes have emanated from the Covid-19 global crisis. HR professionals have been tasked with the responsibility of addressing and mitigating these challenges, which involve employees, work processes, and work arrangements such as remote working (Nyberg, Shaw, & Zhu, 2021). According to Janza (2021), some challenges concerned with remote work include increased electricity bills at home, a lack of digital skills to work from home, a lack of team-building opportunities and insufficient network opportunities. Additional challenges listed by Jacks (2021) will be discussed below, namely managing own schedule and time, the blurred line between personal and professional life, distractions, reduced supervision and direction, social isolation, working in pyjamas, and a lack of motivation and long-term vision.

Managing own schedule: One of the numerous difficulties experienced by remote workers is managing their own time and schedule. Managing time and schedule is defined as the capacity to effectively and efficiently allocate time between daily, weekly, or monthly activities (Davis, 2021). Al-Habaibeh *et al.* (2021) claim that, although remote

workers are at liberty to arrange their work-related activities and regulate their working hours, they are prone to mismanaging this time. For instance, a lunch hour can extend to two or three hours. Thus, Grabarek (2018) notes that the idea of “regular working hours” remains a prominent business practice for most organisations worldwide. “Regular working hours” is an effective time management tool that aids in establishing personal and professional boundaries. Time management and a comprehensive work schedule ensure sufficient time to attain work tasks, improve the quality of work, and minimise multitasking. Furthermore, without effective time management, many employees are prone to pursue personal interests and work fewer hours than what is required by the employer. They might frequently postpone work, thus creating personal and professional conflict (Gifford, 2022).

Blurred lines between personal and professional life: Another difficulty noted by Gibbs, Mengel, and Siemroth (2021) is the blurred line between personal and professional life. This alludes to a particular way of thinking regarding the distinction between work and personal life. Gaskell (2020) argues that employees are more prone to experience high levels of stress when they do not have personal and professional boundaries in place. Gibbs *et al.* (2021) claim that there is no psychological division between work and personal space for remote workers, which contributes to employees’ missing critical work deadlines.

Gaskell (2020) contends that home should ideally be a space where employees are able to unwind, feel comfortable, and have security. They should be able to unconsciously relax and experience psychological ease. According to research by Janza (2021), some remote workers claim they are never “off the job”. In other words, they constantly check their emails or feel pressure to complete “just one last thing”. Research by the Royal Society for Public Health (RSPH, 2022) revealed comparable findings: 56% of remote workers indicated that they find it extremely difficult to “break off” from work.

Distractions: A distraction is defined as something that prevents an individual from concentrating on something else. Some remote workers may experience slowed productivity because of unplanned or unwelcome home distractions such as television, favourite books, laundry and dirty dishes. This, in turn, could decrease employee production and increase workload. According to Nyberg *et al.* (2021), family

interruptions, particularly children, is another potential distraction when working from home. Snow (2021) asserts that remote workers can avoid auditory distractions like children's noise or television sound from the adjacent room by using noise-cancelling headphones when working. Because of such distractions, it is crucial that family members respect employee work hours at home just as much as they would at the office, and that employees establish and uphold a clear boundary separating work and personal life.

Reduced supervision: Reduced supervision is a challenge for some remote employees (Toniolo-Barrios & Pitt, 2021). Even though many employees frequently complain about the supervision by management, it plays a vital role in guiding task completion and establishing deadlines. Employee supervision benefits both managers and employees because it motivates the latter to exercise greater discipline in carrying out their duties and enables management to provide employees with meaningful feedback on job tasks (Toniolo-Barrios & Pitt, 2021).

According to Toniolo-Barrios and Pitt's (2021) analysis, employees working from home receive less managerial supervision than they would at the office. This could lead to job challenges such as difficulties in completing tasks on time. Parker, Knight, and Keller (2020) found that 29% of managers questioned whether employees have the required knowledge to do their jobs from home, whereas 27% were of the opinion that their employees lack essential skills to properly execute their jobs from home. According to this study, male managers seem to have little trust in their employees than female managers. For instance, 15% of female managers indicated that they lack confidence in their remote employees, whereas 36% of male managers had little trust in the skills of their remote employees.

Social isolation and loneliness: Toniolo-Barrios and Pitt (2021) mention social isolation and loneliness as a challenge that cannot be ignored. Social isolation refers to a lack of regular social contact with other people, while loneliness involves the frustrating and distressing feelings of being alone. These terms are used interchangeably because loneliness can develop from isolation. Isolation and loneliness can be experienced differently by different people (Novotney, 2019; Staglin, 2020). Scott (2021) explains that humans are social beings that need to engage with other people from time to time.

However, the impact of Covid-19 has isolated individuals from external social life. A study by Davis (2021) identified that 20% of remote employees saw loneliness as one of the biggest challenges that comes with working from home.

Being at the office brings about amusing moments for employees such as humour and laughter. However, working from home takes away the social aspect of the workday, leading to psychological frustrations. The lack of interaction with employees often causes feelings of detachment that harms the company culture, especially if employees feel disconnected from the office. This often results in employee dissatisfaction, a lack of engagement, and an increased turnover rate (Robertson, 2022). Technological innovations such as Zoom have made remote work more interactive; nonetheless, it remains distinctly different from face-to-face interactions. For instance, a receptionist in a front-line office engages with people all day and when working from home, they might experience social frustrations.

Working in pyjamas: Snow (2021) notes that working in pyjamas is a challenge that many remote workers are not aware of at first. Working in pyjamas is a convenient practice for some employees because they can avoid the need to wake up early for a bath or to dress up for the office day. However, Bansal (2020) found that working in pyjamas leads to poor psychological well-being, which ultimately hinders employee performance. In their study, Adam and Galinsky (2012) identified a connection between attire, brain activity, and employee performance and that employee performance can be enhanced by dressing appropriately for work. They also found that wearing clothing with “symbolic meaning” enhances job performance. For instance, doctors work more effectively when dressed in laboratory coats.

In the study by Bansal (2020), 26% of remote workers who were appropriately dressed for work reported improved job performance and a positive psychological state. Meanwhile, 59% of those who were working in their pyjamas reported experiencing negative psychological well-being. Similarly, Adam and Galinsky (2012) point out that working in pyjamas is not advised for remote workers, particularly because most individuals associate pyjamas with sleep. As concluded by Scott (2021), taking a bath and feeling clean increases most people’s professionalism and performance.

Lack of motivation and long-term vision: Davis (2021) identifies a lack of motivation and long-term vision as a challenge to remote workers. A lack of motivation refers to individuals without the passion, desire, or willingness to work. It is associated with poor psychological well-being and could lead to depression. On the other hand, the absence of a long-term vision refers to individuals lacking future goals or aspirations. Many times, being among co-workers who are career-driven, ambitious, and passionate rubs off on some employees, who are consequently more likely to be motivated and inspired. However, working from home eliminates the presence of colleagues; thus, some individuals may grow complacent, become demotivated, and underperform. Parker *et al.* (2020) found that 41% of managers do not believe that remote workers will remain motivated over the long term. Davis (2021) concurs by stating that unmotivated workers have little desire to develop and grow their profession.

2.5 Challenges for remote and hybrid teams

The challenges of remote teams pertain to those that the teams experience when working together on a task or project from different locations or remote work environments. Some of these challenges include communication, project management, team collaboration, different locations, language and cultural differences, and building and maintaining trust. These challenges will be discussed below.

Communication: Communication is a common key challenge in most work settings, especially for remote teams. Communication is about exchanging information with other individuals through spoken or written mediums (Makarova, 2021). There are two major forms of communication: verbal and physical (Alvi, 2017). Verbal communication includes the most prevalent kind of communication, namely the use of words to express ideas, whereas physical communication comprises gestures and the eyes for observation. Physical communication often provides visual indications that aid in deciphering another individual's communication preferences and limits. According to Gaskell (2020), body language and the tone in which a message is conveyed are crucial because they can lead to misunderstandings that result in problems like conflict.

Nydegger and Nydegger (2008) note that, even though remote teams encounter a variety of challenges like technical difficulties (e.g., slow internet) or interpersonal conflicts, poor communication remains prominent. Poor communication has the potential

to create feelings of exclusion from the team, affecting corporate culture, willingness to participate, and employee morale. Moreover, Quintana (2020) found that most managers micromanage their remote teams, which demonstrates a lack of trust, minimises autonomy, and discourages critical thinking on the job. This is an unfavourable practice that might result in escalated turnover rates.

Aguilar and Kosheleva (2021) suggest that the effectiveness of remote teams can be improved by appointing a trusted and respected leader to develop an efficient communication plan that addresses issues such as team participation in meetings, planning and individual tasks. The leader should also develop an effective communication platform for all members to prevent misunderstandings. In addition, it is crucial to establish sub-teams within the team according to the project or task at hand (Aguilar & Kosheleva, 2021). This team structure should promote thorough communication, effective workflow, and timely task completion.

Managing team projects: McCarthy (2021) identified managing team projects as another challenge faced by remote teams. Team projects refer to tasks assigned by managers or leaders to team members with the expectation of completion within a specified period. Team projects are often difficult to undertake and complete on schedule when team members are dispersed across different locations. This is due to problems including different time zones, discrepancies in work ethics, or a lack of interpersonal connections. Larson, Vroman, and Makarius (2020) explain that managers and team leaders have a duty to ensure that all team members are on schedule with work. However, given the limitations, it may be challenging to oversee each team member or monitor their individual performance on assigned duties.

Remote collaboration: Fernandes (2021) found remote collaboration to be a critical challenge. Remote collaboration can be seen as a platform where team members unite virtually with the intention of achieving a common goal. It facilitates communication and productivity among a dispersed team of employees. Remote collaboration improves team interaction and problem-solving techniques, encourages knowledge and skills sharing, initiates goal alignment, and stimulates team engagement.

However, remote collaboration can result in a lack of social interaction and employee contribution, and encourage groupthink. Adekoya *et al.* (2022) highlight that empathy and support are essential components of a productive team collaboration and are critical for a comprehensive understanding among team members. Makarova (2021) adds the need of psychological safety when working in a team, particularly because some team members may interpret constructive criticism negatively, whereas others might refuse to accept responsibility and acknowledge mistakes.

Different locations: Brooks (2021) notes that working from various locations can be a challenge for remote workers. However, the success and well-being of each team member depends on the manager's ability to successfully manage the team. Therefore, managers should foster a culture of trust within the team, delegate frequently, manage diversity constructively, be knowledgeable about and sensitive to the perspectives of team members, listen intently, value each team member, and always recognise team success. It is critical that team members understand their worth and appreciation.

On the other hand, Eddleston and Mulki (2017) found that a geographically dispersed team is advantageous to the employer because it saves money on expenses such as office rent and electricity bills.

Language and cultural differences: Language and cultural differences constitute another challenge (Quintana, 2020). Quintana (2020) defines language difference as the ability to speak another language, while cultural differences refer to distinctive ideas, attitudes, behaviours, practices, and expressions that are thought to be unique to individuals of a particular ethnicity. Since remote work makes it possible for talent to be sourced from anywhere, a team is most likely to consist of a diversified group of individuals from various backgrounds who speak different languages. Diversity in a team incorporates members with a range of characteristics regarding gender, religion, age, ethnicity, education, and many other attributes (Meyer *et al.*, 2021).

Rampton (2019) recons that a diversified team can be beneficial because it allows for different and meaningful perspectives, better problem-solving strategies, and innovative ideas. However, within a team with members from diverse cultural and linguistic

backgrounds opportunities are created for miscommunication, which can ultimately have a detrimental impact on the level of team engagement.

Building and maintaining trust: Meyer *et al.* (2021) argue that building and maintaining trust among remote teams can be a challenge especially if members are strangers to one another. Trust within teams involves a culture of honesty which provides psychological safety, as well as mutual respect and a sense of belonging. When team members feel safe with one another, they are more likely to feel comfortable, take appropriate risks, be vulnerable and contribute more. Trust minimises communication barriers, boosts employee morale, and fosters creative ways of carrying out tasks. Brownlee (2019) mentions that managers should build trust by sharing critical information with team members, being an approachable leader, engaging team members in change and transformation, stimulating employee empowerment, and fostering an honest team culture. This, in turn, encourages, motivates, and promotes confidence, and fosters loyalty in employees, giving them the motivation to achieve more (Nevogt, 2021).

According to a study by Parker *et al.* (2020), only 16% of managers said they have no doubts about their competence to lead a remote team, while 38% believed that remote employees perform worse than office workers. Likewise, Quintana (2020) found that 40% of managers felt that remote workers performed less satisfactory than those in the office. In other words, most managers lack confidence in the effectiveness of their remote workers' output.

2.6 Employee responsibilities related to remote and hybrid work

Westfall (2020) affirms that both employers and employees share the responsibility of ensuring employee psychological and general well-being. However, employees also have a personal obligation to create a home environment conducive to effective and efficient production. Therefore, remote employees should employ strategies such as creating a comprehensive work schedule and a comfortable home office, being proactive, taking a break from work, requesting equipment from management, and being present in virtual meetings. These strategies will be discussed below.

Creating a comprehensive work schedule: A work schedule refers to the days and hours an employer expects an employee to work (Stange, 2021). A clear work schedule guides employees to comprehensively focus on their work, clearly indicates when to work, and helps prevent needless overtime. It ensures that important tasks are identified, completed, and submitted within the allotted time and that deadlines are met. Ruth (2022) affirms that a comprehensive work schedule will enable employees to attend to unexpected work from colleagues, clients, or the employer. Most importantly, it will assist remote employees in achieving a better work–life balance, obtain enough rest, and acquire sufficient time to spend with family and friends. Doyle (2021a) argues that a work schedule has health advantages because it enables employees to take breaks from their tasks and digital screens to rest their eyes.

Creating a comfortable home office: Westfall (2020) is of the opinion that creating a comfortable home office might assist remote employees. A home office refers to a designated space within an individual's residence for the purpose of conducting business work. A dedicated and comfortable home office might positively impact an employee's psychological and physical health. The back, neck, and spine need to be supported throughout long work hours; thus, a comfortable space, table, and chair are essential. Environmental stressors like unfavourable temperatures, lighting, or noise can frustrate employees and impair productivity. However, if these environmental stresses are properly managed, they can boost focus, foster employee creativity, enhance motivation, increase work energy levels, and promote focus. To encourage discipline and focus, Ruth (2022) contends that a home office should have a door separating the workspace from household activities.

Employee proactiveness: It is equally important that employees be proactive regarding their job. Being proactive is an individual's ability to control a situation promptly rather than acknowledging it after it has occurred (Creighton, 2019). Employees who are proactive frequently look for ways to complete tasks on their own initiative, consequently, earning trust and rewards from their employers. These employees take the initiative, are goal oriented, resilient, and have a long-term vision. In this way, proactive employees create for themselves the opportunity to advance their career, empower themselves, anticipate problems before they arise, recognise their own leadership potential, promote their own well-being, and seize possibilities for ongoing growth (Indeed Editorial Team,

2021b). Žukauskas *et al.* (2018) mention that proactive employees are continuously in contact with their managers and ask pertinent questions such as “which projects should I prioritise?” and “when is the deadline?”

Taking a break: Stange (2021) recommends that employees take breaks during the workday. This is a healthy practice that will help eradicate issues like burnout. Ideally, employees should spend some time outside before, during, and after work hours. However, due to heavy workload, tight deadlines, or “no break” work culture, many employees frequently skip breaks, leading to accelerated exhaustion or higher stress levels.

During these breaks, employees should take a short walk, have a cup of tea, talk to people or listen to their favourite music (Nayak, 2020). Butakhieo and Vyas (2020) found that taking a break enhances psychological well-being, facilitates comprehensive decision making, encourages healthy behaviours, and restores focus to important tasks. Therefore, employers ought to encourage employees to take breaks frequently and emphasise the advantages of doing so. In turn, workers are more likely to feel valued and appreciated.

Requesting equipment: Duffy (2021) notes that employees should request equipment from their managers where applicable. Equipment refers to the requisite items for a particular purpose. Wright (2020) points out that employers have a duty to ensure that each remote employee has the necessary equipment to perform job tasks in accordance with employer expectations. Adequate equipment will ensure successful job performance, minimise work frustration, and enhance employee psychological well-being. Thus, employees should request equipment from their managers as soon as the need arises, especially if it is part of their duties (Ruth, 2022). However, employees should be willing to make compromises. For example, a manager might be able to order a new keyboard or mouse but not a worktable.

Being engaged in virtual meeting: Snow (2021) mentions that employees need to be present in Zoom meetings as much as possible. Being present entails paying attention to and participating in the current situation. Employees should speak out and ask questions to show their presence and participation. The use of phrases like “thank you”

to everyone or “bye, colleagues” conveys presence and, in response, supervisors may be more receptive to requests for assistance.

2.7 Employer strategies to support remote and hybrid work

Employer support is essential for remote employees to help them cope with the negative effects of working from home. Şentürk, Sağaltıcı, Geniş, and Günday Toker (2021) assert that safety, security, stability, trust relationships and social cohesion are fundamental components for employee psychological and emotional well-being. However, Greenwood and Krol (2020) explain that the effects of remote working will vary from person to person because all employees have distinctive needs. Hence, employers should demonstrate their support through, for instance, social support. Banerjee (2021) believes that employees are more likely to build loyalty towards an organisation that is invested in their health. Similarly, Howard (2021) asserts that employees are more productive in organisations that are committed to their well-being and safety.

Quintana (2020) states that organisations should improve internal policies to address issues with remote work, such as employee health, and offer practical solutions to those employees who need help working from home. Some support strategies that employers can follow include building affiliation, offering a support structure, engaging in regular interaction, expressing vulnerability, offering psychological training, developing managerial skills, offering career progression, setting clear expectations, offering a hybrid option to employees, developing a remote work policy, and ensuring a safe working environment. These strategies will be discussed below.

Building affiliation: Affiliation refers to being closely associated with someone. A strong and healthy relationship between an employer and employee is highly beneficial for the organisation because such relationships are likely to foster happy, loyal, and productive employees. Employers can foster affiliation and build social capital by creating and encouraging an interactive peer environment and a culture that supports employee inclusion and social harmony (Interact RDT, 2021).

Offering a support structure: A support structure within the organisation refers to organisational policies that create a safe and supportive environment for all employees. Support structures will vary according to the job demand and potential impact on

employee health. Nevertheless, each employee's psychological and physical well-being should be considered. Support structures are important because they can contribute to a positive organisational culture and encourage open communication within the organisation. For example, if employees feel psychologically safe, they are likely to seek help if the need arises (Staglin, 2020).

Engaging in regular interaction: Greenwood and Krol (2020) describe regular interaction as a recurrent and consistent engagement between two or more people. Positive interactions with employees can boost employee morale and job satisfaction; therefore, employers should maintain consistency in their relationships with employees. On the contrary, in the absence of such interactions, employees are likely to experience feelings of anxiety, tension and uncertainty which might adversely affect work efficiency and job performance. Nayak (2020) advice employers to foster virtual non-work-related interactions as a way of checking up on employees.

Expressing vulnerability: Sime (2019) defines vulnerability within the organisational context as the ability to verbally or behaviourally express genuine feelings and true thoughts. Expressing vulnerability often demonstrates leadership qualities and meaningful connections between an employer and employee. Furthermore, it builds trust, boosts psychological and emotional health, creates meaningful connections, indicates courage, and enhances self-awareness. For these reasons, employers should vocalise their psychological challenges to create a safe space where employees can acknowledge and share their experienced health challenges (Interact RDT, 2021).

Offering psychological training: Psychological health training in organisations addresses the awareness of psychological matters to provide psychological well-being and minimise employee burnout. Psychological training helps stabilise stress, depression, and anxiety. It further minimises the perceived stigma of psychological problems, boosts employee health, and reduces workplace conflict. Guidelines on potential indicators and symptoms of poor psychological health, as well as advice on how to deal with them and who to talk to, should be provided in psychological training. In addition, all employees in the organisation, especially leaders, should be given priority and have access to this training (Greenwood & Krol, 2020).

Developing managerial skills: Manager skills are explained as attributes, abilities, or qualities that an executive should possess to perform certain tasks within the organisation. These skills are vital for the organisation to achieve its goals and objectives. Managers must be competent and suitably skilled to supervise remote workers through actions such as frequent employee monitoring, being observant, listening, and providing motivation (Banerjee, 2021).

Offering career progression: Career progression is the act of advancement in one's career. Organisations should offer career development opportunities for all employees, even remote workers. These opportunities provide employees with a sense of growth in the organisation and purpose and belonging, inspire creativity, develop skills across a range of departments, boost confidence, and encourage taking on challenging jobs. Employees who perform challenging jobs are often more engaged, which inevitably leads to higher retention rates and greater job satisfaction (Riasudeen & Singh, 2020).

Clarifying expectations: Clear expectations often refer to employers' setting clear goals or responsibilities to their employees. Employers should always clearly state what they expect from their employees to mitigate the potential effects of work-related stress. Clear expectations minimise confusion, increase employee job success, and prevent employee frustration (Banerjee, 2021).

Offering a hybrid option: As stated earlier, a hybrid arrangement is one that allows employees the opportunity to either work from the home or at the office. This is a flexible structure and supports the psychological health of employees. Therefore, employees should be granted an opportunity of hybrid work whenever possible (Fang *et al.*, 2020). Banerjee (2021) mentions that some employees work more effectively from the office than at home, while others work more effectively in the evening than in the morning.

Developing a remote work policy: A remote work policy outlines when and how employees are expected to work, especially from locations other than the office. A work policy provides best practices, specifies legal employee rights, and serves to mitigate compliance risk. In addition, it contributes to the employee value proposition and gives answers to questions and uncertainties employees may have. Thus, it is highly advised that employers develop a remote work policy that sets out clear guidelines on what is

expected from the employee while working from home. This document should clearly outline both the employer and employee obligations within this arrangement (Howard, 2021).

Ensuring a safe working environment: A safe environment in this study refers to an employee's working environment that is free from both psychological and physical harm. A safe working environment reduces injury costs, minimises absenteeism and turnover rates, and boosts quality delivery service. It is the employer's responsibility to carry out a risk assessment regarding an employee's home office environment to ensure that it is safe and comfortable.

This can be performed through a questionnaire in which employees furnish the employer with answers to relevant questions. Home office equipment, such as a proper table, chair, computer lighting, keyboard, and work hard drive, is important for effective job performance and the elimination of health issues such as headaches caused by the blue-tinted computer screen (Howard, 2021). A study conducted by RSPH (2022) identified that 39% of remote workers experienced musculoskeletal challenges due to uncomfortable home office equipment. These challenges often result in posture pain creating an inability to move. It is, therefore, critical that employers encourage a safe and healthy home office environment, providing guidelines on how this can be achieved.

2.8 Explaining psychological well-being

Not only has Covid-19 directly impacted organisational leadership styles and driven organisations to improve their policies, but it deeply affected the psychological well-being of employees (Family Safety & Health, 2020). Psychological well-being is defined by Raghuram (2020b) and Morin (2020) as a person's pleasant emotions, social relationships, and overall positive functioning.

Psychological well-being as a concept first emerged during the 1920s and 1930s. The Hawthorne experiments, which evaluated an individual's qualities, as well as level of brilliance regarding output, were taken into consideration when examining how psychological health was conceptualised at the time. According to Alvi (2017), psychological well-being consists of six dimensions, namely self-acceptance, purpose in

life, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, autonomy, and personal growth.

Morin (2020) argues that an individual's interpersonal relationships and decision making, both personally and professionally, are greatly influenced by their psychological well-being. Oakman *et al.* (2020) indicate that working from home is associated with several psychological impacts, including stress, depression, and anxiety, and that the majority of employees in their study were unprepared for these effects as Covid-19 emerged. This concurs with findings by Janza (2021), namely that 82% of remote employees admitted to experiencing depression, and 40% indicated that working from home puts pressure on them to deliver better work and make greater contributions.

Similarly, Aetna International (2020) conducted a survey on employees and employers to ascertain how psychological well-being is related to remote working. The results showed that 32% of employees had high stress levels, 74% were impacted by poor psychological health management, and 61% desired to return to the office full-time. Moreover, 40% of employers were concerned that a lack of social interaction among employees might have a long-term negative impact on their psychological well-being.

2.9 Psychological well-being in the context of remote and hybrid work

Remote and hybrid work can be psychologically demanding and exhausting and shatter many work–home boundaries. Nguyen (2019) describes psychological well-being in the workplace as being shaped by an employee's ability to manage the day-to-day challenges associated with personal life and work obligations. Employees' emotions, thoughts, and sentiments are frequently influenced by their personal and work duties, which, in turn, impact their psychological well-being. According to an RSPH (2022) survey on employee health, 27% of employees noted that working from home has a detrimental effect on their physical and psychological health compared to working in an office. A total of 67% felt less connected to their colleagues, whereas 37% encountered difficulty in sleeping.

Şentürk *et al.* (2021) assert that life-changing circumstances, like those created by Covid-19, will inevitably have a significant impact on night-time sleep. According to their research, insufficient sleep is the most significant predictor of stress, anxiety, and

depression for remote workers, whereas adequate sleep is necessary for delivering excellent work, maintaining good health, and remaining energised. Howard (2021) adds that the relationship between sleep deprivation and low psychological well-being may also be attributed to changes in employees' daily schedules and uncertainty. Research by Leggett, Burgard, and Zivin (2016) revealed that individuals with poor sleep quality are more negatively impacted by stressful events than those who get sufficient sleep. Therefore, sleep deprivation can increase sensitivity, which can lead to poor judgment, diminished enthusiasm in the job, decreased energy levels, and a lack of critical thinking.

Healy (2017) recons that employees who work in negative environments are likely to experience poor psychological health, causing a variety of problems including poor leadership and poor decision-making. However, Raghuram (2020a) found that motivated employees who have strong interpersonal skills, low absenteeism, and high levels of morale are more likely to experience healthy psychological well-being. Nguyen (2019) affirms that regular interaction and physical contact help people develop trust relationships and contribute to psychological health. Therefore, most remote workers are more prone to experience significant and uncommon levels of stress, anxiety, or depression without daily social connections. These psychological well-being challenges will be discussed below.

Stress: Stress is explained as emotional or physical tension which often makes individuals feel frustrated, angry or nervous, whereas work-related stress occurs when employees face work demands and pressures that challenge their ability to cope (Laguaite, 2021). Stress is also known as an individual reaction to external circumstances which can cause visible psychological, functional, behavioural, and physical effects. Stress is derived from the Latin word *strictus* which means 'tight' or 'narrow' (Krishnan, Nadanasabai, & Abirami, 2021).

According to Prasad, Vaidya, and Mangipudi (2020), the ongoing advancements in science, technology, and the economy have an impact on rising levels of employee stress, particularly for remote workers. For this reason, the majority of organisations, social scientists, and health professionals are becoming increasingly concerned about employment stress among their remote workers. Li, Cao, and Li (2016) found a correlation between job satisfaction and stress, indicating that job satisfaction is a source

of stress for most employees. Similarly, a study by Somma *et al.* (2020) revealed that poor emotional stability and neuroticism were associated with increased feelings of worry and stress during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Laguaite (2021) explains that factors like poor work systems, job design, uncomfortable working circumstances, poor management practices, or a lack of rewards can all contribute to workplace stress. Also, some employees may experience stress levels as a result of environmental stressors such as excessive noise, poor lighting, inadequate ventilation and poor air quality, and a lack of peer and management support. The RSPH (2022) found that most remote employees experience substantial emotional exhaustion and cognitive stress associated with reduced social support from colleagues and managers.

The World Health Organisation (WHO, 2020) affirms that stress-related symptoms among employees include headaches, high blood pressure, loss of appetite and increased use of alcohol. Burton (2021) points to the long-term effects of stress, such as cardiovascular diseases, which is why organisations should foster and encourage a healthy work environment for the well-being of their employees. Krishnan *et al.* (2021) consider a healthy workplace to be an organisation with low illness or injury rates, excellent performance, and marketplace competitiveness. These organisations frequently acknowledge the efforts and good performance of employees, grant career growth opportunities, and maintain a culture that values and supports employees.

Anxiety: As explained by Fernández, Crivelli, Guimet, and Allegri (2020), anxiety has different degrees of severity (mild, moderate, severe, and panic) and frequently develops from acute, ongoing, to overwhelming stress. Abirami (2012) describes job anxiety as intense sensations of stress experienced by employees because of work-related issues. According to Somma *et al.* (2020), many businesses have adopted remote work as a response to the pandemic, while many people responded to the pandemic with anxiety. Laguaite (2021) asserts that employees who struggle with anxiety often display signs including crying, persistent worry, avoiding friends and family, difficulty sleeping, a lack of enthusiasm in their job, or irritability.

Many people experience anxiety at work for a variety of reasons such as doing presentations, maintaining personal relationships, participating in meetings, or reaching deadlines. Research by Banerjee (2021) showed that employees with anxiety often make emotional life-changing decisions that are likely to affect their careers or personal life. Greenstein (2018) is of the opinion that employees who struggle with anxiety should develop healthy behaviours like getting adequate sleep, talking to family and friends, and seeking professional assistance when necessary.

Savolainen, Oksa, Savela, Celuch, and Oksanen (2021) assert that employers should be concerned about how Covid-19 may have affected the work culture and psychological well-being for employees. A study by Soni, Vyas, Pestonjee, Kher, Thakkar, and Lakshmi (2016) identified the detrimental effects of loneliness on the psychological health of a group of older people during the pandemic. They specifically established that perceived loneliness predicted anxiety associated with the Covid-19 virus. Likewise, Fernández *et al.* (2020) found that youth, being female, high neuroticism, and characteristics related to fear of Covid were connected to significant emotional pain during quarantine. Additional research by Horesh, Lev-Ari, and Hasson-Ohayon (2020) revealed that the pandemic was associated with higher levels of low psychological well-being in females, young individuals, and people with pre-existing chronic conditions.

Depression: Depression is characterised by persistent melancholy and a loss of interest. It is a continual challenge that might endure for weeks or years. Many times, significant life events like losing a job or a loved one cause people to experience despair (Lindberg, 2021). Goldman (2019) mentions that elements like the workplace environment may have an impact on an employee's depressive symptoms. Some of these symptoms include weight gain or loss, sluggishness of movement or thought, a sense of worthlessness, changes in appetite, or a sense of hopelessness. These individuals commonly exhibit nervousness, agitation, and tension. They withdraw from social interactions, are passive during meetings, and generally do not meet the demands of the job. Aston (2020) explains that individuals of all age groups are susceptible to experiencing various symptoms of depression, while the WHO (2020) estimates that 264 million people worldwide experience depression.

2.10 Transpersonal and intrapersonal psychological well-being

Transpersonal and intrapersonal well-being are two distinct, but interconnected concepts related to a person's overall sense of well-being and fulfilment. Transpersonal well-being refers to a state of well-being that transcends the individual self and personal identity. It focuses on the connection between an individual and the broader, more encompassing aspects of existence (Stewart & Townley, 2019). Garg (2023) states that transpersonal experiences may include meditation, mindfulness, peak experiences, and altered states of consciousness, all of which can lead to a sense of oneness and inner peace.

Intrapersonal well-being, on the other hand, is focused on the individual and their inner world. It involves a deep understanding of oneself, self-awareness, self-acceptance, and the ability to manage one's thoughts, emotions, and inner conflicts effectively. Intrapersonal well-being encompasses aspects such as emotional intelligence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and overall mental health. It involves the development of a positive self-concept and the ability to cope with life's challenges in a healthy way.

2.10.1 Transpersonal well-being

Below, some of the characteristics of transpersonal well-being will be discussed, such as connection and interconnectedness, spiritual awareness, self-transcendence, and values and ethics.

Connection and interconnectedness: Taylor (2016) describes transpersonal well-being as involving a deep sense of connection with others, nature, and the universe. It recognises that people are part of something greater than ourselves and that our actions have consequences beyond our individual lives. This sense of interconnectedness can lead to increased empathy, compassion, and a greater understanding of our shared humanity, which can promote more harmonious relationships and a sense of purpose in contributing to the greater good.

Spiritual awareness: According to Marroquín, Tennen, and Stanton (2017), transpersonal well-being includes heightened spiritual awareness. Individuals may explore questions related to the nature of existence, purpose, and the divine. They may engage in practices like meditation, mindfulness, or prayer to nurture this aspect of well-being. A deeper spiritual awareness can provide individuals with a sense of meaning and

direction in life, offering comfort and solace during challenging times and promoting a more profound sense of purpose.

Self-transcendence: Transpersonal well-being entails moving beyond the limited self or ego. Individuals may shift their focus from personal desires and self-interest to a more universal or collective perspective. Self-transcendence can lead to a decrease in self-centredness, reduced anxiety, and an increased sense of peace and contentment. It can also promote a greater sense of altruism and social responsibility (Taylor, 2016).

Values and ethics: Harrild and Luke (2020) affirm that transpersonal well-being is associated with a strong commitment to values and ethics that reflect a concern for the well-being of others and the environment. Practising values and ethics aligned with transpersonal principles can promote a sense of integrity, authenticity, and a positive impact on the world.

2.10.2 Intrapersonal well-being

Below, some of the characteristics of intrapersonal well-being will be discussed, they include self-awareness, emotional intelligence, self-acceptance, resilience, self-regulation, goal setting and achievement, and self-care:

Self-awareness: Individuals with high intrapersonal well-being have a deep understanding of their own thoughts, emotions, strengths, weaknesses, and values. Self-awareness is the foundation for personal growth and effective self-regulation. It allows individuals to make choices that align with their values and lead to greater life satisfaction (Harrild & Luke, 2020).

Emotional intelligence: Brandão, Matias, Ferreira, Vieira, Schulz, and Matos (2020) note that individuals with intrapersonal well-being possess emotional intelligence, which involves recognising, understanding, and managing their own emotions. Emotional intelligence contributes to better mental health, more satisfying relationships, and effective stress management. It helps individuals navigate complex social and emotional situations.

Self-acceptance: Marroquín *et al.* (2017) state that intrapersonal well-being includes self-acceptance, which means embracing one's own strengths and limitations without harsh self-criticism. Self-acceptance is crucial for maintaining a positive self-image and building self-esteem. It reduces negative self-talk and fosters a sense of self-worth.

Resilience: Resilience is a characteristic of intrapersonal well-being that enables individuals to bounce back from adversity, setbacks, and stress. Resilience is essential for coping with life's challenges and maintaining mental and emotional well-being. It helps individuals adapt to changing circumstances and thrive despite difficulties (Brandão *et al.*, 2020).

Self-regulation: Stewart and Townley (2019) mention that individuals with intrapersonal well-being have the ability to regulate their behaviour, emotions, and impulses effectively. Self-regulation is crucial for making healthy lifestyle choices, managing stress, and avoiding impulsive decisions. It supports long-term goal achievement and personal growth.

Goal setting and achievement: Individuals with intrapersonal well-being are skilled at setting and pursuing meaningful goals. Goal setting provides a sense of purpose and direction in life. It can lead to a sense of accomplishment and personal growth (Garg, 2023).

Self-care: Intrapersonal well-being emphasises self-care practices, which involve taking care of one's physical, emotional, and mental health. Self-care is vital for maintaining overall well-being, reducing stress, and preventing burnout, as well as for promoting a balanced and fulfilling life (Stewart & Townley, 2019).

2.11 Work-related causes of poor psychological well-being

Work-related causes of poor psychological well-being can be seen as circumstances where the employer does not promote and protect employee health, safety, and well-being within the working environment. Banerjee (2021), Tamm (2021), Raghuram (2020b), and Nguyen (2019) mention some of the contributing factors to poor psychological well-being: long working hours, unrealistic workloads, job insecurity, negative workplace culture, unreasonable work demand, a lack of control, unhealthy

work relationships, unclear work roles, and change. These factors will be discussed below.

Long working hours: As described by Raghuram (2020b), long working hours pertain to a period of time in which an individual works longer than the usual or regular working hours. This is often referred to as “working overtime”. This implies that workers do not get sufficient time to sleep, unwind, or spend time with friends and family. Research by Malinga (2021) revealed that 53% of South African employees work longer hours from home than from the office.

Unrealistic workloads: An unrealistic workload represents the weight of hours, time sacrificed, and the feelings of frustration related to the employee’s inability to complete tasks within a specified time (Nguyen, 2019) – in other words, an employee’s capacity to handle the demands of the job is exceeded. Employees who are given unrealistic responsibilities frequently feel stressed and anxious, which can result in panic attacks and, ultimately, job dissatisfaction and decreased organisational profits (Abbasi, 2015).

Job insecurity: Job insecurity alludes to an individual’s uncertainty and fear about losing their employment. It can occur because of layoffs, financial dilemma, a lack of experience or skills, technological development, racism, sexism, or inadequate qualification level. As a consequence of employment anxieties, employees may experience adverse effects on their psychological and physical health (Doyle, 2021b). Examples are weight loss or gain, loss of appetite, feelings of isolation, a lack of patience, high stress levels, anxiety, melancholy, headaches, and back pain (Banerjee, 2021).

Negative workplace culture: A negative company culture is when the organisation regards its employees as objects that fulfil the business needs, not as individuals with personal interests and needs that should be well taken care off. Organisations with a poor culture are characterised by a lack of defined core values, office gossip, unhealthy competition among employees, continued late arrival for work, sexual harassment, bullying, and micromanagement (Nguyen, 2019). This, in turn, leads to health issues among employees, absence of teamwork, increased absenteeism, and high turnover rates. This culture further encourages a lack of shared knowledge, low attention to detail,

malicious compliance, decreased confidence in management, and deficiency in trust. Employees may experience high levels of stress and uncertainty if such behaviours are tolerated in the workplace (Heinz, 2021).

Unreasonable work demands: Unreasonable work demands are duties that do not form part of an employee's job description, necessitate a great deal of effort, or entail unrealistic expectations. These work demands have the potential to influence the employee's psychological (frustration), physical (fatigue) and social (lack of interactive time) aspects of life (Indeed Editorial Team, 2021a). According to Tamm (2021), unreasonable work demands often encompass tight deadlines, low budgets that do not meet the project requirements, requests to run personal errands for the employer, mandatory overtime beyond the contractual agreement, and project assignments that require knowledge and skills beyond an employee's abilities.

Lack of control: Lack of control is a feeling that employees experience due to inadequate decision making and no comprehensive accountability for their job performance. Employees desire the ability to make decisions about their work, apply their analytical skills, and participate in the process of attaining outcomes that are advantageous for all (Frantz & Holmgren, 2019). Nguyen (2019) found that employees who feel in control of their jobs generally take accountability for their actions, whether negative or positive. However, employees who feel powerless are likely to experience increased levels of stress and, thus, underperform.

Unhealthy work relationships: According to Ramjee (2022), unhealthy working relationships frequently develop when bad workplace encounters outweigh good experiences. Such relationships frequently stem from poor policies and ineffective communication, ongoing insecurity, constant conflict, unfavourable attitudes, unhealthy competition, and social exclusion. These relationships could easily develop into intense encounters like bullying, violence, or aggressiveness if poorly governed, resulting in stress, low morale, job dissatisfaction, and reduced commitment. Unhealthy work relationships can also foster isolation and loneliness, leading to high turnover rates (Tamm, 2021).

Unclear work roles: Brearley (2020) defines unclear work roles as an employee's deficient understanding of their roles within their individual jobs or team tasks/projects. Unclear work roles develop as a result of undefined expectations regarding work responsibilities and key accountabilities, which could lead to an ineffective working environment. Nguyen (2019) suggests that poorly defined work roles result in poor understanding of where employees fit into the organisation, wasted time on unimportant tasks, collaboration challenges between employees, uncertainty about where and when to invest time and effort, as well as conflict and frustration.

Unexpected change: Unexpected change, which can be overwhelming for certain employees, refers to change within the organisation that can be brought on by either internal or external developments. For some employees, change can be extremely upsetting, prompting them to contemplate its implications for their career and or how it will affect them personally (Adams, 2019). As explained by Tamm (2021), positive change fosters creativity, improves employee skills, leads to better business prospects, and boosts employee morale. However, negative change may foster feelings of anxiety and high levels of stress. Therefore, Doyle (2021b) suggests that employers be considerate and allow for reasonable time for employees to adapt to internal changes.

2.12 Promoting employee health

Employee health should be a priority within the organisation, as it is not only beneficial for employees, but for the organisation as well. Employee health incorporates all aspects of well-being, optimising both physical and psychological health (Adams, 2019). According to Sanfilippo (2021), psychological well-being is compromised when negative emotions reach maximum intensity and interfere with a person's ability to function in daily life.

Adams (2019) notes that effective psychological functioning involves the development of one's potential, gaining control over one's life, having a sense of purpose, and experiencing positive relationships. García-Moya, Brooks, Morgan, and Moreno (2015) explain that employee health can be promoted by measures such as senior leader participation, raising awareness of psychological well-being, promoting employee dialogue and decision making, developing a culture of transparency, inspiring work–life balance, creating opportunities for learning and development, fostering positive working

relationships and social activities, and providing peer support and “buddy systems”. These measures will be discussed below.

Senior leader participation: Senior leader participation is a form of leadership where leaders actively participate in organisation activities to ensure engagement and inspire employees to uphold the business vision, mission, and values. Leaders actively partake in awareness efforts rather than simply advising employees on what to do. Such leaders possess qualities that inspire and motivate others, exhibit a high degree of integrity and honesty, analyse problems, and solve issues. They are innovative and results oriented; they are prolific communicators and relationship builders; they display industry knowledge, technical proficiency, and strategic thinking – all while nurturing others. Many times, employees follow the behaviour of management. For example, when the chief executive officer emphasises the value of psychological well-being, it increases the likelihood of employees’ seeking assistance, being driven to a healthy lifestyle, and supporting general well-being metrics. Therefore, management should continuously encourage employees to take lunch breaks and work reasonable hours, among other things (Bartels, Peterson, & Reina, 2019).

Raising awareness of psychological well-being: Raising awareness pertains to educating and enlightening individuals about an issue with the intention of influencing their behaviour, attitudes, and beliefs to achieve a defined objective. In this case, it occurs when an organisation informs its employees about the value and importance of maintaining a high level of psychological well-being.

Many organisations stigmatise low levels of psychological well-being such as anxiety or depression, and as a result, employees frequently feel uncomfortable talking openly about their health challenges. Hence, it is critical to promote awareness of, hold discussions about, and proactively confront any potential effects of low psychological well-being on the organisational culture and work relationships. Such knowledge aids in decreasing psychological stigmas, enhancing organisational performance, and developing a respectable reputation in the marketplace. Furthermore, this will encourage employees to be conscious of their psychological symptoms, seek professional assistance, and encourage others who are suffering in silence (Riasudeen & Singh, 2020).

Promoting dialogue and decision making: Anderson (2019) states that employee dialogue incorporates employee development through interactive conversations with the employer, while employee decision making provides an opportunity to contribute ideas, learn from colleagues, and collectively work towards a common goal. Employee dialogue serves as a good platform for employers to provide feedback and offer support to employees for personal development and growth. This dialogue builds constructive teams, eradicates stereotyping among employees, develops goals that foster employee growth, evolves employer–employee trust relationship, and fosters a productive workplace culture.

Riasudeen and Singh (2020) mention that employee participation in decision making demonstrates trust and that their perspectives are valued, provides on-the-job training, empowers, and boosts employee engagement, and enhances work relationships. Employees are more likely to be motivated and have a better understanding of how their roles fit into the organisation's objective and vision when they feel engaged and informed about advancements in the organisation. According to Adams (2019), management should steer organisational changes, such as implementing new systems, in a way that involves, listens to, accommodates, and positively addresses any concerns that employees might have. Employee involvement in identifying organisationally advantageous solutions fosters a sense of ownership, which uplifts morale, loyalty, and productivity levels.

Developing a transparent culture: García-Moya *et al.* (2015) assert that a transparency culture is one in which employees are provided with relevant information that fosters confidence with management and advances an atmosphere in which people may provide honest feedback. A culture of transparency encourages employees to network, interact, and communicate with other team members, share creative ideas, and enhance customer relations while being adaptable to change. Riasudeen and Singh (2020) affirm that this culture encourages openness and presents psychological safety, which makes it easier to recognise and identify symptoms likely to contribute to stress, anxiety, or depression among employees.

Inspiring work–life balance: Work–life balance is the capacity to prioritise both work and personal obligations equally. Increased personal and professional responsibilities can impact work–life balance, which can result in higher stress levels, burnout, and poor health. Employers who are dedicated to creating a work environment that supports employee work–life balance are likely to save on office costs, experience decreased absenteeism rates, and have more devoted employees (Sanfilippo, 2021).

Creating opportunities for learning and development: Learning and development is a process of improving employees' skills, knowledge, and competence. Learning and development opportunities result in competent employees with perseverance and the confidence to carry out tasks successfully. These employees have a high level of job satisfaction, which boosts retention rates and employee engagement (Indeed Editorial Team, 2021c). Research by Riasudeen and Singh (2020) on employee engagement revealed that employees need and want to feel valued and supported and do meaningful work. Maintaining dedication and productivity levels within the workplace requires cultivating trust and integrity. This can be accomplished by appreciating employees and investing in their learning, skill development, and education. These learning and development opportunities can be created through practical techniques such as coaching, mentoring, or training.

Building positive working relationships and social activities: Kim (2017) asserts that a positive working relationship is characterised by trust, respect, self-awareness, inclusion, open communication, and active engagement. Tews, Michel, and Bartlett (2012) maintain that social activities meet individual social needs and interests through education, cultural enrichment, and recreation. Kim (2017) notes that building healthy relationships in the workplace is a collaborative effort between the employer and the employee. Positive interactions create a welcoming environment and ensures a pleasant working environment, which influences staff turnover and reduces work-related stress, frustration, and burnout. In this regard, social activities provide opportunities for organisational members to connect positively with one another and support the development of new and existing relationships. Social interactions boost cognitive ability, emotional well-being, and the development of solidified relationships.

Riasudeen and Singh (2020) asserts that employers can foster positive work relationships and social activities through leading by example, mediating conflict issues, engaging employees in collaborative events, being involved, initiating face-to-face interactions, embracing teamwork, and supporting an information-sharing culture.

Peer support: Gillard (2019) explains peer support as a mechanism by which employees support one another in a shared space within the organisation. It is one of the most efficient strategies for workers to maintain their psychological and physical health. Peer relationships at work have been found to positively contribute to turnover retention and has a beneficial effect on task performance through humour, trust, and friendships. Riasudeen and Singh (2020) found that peer support improves self-acceptance and self-esteem, builds employee resilience, fortifies working connections, and ameliorates working environments, which, in turn, reduces absenteeism and sick days. It refines employee resilience, increases collaboration, and improves employee contact and unity.

2.13 Benefits of a healthy workforce

Deloitte Development (2019) is of the opinion that employers who invest in employee psychological well-being and health could accomplish greater return on investment (ROI) and reduce expenditures like hiring and recruiting by up to 30% or more. ROI is not limited to financial rewards but can include enhanced customer service, reduced sick leave, fewer accidents at work, and reduced turnover rates. These benefits will be discussed below.

Enhanced customer service: As defined by Forssell (2016), customer service is the process by which an organisation's employees support the needs of its customers by providing and delivering high-quality service and professional assistance before, during, and after the clients' needs have been satisfied. According to Ariani (2013), happy and healthy employees are most likely to provide exceptional customer services. Thus, employee health is of essence for the success of the business.

Customers value an organisation that respects them, cares for them, is reliable, and provides efficient customer services. Satisfied customers yield a competitive advantage, strengthen the organisation's values and corporate culture, boost customer loyalty, improve marketability, attract the best talent, and ameliorate internal procedures.

Research by Banerjee (2021) indicated that 97% of customers will recommend businesses that provide good customer service, and approximately 70% of them will increase their purchasing power to support those businesses. Similarly, Kim (2017) found that 24% of happy consumers will come back to support the organisation two to three years after a positive service experience, whereas 59% of customers would switch to a different organisation after one bad experience.

Reduced sick leave: Sick leave is considered as time off from work for medical reasons. Multiple employees utilise their sick days to manage their stress, depression, anxiety, or any other health-related issues. Poor health management makes human bodies more susceptible to ailments like the flu, the common cold, exhaustion, and muscular aches. An employee who is ill cannot perform their job duties efficiently, jeopardising the organisation's culture, public reputation, and ability to provide quality of service. On the other hand, employees who are granted adequate time to relax and fully recover exhibit greater vigour, enthusiasm, and motivation (Banerjee, 2021).

Fewer accidents at work: Accidents at work are unforeseen or uncontrollable events that result in employee physical distress while they are on the job (Anderson, 2023). According to Banerjee (2021), employees experiencing poor health are more prone to make mistakes at work than those who are in good health. The cost associated with workplace accidents include long-term compensation costs, hiring and training new personnel, and increased insurance premiums.

Reduced turnover: Reduced turnover rate is defined by Sanfilippo (2021) as the minimum number of employees leaving the organisation within a certain time period relative to their initial employment. High turnover rates consequently have an impact on employee morale and result in the loss of critical skills and expertise. Brearley (2020) asserts that increased turnover rates can be attributed to several factors, such as a lack of professional advancement, work overload, underappreciation, poor organisational culture, deficit work–life balance, or inadequate of health care.

2.14 Components that influence psychological well-being

According to Riasudeen and Singh (2020), workplace relationships, employee engagement, and psychological well-being are all interrelated facets of an individual's employment experience. They state that interpersonal dynamics between colleagues, managers, and the overall work environment can influence employee engagement and well-being. Adams (2019) mentions that higher levels of employee engagement and well-being can be attained through effective workplace relationships, such as those with colleagues and management. However, unfavourable workplace dynamics such as disputes with co-workers and unresponsive management can result in reduced levels of employee engagement and well-being.

Brearley (2020) found a positive correlation between employee engagement and psychological well-being, implying that employees are more likely to experience positive emotions like satisfaction and fulfilment when they are actively involved in their work, consequently promoting psychological well-being. Conversely, employees who are disengaged from their work, may experience negative emotions, such as boredom and frustration, which can negatively impact their psychological well-being.

Given the importance of employee well-being, Gifford (2022) asserts that employers should place a high priority on fostering work environments that encourage supportive relationships, stimulate employee engagement, and enrich employee well-being. By doing so, employers will not only improve the psychological health and well-being of their employees, but also boost employee productivity, job satisfaction, and overall organisational performance. Work relations and employee engagement, two of the components that are likely to influence employee psychological well-being, will be discussed below.

Work relations: Forssell (2016) explains work relations as the relationship between people who interact because of work. This relationship also entails the level of corporation sufficient to enable the completion of work. Alegre, Mas-Machuca, and Berbegal-Mirabent (2016) argue that the Covid-19 pandemic not only disrupted the employment structures, but also negatively impacted the growth of ongoing working relationships. Social support from co-workers is a crucial component of any employee's work environment and a helpful tool for promoting employee well-being. According to a

study by Sanfilippo (2021), employees who uphold healthy work relationships tend to be more engaged at work and experience improved health. These relations foster a favourable workplace culture, which, in turn, promotes information exchange, critical thinking, and employee dedication to the organisation. Jämsen, Sivunen, and Blomqvist (2022) concur by stating that inadequate workplace relationships can cause feelings of loneliness, which has a detrimental impact on employee happiness and well-being.

With regard to remote work, maintaining and nurturing existing professional relationships, as well as establishing new ones, might be difficult (Forssell, 2016). However, building and maintaining professional relationships are possible through effective communication. Jämsen *et al.* (2022) note that it is important for everyone in the organisation to understand relational communication, particularly concerning remote work. Relational communication defines communication processes within personal relationships such as work, family or friends. It aids in comprehending the interpersonal communications at work or at home that establish and uphold working relationships. Alegre *et al.* (2016) conducted a study on relational communication within the work environment with an emphasis on topics such as employee well-being. According to the research, social support is crucial for an employee's development, learning, and ability to manage stress or other issues relating to general well-being.

Employee engagement: Adisa, Ogbonnaya, and Adekoya (2021) mention that employee engagement represents an expression of key personal characteristics that allow the employee job roles to be more challenging, creative, and meaningful. According to Evanoff *et al.* (2020), employee engagement is seen to improve when there are adequate amounts of social (co-worker support) and personal (self-efficacy) resources to foster positive work and non-work-related experiences.

Employee engagement is influenced by various job characteristics (skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) that enable employees to exert discretionary effort on the job. On the other hand, Adisa *et al.* (2021) note that interpersonal relations can be detrimental and ultimately inhibit employee engagement if poorly managed. Andrew and Sofian (2012) argue that employee engagement is important for remote employees to minimise the psychological stresses caused by issues

such as social isolation, which has a negative impact on work engagement, general well-being, and overall job performance.

Researchers like Andrew and Sofian (2012) affirm that employee engagement can be used as a mediator to develop attitude, intention, and employee behaviour to improve job performance and psychological well-being. Similarly, Jämsen *et al.* (2022) found that a work environment that is designed to support the development of employee engagement will ultimately promote employee psychological well-being and overall productivity. Research by De-la-Calle-Durán and Rodríguez-Sánchez (2021) points to a strong and positive association between organisational health and employee engagement. According to their findings, employee engagement is higher when people are psychologically healthy, and lower when people's psychological health is neglected or inadequate. Jämsen *et al.* (2022) concur by stating that employees with psychological health can learn and solve problems effectively, are more enthusiastic about change, and have good interpersonal relationships.

2.15 Human resource management and employee well-being

The fundamental shift in the world of work, as described earlier, has brought about significant implications and considerations for HRM such as adapting to changes in customer needs, modifying policies to accommodate remote workers, and facilitating working from home (Gifford, 2022). While HRM ensures the smooth and effective application of policies and processes within the organisation, HR is the strategic approach to employment, development, and well-being of the organisation's employees. It encompasses managerial decisions and actions that affect the relationship between the organisation and its employees (Weekes, 2021). According to Komm, Pollner, Schaninger, and Sikka (2021), HRM maintains a balance between employee demands and satisfaction, and the organisation's ability to be profitable and achieve its goals, whereas HR and line managers collaboratively ensure the success of the organisation.

Boon, Den Hartog, and Lepak (2019) assert that HRM should develop and successfully carry out policies and psychological health plans for their employees. These policies should delineate how the organisation plans to encourage comprehensive employee well-being, how to address the causes of psychological difficulties at work, and how to assist employees experiencing these difficulties. Cooke, Dickmann, and Parry (2020)

state that organisation policies should encompass details on aspects such as stress/well-being, health, and safety, working hours, sick leave, bullying, harassment, and disciplinary action. They should also address equality and diversity, employee development, and performance, among other things. As mentioned by Gifford (2022), health and safety requirements mandate organisations to take all practical measures to reduce health and safety risks for employees in order to maximise employee well-being.

Staglin (2020) and Novotney (2019) recommend that HRM develops suitable training for managers on how to sensitively approach employee health issues and support those employees who may require psychological health support. Komm *et al.* (2021) add that, through this training, employers may identify symptoms in employee behavioural changes concerning issues like stress, anxiety or depression. For instance, if employees are working excessive hours or there is an increase in sick days, this may suggest a problem that warrants investigation. Allen *et al.* (2015) propose that employers utilise confidential questionnaires to gather critical information from employees.

2.16 Summary

This chapter focused on explaining the concepts of remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being. It addressed how both employees and employers can benefit from remote and hybrid work, as well as the challenges experienced by remote and hybrid employees and teams. Employees' responsibilities concerning remote and hybrid work were discussed, plus employer strategies towards supporting remote and hybrid work. Psychological well-being was contextualised in the context of remote and hybrid work.

The chapter elaborated on the characteristics of intrapersonal and transpersonal well-being, work-related causes of psychological well-being, how employee health can be promoted within organisations, as well as the benefits associated with a healthy workforce. Other critical aspects outlined in the chapter included factors that influence psychological well-being and the HRM role concerning employee health in organisations.

CHAPTER 3: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

3.1 Introduction

Amid the persisting challenges posed by Covid-19, international competition, and the economy stance, it is essential for organisations to prioritise the well-being of their employees (Ndoja & Malekar, 2020). It is also critical for organisations to identify factors that encourage employees to contribute and engage in activities beyond their formal job responsibilities – referred to as organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour has not only been recognised as the key concept in organisational behaviour, but has been demonstrated to have numerous positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, improved job performance, and overall organisational effectiveness (Gupta *et al.*, 2017). Bismala (2018) states that employees who engage in organisational citizenship behaviour are assets within the organisation and are more likely to be recognised and considered for career growth opportunities (Gupta *et al.*, 2017).

Research by Mostafa (2021) suggests that factors such as leadership style, organisational culture, and employee motivation can influence employees' propensity to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisations can foster a culture of organisational citizenship behaviour by rewarding and recognising employees who engage in such behaviours, promoting teamwork and collaboration, and providing opportunities for employees to participate in decision-making processes.

Organisational citizenship behaviour has become a crucial aspect for various organisations today, where remote and hybrid work arrangements are becoming more prevalent. As such, Bismala (2018) is of the opinion that organisational citizenship behaviour is an evolving concept that provides valuable insights for organisations seeking to enhance their overall effectiveness and success.

Psychological capital is recognised as a critical personal resource which motivates employees to complete tasks and achieve objectives. Task accomplishment results in a sense of satisfaction and positivity among employees, which inspires them to engage in extra-role behaviours. Thus, as mentioned by Ghani and Rasheed (2020), it is vital for organisations to understand the relationship between organisational citizenship

behaviour and psychological capital because it can lead to increased employee engagement and job satisfaction, and, ultimately, ameliorate organisational outcomes. Moreover, Snape and Redman (2020) argue that promoting a positive organisational culture and investing in employee development, organisations can cultivate a workforce with high levels of organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological capital, resulting in a more productive and successful organisation.

The aim of this chapter is to delineate organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological capital. The chapter will allude to both individual and organisational levels of organisational citizenship behaviour, including the dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour. Additional literature will be provided on social loafing in the context of organisational citizenship behaviour to promote the latter within companies. This chapter will elaborate on HR practices that are beneficial for improving organisational citizenship behaviour and will detail the link between positive psychology and psychological capital. It will outline psychological capital constructs and present the theoretical and conceptual frameworks for the study.

3.2 Explaining organisational citizenship behaviour

Early in the 1980s, the term “organisational citizenship behaviour” was phrased to explain how employees behaved in various organisational social systems. It was viewed as independent individual behaviour that supports the efficient operation of the business and was not seen as part of the organisation's reward system (Çavus & Kapusuz, 2015). Although organisational citizenship behaviour was once thought to be a collective phenomenon, it has developed into an individual behaviour that has a positive effect on the organisations that support it (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

Ndoja and Malekar (2020) states that organisational citizenship behaviour was introduced with two dimensions of employee behaviour, namely (1) general compliance (performing employee duties as expected), and (2) altruism (assisting colleagues). However, in 1988 these dimensions evolved and identified as altruism, courtesy (consulting others before acting), sportsmanship (not complaining about trivial matters), conscientiousness (compliance with norms), and civic virtue (keeping up with important affairs within the organisation).

Owing to the growing significance of autonomous and team-based work in both traditional and modern work environments, organisational citizenship behaviour has grown into a prominent subject of study (Mostafa, 2021). Positive psychology inspired the positive organisational behaviour approach, which aims to assess, enhance, and manage people's strengths and psychological significance. Organ (1997) emphasises the voluntary nature of organisational citizenship behaviour and contends that, if someone fulfils their formal job responsibilities in accordance with their employment contract, it cannot be construed as organisational citizenship behaviour. However, contextual behaviours such as "going above and beyond job requirements" should be recognised and acknowledged as organisational citizenship behaviour and appropriately rewarded.

According to Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020), these contextual behaviours considerably enhance the organisational psychological environment and result in positive workplace outcomes like promotion. However, Ipsen, Karanika-Murray, and Nardelli (2020) argue that various organisations lack the ability and understanding required to address psychological imbalances in the workplace. As mentioned by Nguse and Wassenaar (2021), psychological well-being influences individual thoughts, feelings, and behaviour, particularly towards their jobs and colleagues; hence, organisational citizenship behaviour cannot be ignored, especially within a remote and hybrid work environment.

Bismala (2018) affirms that employees who work remotely may exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour by supporting their colleagues, actively seeking ways to contribute to team projects, and demonstrating flexibility and adaptability in their work. These behaviours can encourage a supportive, positive, and effective remote work environment by mitigating some remote work challenges such as isolation and communication. In the context of remote work, organisational citizenship behaviour can support the development of a positive workplace culture and improve employee well-being and engagement.

3.3 Individual and organisational levels of organisational citizenship behaviour

Researchers such as Thiruvankadam and Durairaj (2017) and Fajar and Soeling (2017) have concluded that organisational citizenship behaviour can serve both employees and the organisation assuming that management provides a supportive, inclusive, and

conducive environment and employees are willing to contribute beyond their job requirements. For instance, actions such as adhering to informal rules or voluntarily taking on additional work responsibilities support and aid the organisation, whereas learning new skills contributes towards employee development. Research conducted by Vázquez-Rodríguez, Romero-Castro, and Pérez-Pico (2020) found that positive organisational citizenship behaviour is often triggered when employees experience good treatment from both colleagues and the organisation.

Grabarek (2018) states that organisational citizenship behaviour at an organisational level has the potential to inspire employee productivity, coordinate tasks, attract and retain talent, promote organisational sustainability, build social capital, improve the delivery of high-quality services, boost efficiency, and influence positive adaptation to internal changes. On the other hand, engaging in organisational citizenship behaviour at an individual level can improve efficiency in accurate information transfer, foster career growth through promotions, lead to self-fulfilment, stimulate employee loyalty and commitment, boost physical and psychological health, reduce absenteeism, and maximise job satisfaction (Bismala, 2018).

Lam, Wan, and Roussin (2016) found that exercising organisational citizenship behaviour allows employees to feel in control of their responsibilities and grants them an opportunity to appreciate helping others, fostering a heightened sense of work meaningfulness. Experienced meaningfulness has the potential to increase energy levels, improve motivation, and enhance work performance. However, if employees do not experience work meaningfulness, factors such as burnout or stress can negatively affect their performance and general health (Grabarek, 2018).

Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020) encourage organisations to educate management on organisational citizenship behaviour and support and stimulate such behaviour to improve social interaction among employees and promote teamwork. In addition, this behaviour will not only boost employee morale, but also increase productivity, efficiency, customer satisfaction, as well as reduce costs and turnover and absenteeism rates. Grabarek (2018) recommends that organisations actively engage employees by incorporating organisational citizenship behaviour into employee performance reviews.

3.4 The dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour

Bismala (2018) mentions that altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue behaviours amount to increased organisation productivity and effectiveness. These dimensions will be discussed below.

Altruism: Altruism manifests when employees voluntarily assist their colleagues without expecting any reward or compensation, for example, offering a helping hand to a co-worker who is overloaded. This behaviour is likely to boost employee morale and efficiency while reducing stress levels – which will ultimately increase productivity (Newland, 2012).

Courtesy: Courtesy refers to politeness and consideration towards other people (Schuck, 2014). It is often exhibited through behaviours such as asking personal questions regarding a subject that a colleague has previously discussed, for instance, asking how a co-worker's child is doing after an unpleasant experience. Courtesy promotes harmony among co-workers, a healthy work environment, and positive social interaction (Harper, 2015).

Sportsmanship: Sportsmanship is displayed when an employee demonstrates positive behaviour in a situation which is perceived as annoying, hurtful or frustrating. – for example, taking over a co-worker's workload while they are on sick leave (Wang, Hinrichs, Prieto, & Howell, 2013). Thiruvenskadam and Durairaj (2017) affirm that some sportsmanship activities may increase personal workload, but employees with high organisational citizenship behaviour often recognise that it is a temporary situation.

Conscientiousness: Conscientiousness is a behaviour that describes employees who practise discipline and self-control beyond what is expected. This is observed when employees do not only meet their employer requirement (e.g., deadlines), but exceed them. One example is the ability to plan in advance before going on leave so that co-workers are not left with double the workload (Harper, 2015).

Civic virtue: Civic virtue is seen as positive behaviour displayed by an employee away from the organisation. This behaviour is related to how successfully an employee supports and represents their organisation in a non-official capacity. Examples include

an employee attending a fund-raising business event or praising the organisation to friends and family (Newland, 2012).

3.5 Social loafing in the context of organisational citizenship behaviour

Despite the widespread acceptance of organisational citizenship behaviour as beneficial, concerns have been raised, notably regarding social loafing. Social loafing occurs when a member of a group puts in less effort but nevertheless gains from the accomplishments or rewards of the group. In contrast to the idea that organisational citizenship behaviour enhances productivity and effectiveness, social loafing is considered as one form of productivity loss (Gençer, 2019). Hildreth (2015) states that social loafing can negatively impact individual effort and motivation, which may hinder employees from engaging in voluntary, extra-role behaviours that characterise organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hyusein and Eyupoglu (2022) mentions that organisational citizenship behaviour is influenced by various factors including individual, group, and organisational elements. Social loafing is one of these factors. Therefore, understanding social loafing in the context of organisational citizenship behaviour may provide a comprehensive understanding of workplace behaviours and allow organisations and managers to design strategies that will mitigate this phenomenon and promote organisational citizenship behaviour. This approach can ultimately improve organisational performance and employee well-being.

Social loafing and organisational citizenship behaviour are crucial components of understanding work groups and have a substantial impact on organisational performance, competitiveness, and overall effective functioning (Şesen, Soran, & Caymaz, 2014). According to Dai, Hou, Wang, Zhuang, and Liu (2020), organisational citizenship behaviour can be a group phenomenon, therefore, when organisations understand social loafing, they can pay attention to team dynamics and identify how the latter may impede organisational citizenship behaviour. Thus, organisations can reduce the prevalence of social loafing and promote organisational citizenship behaviour by fostering a supportive and collaborative team environment.

Hildreth (2015) adds that leadership is key in shaping employee behaviour. Leaders who understand social loafing can actively discourage it and set an example of organisational

citizenship behaviour. When leaders consistently demonstrate the value of organisational citizenship behaviour, employees are more likely to follow suit.

Gençer (2019) affirms that knowledge on social loafing can lead organisations to implement incentive and motivation systems that counteract its effects. When employees are aware that their individual efforts are valued, appreciated, and rewarded, they will be less likely to engage in social loafing. This, in turn, might promote organisational citizenship behaviour. Hyusein and Eyupoglu (2022) indicate that, in order to combat social loafing, organisations need to invest in team building and training. Improved collaboration, strong team bonding, and a clearer understanding of roles and responsibilities are likely to reduce social loafing and create an environment conducive to organisational citizenship behaviour.

According to Hyusein and Eyupoglu (2022), performance evaluations that consider both individual and group contributions can motivate employees to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour while discouraging social loafing. When organisations have a clear system for assessing and rewarding organisational citizenship behaviour, employees are incentivised to contribute positively. Furthermore, Gençer (2019) states that job designs that promote autonomy, accountability, and meaningful work can reduce social loafing. Employees are more inclined to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour when they feel their employment is meaningful and fulfilling.

Karadal and Saygın (2013) note that both social loafing and organisational citizenship behaviour are affected by motivational factors. For example, social loafing is highly correlated with the social expectation theory, while organisational citizenship behaviour is significantly related to motives such as organisational care, prosocial values, and impression management (Şesen *et al.*, 2014). Lloyd and Mertens (2018) refer to social expectancy theory as pertaining to individuals who are motivated to go above and beyond expectations if their efforts are acknowledged and rewarded. In turn, organisational concerns entail employees who frequently engage in organisational citizenship behaviour because their organisation provides job satisfaction, fair treatment, inspirational leaders, and interesting and meaningful work (Karadal & Saygın, 2013). Similarly, prosocial values are motivated by the desire to serve others and be socially

acceptable, whereas impression management is motivated by the desire to uphold a positive reputation and refrain from harmful practices.

3.6 Human resource practices and organisational citizenship behaviour

As stated by Mallick, Pradhan, Tewari, and Jena (2014), HR practices are regarded as ongoing initiatives to amplify employee capabilities and are directly related to the characteristics of organisational citizenship behaviour. Newman, Miao, Hofman, and Zhu (2016) are of the opinion that HR practices (e.g., training and development), as well as empowerment programmes and recognition can help employees acquire the social and psychological skills necessary to accomplish the organisation's goals. Training and development is a fundamental HR practice that focuses on the analysis of employee strengths and weaknesses based on their abilities, dedication, engagement, and intrinsic behaviour.

Zhou and Chen (2021) mention that training and development offers employees an opportunity to advance, which, in turn, fosters a sense of support and belonging and, ultimately, positive citizenship behaviours within the organisation. According to Ghani and Rasheed (2020), programmes that promote psychological empowerment have a significant impact on and promote the growth of organisational citizenship behaviour. They argue that perceived organisational support mediates the beneficial association between HR practices, employee commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover. Newman *et al.* (2016) claim that HR practices enhance employee performance by providing intrinsic motivation and the opportunity to perform through higher levels of perceived job discretion.

Perceived job discretion is seen as the degree of freedom of choice that employees feel they have over critical aspects of their jobs such as working hours or how the job is done. Job discretion is argued to enhance an employee's sense of responsibility for the results of their work and boost their desire to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour. Conversely, a low level of job discretion can ultimately lead to depression, which is likely to have a negative impact on employee performance and engagement in citizenship behaviours (Newman *et al.* 2016).

Wei (2014) found a positive correlation between service-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour and high-performance HR practices, while Mallick *et al.* (2014) found that effective HR strategies are critical in guiding employees in the right direction. Ghani and Rasheed (2020) agree that HR can initiate organisational citizenship behaviour through HR practices such as hiring the right candidates for the job, re-evaluating performance management systems, and management involvement. These HR practices will be discussed below.

3.6.1 Hiring the right candidate for the job

According to Ghani and Rasheed (2020), it is critical for HR to reflect the expected organisation citizenship behaviours through an employee's job description, job previews, preselection process, and interviews.

Job description: The job description should include the company values to enable potential candidates to see whether their values are in alignment. This will boost the likelihood of attracting qualified applicants who have the capacity to exhibit the desired organisational citizenship behaviour (Tashtoush & Eyupoglu, 2020).

Job previews: Snape and Redman (2020) mention that, through job previews, HR can demonstrate the kind of positive behaviours encouraged by the organisation and include aspects such as how current employees treat one another (courtesy), collaboration (altruism), and many more.

Pre-selection process: Owor (2015) concludes that the pre-selection assessment is an effective way to determine whether a suitable candidate is in alignment with the organisation's culture. It is a tool that often provides results on cognitive testing, job sample tests, or personality tests.

Interviews: Snape and Redman (2020) note that an interview process is another constructive practice to determine a candidate's level of organisational citizenship behaviour. This can be achieved by highlighting the importance of positive behaviours for the benefit of both the organisation and its employees.

3.6.2 Re-evaluating performance management

Turek and Wojtczuk-Turek (2015) advice organisations to incorporate organisational citizenship behaviour as part of their performance and appraisal management processes, as this will help HR to successfully measure and reward organisational citizenship behaviour. Tashtoush and Eyupoglu (2020) assert that organisational citizenship behaviour can be integrated into performance management through goals and objectives and a reward system. The organisation's goals and objectives should encourage teamwork and unity and loyalty among employees, whereas a reward system is likely to stimulate consistent positive employee behaviour.

3.6.3 Management involvement

Managers hold prominent and influential roles within the organisations, which makes them best suited to inspire organisational citizenship behaviour. Thus, managers should set precedents to their subordinates by being polite, considerate and participate in work events. This is likely to encourage employees to engage in similar behaviour in their respective levels of employment (Fajar & Soeling, 2017).

3.7 Defining psychological capital

The concept of “psychological capital” originates from the field of positive psychology and was introduced in the late 1990s by Martin Seligman. Individuals with psychological capital are those who positively value daily life events and increase their chances of success through perseverance and effort. Psychological capital represents a positive state of individual psychological development characterised by the dimensions of hope, self-efficacy, optimism, and resilience which foster the capacity for development and can enhance people’s lives (Luthans, Bruce, James, & Steven, 2007). Manzano-García and Ayala (2017) contend that psychological capital stimulates the cognitive, emotional, conative, and social systems that contribute to individual psychological well-being. The concept significantly correlates with positive behaviours like organisational citizenship behaviour.

While Çavus and Kapusuz (2015) mention that employee psychological and physical involvement is critical for an organisation’s success and ability to achieve its goals. (Lee & Yang, 2019) affirm that psychological capital improves a person’s ability to be proactive and deal with challenging situations, which, in turn, promotes psychological well-being

and effective work performance. Similarly, Harun (2019) found that psychological capital is likely to have a positive impact on performance outcomes. Therefore, organisations need to be encouraged to motivate positive employee behaviours to foster positive work relationships and experiences. According to Görgens-Ekermans and Herbert (2013), positive experiences enhance an individual's capacity to act effectively, attain high-performance levels, and recognise their full potential.

3.8 Psychological capital and positive psychology

As mentioned above, the concept of psychological capital originates from the field of positive psychology with its focus on the positive traits and strengths of human behaviour such as well-being. Psychological capital and positive psychology are both applied to assess what is healthy and what is unhealthy about people. Psychological capital emphasises the accomplishments and their significance within a person's life. These concepts have made significant contributions to people's well-being and are regarded as essential to understanding human behaviour, motivation, cognitive functioning, success, and positive job outcomes (Lee & Yang, 2019). Çavus and Kapusuz (2015) add that psychological capital offers meaningful values and emotions, which, in turn, encourage positive organisational citizenship behaviour in companies or in the community at large.

Positive psychology is presented by many characteristics, for instance, happiness. Malik (2013) sees happiness as important in organisations for sustaining a happy and healthy working environment. Happy employees are crucial for business success because they are often more productive, positive about their work, and adhere to deadlines (Malik, 2013). Seligman (2011) also came to the conclusion that cheerful workers are optimistic, successfully handle and balance obstacles in both their personal and professional lives and can maintain positive emotions even in difficult circumstances.

As mentioned above, psychological capital consists of four dimensions or constructs: hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism (Kawalya, Munene, Ntayi, Kagaari, Mafabi, & Kasekende, 2019). Kawalya *et al.* (2019) claim that psychological capital and its four constructs have been empirically proven to define happiness in the workplace. Optimism is associated with long-term happiness at work, whereas self-efficacy has a favourable effect on happiness within the workplace (Malik, 2013). Similarly, hope and resilience

are favourably correlated with employees' job satisfaction and business loyalty (Hyusein & Eyupoglu, 2022).

3.9 Psychological capital constructs

The four constructs of psychological capital, hope, self-efficacy, optimism, and resilience, yield high levels of employee efficacy and motivation (Rabenu & Tziner, 2020). These dimensions are regarded as positive mechanisms to be used against both internal and external stressors and as contributing factors towards increased individual positivity levels, which improve well-being and efficiency levels (Lee & Yang, 2019). These constructs will be detailed below.

Hope: Hope involves personal motivation to succeed in a goal or task. It is a constructive expectation that future outcomes will be positive. Hope is seen as a motivational aspect that is based on interactively derived notions of successful agency (goal-oriented energy) and pathways (plans to execute goals). It is accepted as a method for coping with and resolving stressful situations (Burhanuddin, Ahmad, Rozita, & Asimiran, 2019).

Hope also has a positive impact on aspects like emotional health (Lee & Yang, 2019). For instance, Geremias, Lopes, and Soares (2022) found a strong correlation between hope and work-related challenges. According to their research, businesses with employees who exhibit higher levels of hope are more profitable, have higher retention rates, and achieve higher levels of employee satisfaction and commitment.

Kawalya *et al.* (2019) also identified that people with high hope levels frequently exert more effort towards achieving their goals, consider different approaches in executing things, are adept at handling challenging circumstances, possess high levels of self-esteem, and engage less in negativity. Malik (2013) agrees by mentioning that managers with greater hope levels have proportionately higher performing work units, improved retention rates, and more satisfied employees.

Ohlin (2017) notes that employees often look up to their organisation leaders. As a result, leaders with high hope levels have the ability to positively impact employee job satisfaction, performance, and motivation. Grabarek (2018) mentions that hope supports the desire for positive outcomes, while Çavus and Kapusuz (2015) point out the positive

and significant relationship between hope, life satisfaction, work satisfaction, and job performance.

Self-efficacy: Self-efficacy refers to an individual's confidence in their ability to accomplish goals and overcome obstacles. It stems from the gradual acquisition of complex cognitive, social and/or physical skills through experience. Self-efficacy encompasses three dimensions, namely magnitude, strength, and generality (Thiruvenskadam & Durairaj, 2017). Magnitude describes the degree of task difficulty, whereas strength describes how strongly or weakly one believes in the enormity of the task. Generality indicates the degree to which the expectation is generalised across situations.

According to Fajar and Soeling (2017), organisations should encourage and attain a high self-efficacy level among employees because it can influence both personal and professional goals. As claimed by Luthans and Youssef-Morgan (2017), employees who have high levels of self-efficacy are more likely to prioritise work activities, put in extra effort to learn how to perform difficult and novel tasks, and devote more time and effort to complete tasks. These individuals successfully manage their unpleasant experiences and persistently find solutions to problems. Conversely, employees who have poor self-efficacy frequently lack confidence, which negatively affects their ambition levels.

Research by Rabenu and Tziner (2020) revealed that people learn and perform at levels that are compatible with their self-efficacy beliefs. This means that poor self-efficacy will affect the learning, perseverance, and effort that employees exert on the job. Gautam, Ningthoujam, and Singh (2019) are of the opinion that self-efficacy is highly shaped by an individual's past performance, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional cues. Past performance refers to individuals who have previously succeeded on the job-related tasks and can complete similar tasks, whereas vicarious experience refers to individuals who are often encouraged by a colleague's success. Verbal persuasion pertains to individuals' being verbally convinced of their abilities to succeed at a task, while emotional cues pertains to individuals' anticipating failure in a given endeavour (Fajar & Soeling, 2017).

Optimism: Burhanuddin *et al.* (2019) optimism is a psychological intention and expectation for positive outcomes rather than negative outcomes. According to Božek's (2015) conceptualisation, optimism is a critical construct in positive psychology, while Geremias *et al.* (2022) found that optimism has a significant and positive impact on both physical and psychological health. Similarly, Çavus and Kapusuz (2015) demonstrated that optimism and well-being have a positive relationship with psychological capital, whereas Nwanzu and Babalola (2019) indicated that optimism contributes to employee well-being, personal growth, good relations with colleagues, pride in accomplishments, and a sense of purpose and general happiness in the workplace. All these factors, ultimately, affect personal satisfaction, good health, and work fulfilment.

Burhanuddin *et al.* (2019) mention that optimists perform above expectations, have high satisfaction and aspiration levels and morale, and employ problem-focused strategies to deal with challenges. They view personal failures and setbacks as transient rather than indicative of personal inadequacies. Božek (2015) concurs by stating that optimistic individuals in an organisation yield greater positive psychological and work-related outcomes in comparison to predominately pessimistic individuals (individuals who often anticipate the worst possible outcome in a situation). When faced with challenges, pessimists often employ emotional coping mechanisms, which ultimately lead to failure, social estrangement, and potential depression.

Resilience: Resilience is a positive component of positive organisational behaviour and entails the ability to cope with and recover from failure, conflict or increased responsibility. Psychological resilience is perceived as processes initiated to protect the self from the negative effects of potential stressors (Riopel, 2019).

Luthans and Youssef-Morgan (2017) distinguish between organisational and individual resilience. Organisational resilience is viewed as the organisation's ability to withstand significant economic instability or system disruptions by adjusting, recovering, and continuing to provide an acceptable level of functioning. On the other hand, individual resilience is explained by Rabenu and Tziner (2020) as behaviours, thoughts, and actions that advance personal health and psychological well-being.

Malik (2013) is of the opinion that resilient individuals can easily adapt to stressful circumstances and apply efficient coping mechanisms to deal with unpleasant encounters. According to Çavus and Kapusuz (2015), individuals need psychological resilience to deal with uncertainty, unfavourable circumstances, and general life obstacles.

Gautam *et al.* (2019) identifies stressors, the environmental context, the person–environment transactional process, internal resilience factors, the resilience process, and adoption and re-integration as factors that influence resilience. Stressors arise from an individual's perception that they are unable to positively deal with a situation, while the environmental context refers to individuals who often experience stress when engaged in environments that are unpleasant and characterised by unclear expectations and uncertainty. The person–environment transactional process refers to two individuals experiencing different stress levels in the same situation because they each possess different skills and resources (Riopel, 2019). Internal resilience factors reflect qualities in an individual such as self-efficacy, self-confidence, internal locus of control, hopefulness, and optimism. Similarly, the resilience process pertains to an individual's belief that their actions are responsible for their experiences and the events they encounter. Lastly, adoption and re-integration involve individuals who have adequate tools to deal with and recuperate from negative circumstances (Grabarek, 2018).

3.10 Psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour

According to Suifan (2016), psychological capital has emerged as a significant concept in constructive organisational citizenship behaviour. Psychological capital emphasises individual positive attributes rather than personality traits. It is regarded as the main antecedent of employee attitude and has considerable influence on organisational outcomes. Harun (2019) explains that positive emotions expand an individual's attention and pertains to their patterns of thinking and positive habits, as well as their organisational citizenship behaviour.

Research by Avey, Reichard, Luthans, and Mhatre (2011) revealed that psychological capital significantly improves in-role performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. Similarly, Bogler and Somech (2019), in a study on employees across different sectors, concluded that psychological capital is associated with positive

emotions that are linked to employee attitude, deviant behaviour, and organisational citizenship behaviour. Additional results showed that the association between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour was mediated by positive emotions.

In an investigation on employees in distinctive industries, Suifan (2016) affirmed that psychological capital is positively correlated with desired extra-role organisation citizenship behaviour but negatively correlated with undesired organisational cynicism, intention to quit, and counterproductive workplace behaviours. Avey *et al.* (2011) also found a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour, specifically desirable employee behaviour.

Psychological capital is likely to promote contextual behaviours (including organisational citizenship behaviour), increase positive attitudes and intentions, and improve work performance. This, in turn, is expected to produce the desired job outcomes such as ethical performance. Likewise, Qadeer and Jaffery (2014) assert that positive psychological capital will influence an employee's demonstrated levels of organisational citizenship behaviour, whereas Bogler and Somech (2019) affirm that employees with high levels of positive psychological capital are most likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour. In other words, individuals who possess high levels of positive psychological capital will be more prone to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour compared to those with lower levels of positive psychological capital.

3.11 Theoretical framework

As alluded to before, Seligman pioneered positive psychology in 1998 with the goal of defining happiness. Positive psychological outcomes are those that enable people to thrive and promote a good life. In this context, a "good life" refers to components that improve people's quality of life by cultivating strong character traits and making life worth living. Positive psychology enhances individual well-being by stimulating positive emotions, strengths, happiness, fulfilment, self-worth, self-confidence, and hope. It builds beneficial characteristics like gratitude or compassion and fosters pleasant experiences like love (Seligman, 2002). According to Ackerman (2020), positive psychology encourages the development of constructive institutions to support values like responsibility and accountability within the organisation. Balkhi (2020) asserts that

the main tenets of positive psychology include acknowledging and emphasising one's own strengths, expressing appreciation, looking at the bright side, and making progress towards one's goals.

Seligman (2002) explains that positive psychology distinguishes between hedonic and eudaimonic approaches when analysing personal well-being. The hedonic approach emphasises happiness and defines well-being in terms of seeking pleasure and avoiding pain (Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2015). This approach can be described as subjective well-being, which consists of a cognitive component involving the evaluation of satisfaction, and an affective component characterised by the predominance of positive emotions over negative emotions. On the other hand, the eudaimonic approach emphasises the capacities that people have control over, for example, managing their own behaviour and context-specific demands, developing their potential while maintaining positive relationships with others, accepting their limitations, maintaining a positive attitude, and establishing meaning and direction in their lives (Gómez-López, Viejo, & Ortega-Ruiz, 2019). Cherry (2021) notes that the eudaimonic approach encompasses dimensions such as self-acceptance, environmental mastery, positive relations, personal growth, finding purpose in life, and autonomy.

According to Robertson (2022), self-acceptance reflects an individual's positive attitude about themselves. Environmental mastery relates to a sense of control and competence in controlling the environment; the ability to manage a wide range of external activities; the ability to effectively take advantage of opportunities; and the ability to create contexts that suit personal requirements and values.

The notion of positive relations is defined by Butakhieo and Vyas (2020) as a person's engagement in meaningful relationships that involve reciprocal empathy, intimacy, and affection. An individual who experiences personal growth is continually growing, is open to new experiences, and recognises improvements in self-behaviour, whereas someone who has purpose in life demonstrates a strong goal orientation and conviction that life holds meaning. The concept of autonomy refers to a person's independence and regulation free of social influences and the ability to control their own behaviour (Cherry, 2021).

According to Seligman (2011), positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment (PERMA) provide a holistic framework for understanding the dimensions of well-being. The PERMA model was developed to assist people who experience hopelessness and struggle with psychological challenges such as depression, anxiety, or stress. The PERMA model is demonstrated in figure 1 below:

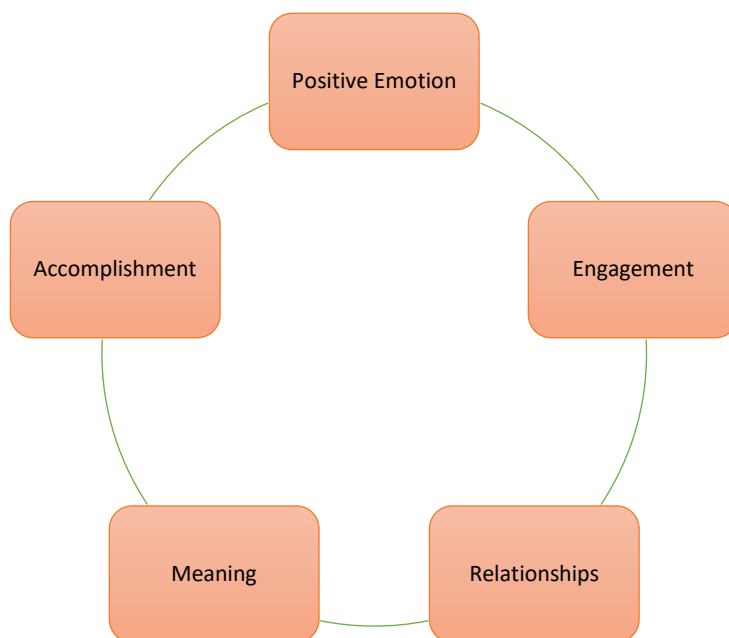


Figure 1: The PERMA model (Seligman, 2011)

The PERMA model emphasises positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment, which are considered key components of a fulfilling life (Seligman, 2018). By using the PERMA model, researchers can assess the well-being of individuals across multiple domains, allowing for a more comprehensive understanding of their overall psychological health.

Repko (2021) states that positive emotions are the driving force behind an individual's growth. This can counteract negative emotions and foster resilience, while engagement entails that a person is fully immersing themselves in an activity, applying their skills, strengths, and attention to the task at hand. Relationships are about having a sense of support, being cherished, and being respected by others. Meaning is described as belonging to or serving something greater than ourselves. When people have a purpose in life, they focus on what is truly important. Lastly, accomplishments refer to the

outcomes of working hard to attain goals and possessing the self-motivation to complete set goals or tasks.

The PERMA model has been widely studied and validated in empirical research and has been used in numerous psychological well-being studies. For instance, Lomas, Medina, Ivztan, and Rupprecht (2019) applied the model to develop and evaluate a positive psychology intervention for college students. The intervention aimed to enhance well-being by drawing on each of the five PERMA elements. In another study, Gander, O’Keeffe, Santos-Fernandez, Huntington, Walker, and Willis (2019) used PERMA to explore the relationships between work-related factors and well-being in employees.

3.12 Conceptual framework

Drawing from the literature review and theoretical framework of the study, the conceptual framework for this study is presented in figure 2 below:

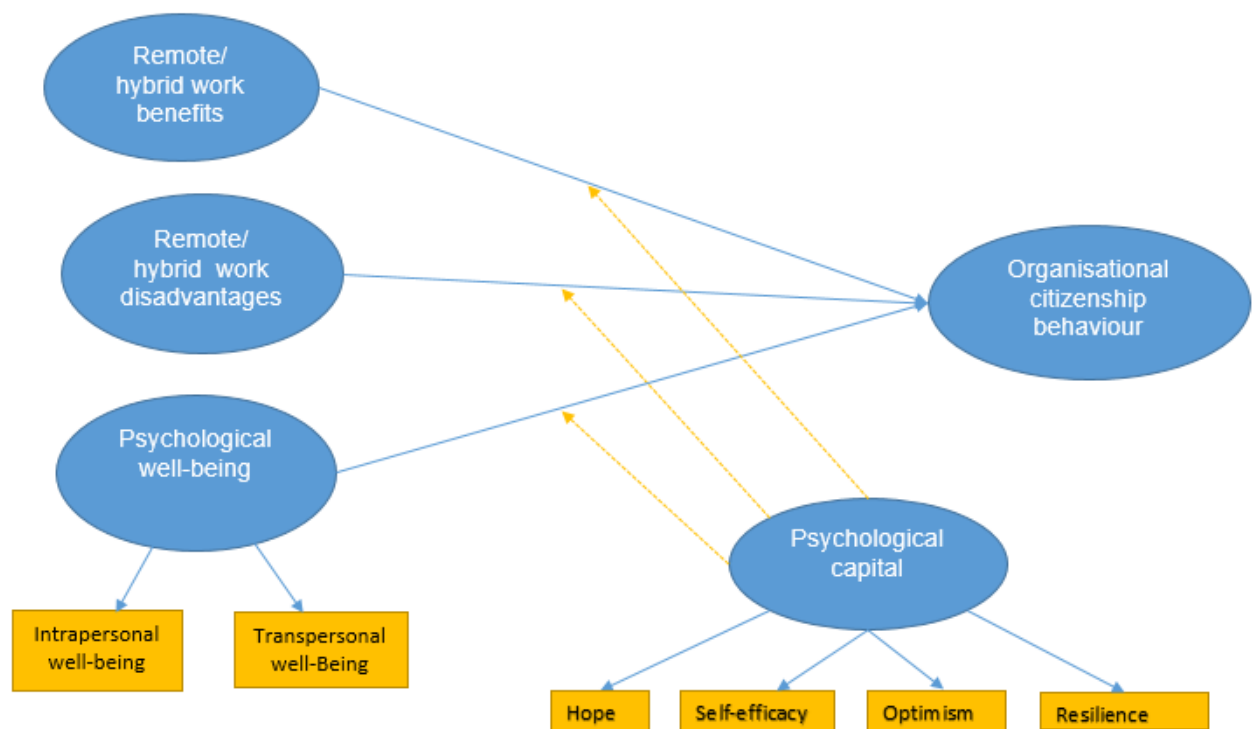


Figure 2: Conceptual framework for the study

Figure 2 indicates that “remote and hybrid work benefits and disadvantages” and “psychological well-being” (“intrapersonal and transpersonal well-being”) are the independent variables of the study, whereas “organisational citizenship behaviour” is the dependent variable. “Psychological capital” is shown to be the moderating variable for the study.

The factors that determine the psychological challenges associated with remote and hybrid work are stress, depression, and anxiety, whereas the psychological well-being determinants include recognising and focusing on own strength, expressing gratitude, finding the silver lining, and moving towards your goals. As mentioned earlier, the determinants of organisational citizenship behaviour include positive attitude and contribution to society, promoting and protecting the organisation, working overtime, developing skills beneficial to the organisation, voluntary participation, and adhering to organisation rules. Lastly, psychological capital encompasses four dimensions, namely optimism, resilience, hope, and self-efficacy.

The psychological challenges that employees experience related to remote and hybrid work impact their organisational citizenship behaviour. This means that employees should first be psychologically healthy to be able to positively contribute to the organisation or practice positive behaviour.

3.13 Summary

This chapter focused on defining organisational citizenship behaviour, which refers to employees who are willing to work beyond their contractual agreement to realise organisational objectives. The chapter also addressed individual and organisational levels of organisational citizenship behaviour, as well as the concept of psychological capital, which is an individual’s positive state characterised by four constructs namely hope, self-efficacy, optimism, and resilience.

The chapter further explained social loafing in the context of organisational citizenship behaviour to determine how organisational citizenship behaviour can be promoted. Literature was provided on HR practices that are beneficial for improved organisational citizenship behaviour, as well as on the correlation between psychological capital and positive psychology. Additional aspects that were discussed included the association

between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour, plus the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Research, as defined by Kowalczyk and Scalia (2013), is a thorough investigation in which scientific techniques are applied to solve particular issues or problems. It is a systematic process that applies to all stages of the research endeavour – from the rationale behind the study, the aims and objectives, the research design, the methodology to investigate the problem, and the conclusions drawn.

According to McCombes (2019), research methodology is a particular method employed in a study to identify, select, process, and analyse information about a phenomenon. It involves a structured approach to conducting research and is essential in ensuring that the research is valid, reliable, and credible (Zarah, 2020). The purpose of research is to educate readers, advance theory, provide new, and add to existing, knowledge. It allows researchers to uncover unknown facts to enable a better understanding of the world (Boase & Ling, 2013).

The aim of this chapter is to detail the research methodology applied in the study. The chapter will outline the researcher's philosophical stance, as well as the research approach and design chosen for the study. The chapter will further explain the study population and sampling and the method used to collect the data. Details will be provided on the procedure followed by the researcher to attain the consent of the respondents prior to data collection.

The chapter will also address the reliability assurance of the study to determine the research credibility, as well as the validity assurance to corroborate the accuracy of the selected research instruments. Additional insights will be given on the data analysis process and the statistical analysis applicable to the study. The pilot study will be discussed, which was conducted to assess the feasibility of the research methods chosen for the study.

4.2 Research philosophy/paradigm

As alluded to in chapter 1, this study adhered to the ontological position of objectivism and the epistemological position of positivism. According to Cheung (2019), positivism

is an epistemological approach to knowledge and research that emphasises the use of empirical, scientific methods to study the world. Scientific methods involve formulating hypotheses, testing them through observation and experimentation, and drawing conclusions based on the data collected. Positivists believe that the world can be studied objectively, and that knowledge can be derived through direct observation and measurement of a phenomenon. Therefore, researchers must find facts by gathering and analysing data to either support or reject their study hypothesis (Bless, Smith, & Sithole, 2016).

4.3 Research approach and design

Creswell (2014) asserts that the research approach and design are influenced by the philosophical stance that a researcher takes towards conducting their research and involve the overall research strategy used to perform a study. The research approach and design are critical in guiding the collection and analysis of data, and, ultimately, the findings and conclusions of the study. The three common approaches to conducting research are quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods.

The quantitative approach uses numerical data to draw conclusions about a particular phenomenon. It applies surveys, experiments, and statistical analysis to collect and analyse the data to identify patterns, correlations, and other relationships between variables (Busetto, Wick, & Gumbinger, 2020). On the other hand, a qualitative approach entails gathering and analysing non-numerical data, such as texts, photos, and observations to understand a particular phenomenon (Asenahabi, 2019). It employs non-numerical data collection techniques like focus groups, interviews, and observations. A variety of methodologies, including thematic analysis, discourse analysis, and grounded theory, are then applied to analyse the data to identify patterns, themes, and other associations within the data. Qualitative research is performed to generate descriptive data that capture the complexity and diversity of a particular phenomenon.

The third approach is mixed methods, which is a strategy that integrates quantitative and qualitative techniques into a single study. The goal is to harness the advantages of both approaches to generate a comprehensive understanding of a particular topic (Sileyew, 2019).

A quantitative approach was followed in this study to gather objective and empirical data which could be generalised to the relevant population (Bless *et al.*, 2016). The study adopted the survey design to collect data because it is a flexible design which allows for more than one method of recruiting participants. A survey design involves defining the research question, determining the target population, developing a survey instrument, selecting the sample population, conducting a pilot study, administering the survey, and analysing the data collected (Walters, 2021).

4.4 Population and sampling

A population is defined as participants, objects, events or organisations with common characteristics that the researcher is interested in (Dudovskiy, 2021). It establishes the parameters of the investigation, the choice of participants or sample objects, and the applicability of the findings to a wider community. The unit of investigation for this study was formally employed South Africans across multiple industries who were affected by remote and hybrid work during and after the Covid-19 pandemic.

The researcher used the database of employed individuals who had completed either a BTech in HRM or an advanced and postgraduate diploma in HRM as part of the Central University of Technology, Free State's (CUT) Maccauvlei project. The population for the study was 795. According to Israel (1992), for any population more than 700 a sample size of 255 is sufficient. Ultimately, the researcher gathered 402 questionnaires that were used for data analysis.

4.5 Data collection instrument

As mentioned previously, a structured questionnaire was used to gather information from participants. A structured questionnaire is a measuring instrument with standardised questions to collect data from the study participants and is commonly used in quantitative research to collect data that can be statistically analysed. It is closed-ended, in other words respondents can only choose answers from options provided by the researcher such as multiple choice, rating scales, or yes/no questions. The structure of the questionnaire is designed to ensure that each respondent is asked the same questions in the same order, making it easier for the researcher to analyse and compare responses (Cheung, 2019).

The questionnaire applicable to this study consisted of the following sections (see Annexure C):

Section A: Demographics: The demographic section captured the respondents' gender, education level, and industry of employment.

Section B: Remote and hybrid work: This section gathered data about the experiences of respondents related to remote and hybrid work. The section was based on the research of Ingusci, Signore, Cortese, Molino, Pasca, and Ciavolino (2022).

Section C: Psychological well-being: This section captured the perceived intrapersonal and transpersonal psychological well-being of respondents based on the work of Sham, Yeung, Mak, and Powell (2021).

Section D: Organisational citizenship behaviour: This section utilised the work of Kane (2014) and Sharma and Jain (2014) to capture responses related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Section E: Psychological capital: The last section was informed by the research of Shihaam (2014) and Latoya (2008) to capture responses pertaining to psychological capital.

4.6 Data collection procedures

Data collection procedures constitute a fundamental aspect of the research process, encompassing a systematic approach to gathering, recording, and analysing information for the purpose of generating insights and advancing knowledge. These procedures are a critical component of various fields, including scientific research, social sciences, business, and more.

The data collection procedures applied in the study were as follows:

- Respondents provided their consent before being approached for participation in the study.

- Respondents were contacted through email and face-to-face correspondence to inform them of, and request their participation in, the study. A link to the questionnaire (QuestionPro) was provided via email and WhatsApp.

4.7 Reliability and validity assurance

Reliability and validity are two important concepts in research that are used to assess the quality of the data and the findings (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014). Reliability refers to the credibility of the research and helps determine consistency. Reliability pertains to the degree to which the research instrument produces the same results on repeated trials (Bless *et al.*, 2016). Validity, on the other hand, pertains to the extent to which a research instrument reflects the reality of the constructs it measures; thus, does the research measure what it is supposed to measure (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014).

Partial least squares (PLS) structural equation modelling (SEM) was applied to confirm both the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Specifically, it measured indicator reliability, convergent validity, internal consistency reliability, and discriminant validity. PLS-SEM was further used to determine the relationship between the variables, namely psychological well-being, remote and hybrid work, and organisational citizenship behaviour, as well as the moderating effect of the psychological capital.

4.8 Data analysis

Data analysis entails the organisation and presentation of collected, raw information in a meaningful way to enhance its fundamental properties (Bless *et al.*, 2016). The following statistical tests were applied in this study:

- Descriptive statistics: to provide a summary of the data to discern the patterns, trends, and distributions within the dataset. This was presented by means of tables and graphs.
- PLS-SEM: to determine the reliability and validity of the questionnaire and to determine the relationship between the variables.

4.9 Pilot study

According to Whitehead, Julious, Cooper, and Campbell (2016), a pilot study is a preliminary study that is conducted on a smaller scale prior to the actual study to assess

the feasibility and effectiveness of the research methods and techniques. Pilot studies are used by researchers to identify aspects of the study that were not considered during the study design phase. The purpose of a pilot study is to identify and modify potential issues with the study design, such as inadequate sample size or data collection methods. A pilot study can be conducted using different methods, including surveys, interviews, focus groups, and randomised controlled trials (Kumar, 2014).

Overall, pilot studies reduce the risk of conducting a flawed large-scale study, improve the accuracy of the study results, and save time and resources. However, pilot studies come with drawbacks such as possible bias due to the small sample size, limiting the generalisability of the findings.

For the current research, a preliminary study was conducted targeting 10 formally employed individuals within the higher education sector. These employees experienced the challenges and benefits of remote work because of the Covid-19 pandemic. However, they did not form part of the study population. Respondents experienced no challenges in the completion of the questionnaire and the questionnaire was accepted without changes for the main study.

4.10 Summary

This chapter outlined the philosophical stance of the researcher and explained the research approach and design applicable to the study. It discussed the study population and sampling and detailed the instrument that was used to collect the data. Because it is critical for respondents to give consent before participation, the data collection procedures followed by the researcher were explained.

The chapter the measures applied to test the reliability and validity of the study to ultimately establish the credibility of the research and ensure that the research instrument measured what it was supposed to measure. The data analysis process was addressed by referring to the statistical tests used in the study to draw conclusions on the findings. Lastly, the chapter mentioned the pilot study conducted by the researcher to assess the feasibility of the research methods chosen for the study.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the findings of the investigation. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied to interpret the data. Descriptive statistics include graphs and tables, while inferential statistics include PLS-SEM to indicate the correlation between the variables.

5.2 Descriptive statistics

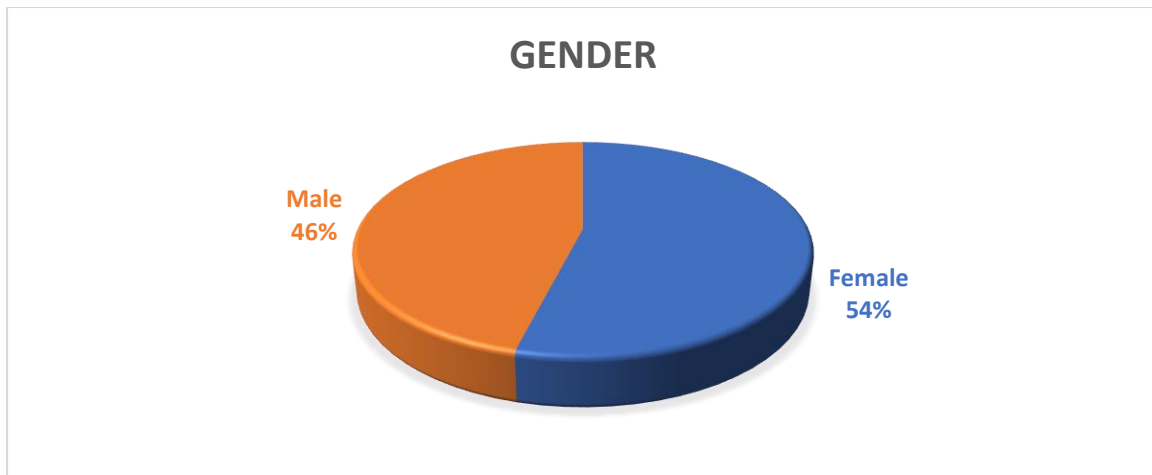
Descriptive statistics involves summarising, organising, and presenting data meaningfully and concisely (Simplilearn, 2023). It describes and analyses the key traits and qualities of a dataset without drawing any generalisations or assumptions about a larger population. Thus, descriptive statistics provides a meaningful summary of the data to learn new knowledge and comprehend patterns, trends, and distributions within the dataset. According to Trochim (2020), the summary includes measures of central tendency (mean, median, and mode), dispersion (range, variance, and standard deviation), and distribution shape (skewness, kurtosis). Descriptive statistics often uses graphical representation of data through charts, graphs, and tables to aid in interpreting the data. Common graphical approaches include histograms, bar charts, pie charts, scatter plots, and box plots.

In the current study, 402 responses were captured for data analysis. The following section provides the descriptive statistics of the data gathered from the questionnaire. All respondents were formally employed in South Africa and were affected by remote and hybrid work during the Covid-19 pandemic.

5.2.1 Section A: Demographics

The demographic variables of the respondents included gender, education level, and industry of employment and are presented below.

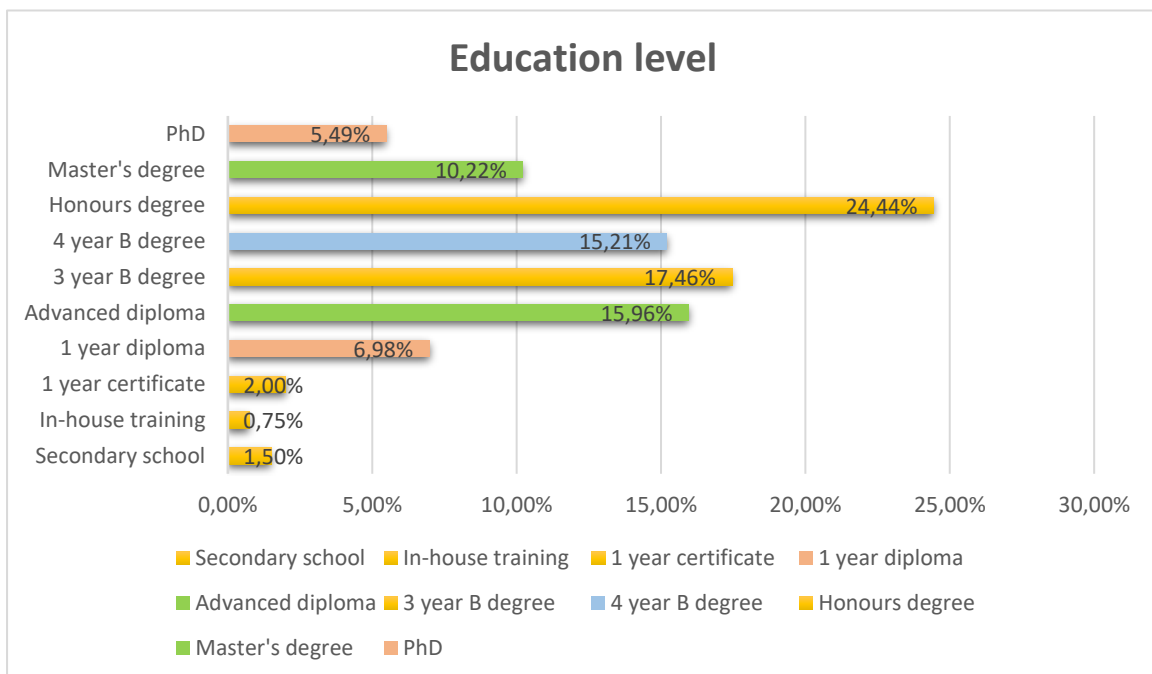
In question 1, respondents were asked to indicate their gender. This is indicated in graph 1 below.



Graph 1: Gender of respondents

Graph 1 illustrates that 217 (54%) of the respondents were females and 185 (46%) males completed the questionnaire, representing the total of 402 respondents.

In question 2, respondents had to indicate their education level. This is presented in graph 2 below.

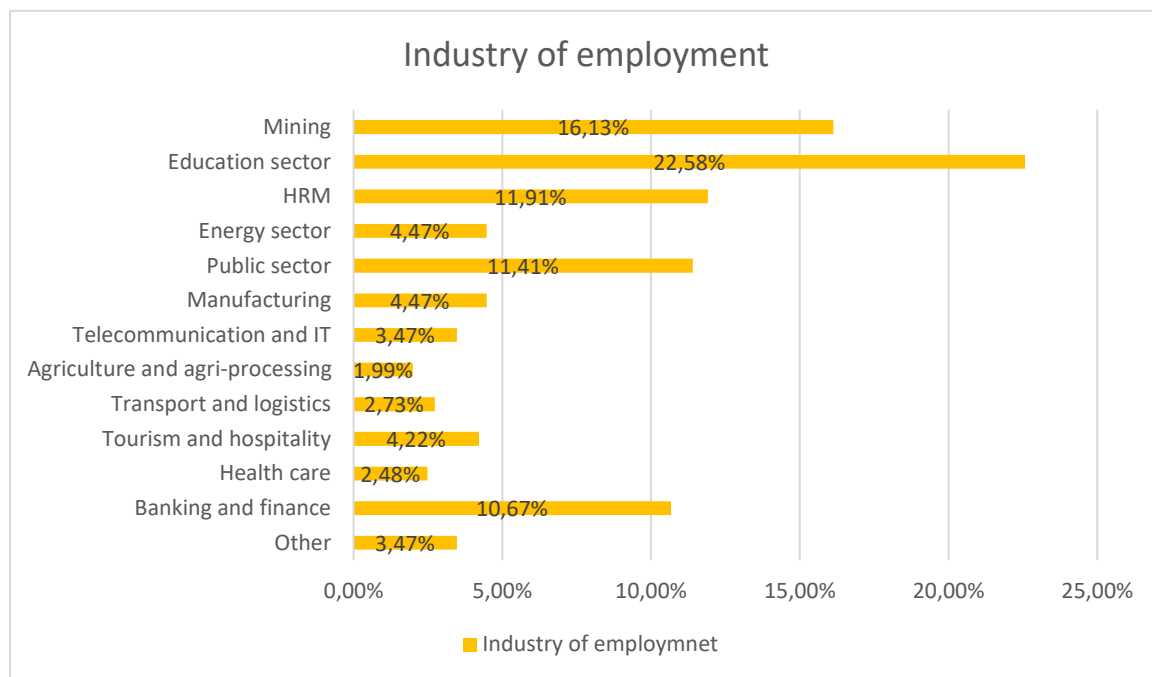


Graph 2: Education level

Graph 2 reveals that a small number (5.49%) of the respondents completed their PhD, while 10.22% completed their master's degree and 24.44% their honours degree. A fair

number of respondents, 15.21%, were successful in obtaining a four-year bachelor's degree and 17.46% a three-year bachelor's degree. Further responses showed that 15.96% held an advanced diploma, whereas only 6.98% completed a one-year diploma. A small group of respondents (2.00%) possessed a one-year certificate, while 0.75% received in-house training, and 1.50% completed secondary school.

In question 3, participants were asked to reveal their industry of employment, which is illustrated in graph 3 below.



Graph 3: Industry of employment

According to graph 3, 16.3% of participants were employed in the mining industry. Most of the participants (22.59%) revealed that they were employed in the education sector, whereas 11.91% were working within HRM and 11.41% in the public sector. A small number (4.47%) of participants indicated employment within the energy sector, with the same number involved in manufacturing. Another small group (3.47%) were employed in the telecommunication and IT sector, while 1.99% were employed within the agriculture and agri-processing sector. Other small groups are the 2.73% in the transport and logistics sector, the 4.22% in the tourism and hospitality sector, and the 2.48% in the health care sector. A larger group (10.67%) indicated employment in banking and finance. Only 3.47% of the participants selected "other" but did not specify the industry of employment.

5.2.2 Section B: Remote and hybrid work benefits and disadvantages

This section details the participants' perceptions regarding both the benefits and disadvantages of remote and hybrid work.

Table 1: Remote and hybrid work scores

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Remote work benefits							
1.1	I am able to coordinate work–family balance and/or to meet family needs in an appropriate way while working from home.	2.73%	4.96%	4.22%	7.94%	41.19%	38.96%
1.2	I save on commuting costs while working remotely.	1.76%	1.51%	1.01%	6.28%	32.66%	56.78%
1.3	Through remote working I have sufficient time to myself and endure less stress.	2.27%	5.29%	4.53%	9.82%	37.03%	41.06%
1.4	I comprehensively plan my work schedule and concentrate better while working from home.	2.75%	4.75%	5.00%	11.25%	36.75%	39.50%
1.5	I have positive relations with colleagues and supervisors while working remotely.	1.00%	6.75%	3.75%	10.75%	37.75%	40.00%
1.6	I have adequate access to business-related IT resources while working from home.	2.76%	4.76%	5.51%	12.78%	35.84%	38.35%
1.7	Working remotely. I experience increased job satisfaction.	2.50%	6.25%	3.75%	9.00%	35.00%	43.50%
Remote working disadvantages							

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.8	When I work from home, I lose a sense of belonging to my office.	11.44%	39.30%	10.45%	17.66%	16.17%	4.98%
1.9	I encounter isolation challenges and a lack of socialisation with colleagues while working from home.	10.75%	34.50%	11.50%	18.25%	19.50%	5.50%
1.10	With remote working I encounter a lack of recognition of my own work.	11.00%	37.75%	14.75%	17.50%	14.00%	5.00%
1.11	I experience difficulty in accessing work-related information and documents from colleagues while working remotely.	10.00%	37.00%	12.25%	21.25%	15.00%	4.50%
1.12	I encounter challenges in scheduling my work while working from home.	11.22%	41.40%	14.96%	15.71%	12.97%	3.74%
1.13	While working from home, there is less access to professional training and a lack of career progression.	10.75%	37.75%	11.00%	19.00%	16.75%	4.75%
1.14	I feel micromanaged by my superiors while working from home.	12.50%	40.25%	12.75%	14.75%	14.50%	5.25%
1.15	I am distracted and disturbed by domestic duties while working from home.	9.98%	32.92%	12.72%	15.96%	8.20%	10.22%
1.16	I am not involved in work decision-making processes while I work from home.	9.95%	40.80%	11.69%	14.18%	15.67%	7.71%

Remote and hybrid work benefits

According to table 1, 38.96% of the respondents strongly agreed that they can coordinate work–family balance and/or meet family needs in an appropriate way while working from

home (question 1.1). In question 1.2, 32.66% of the respondents agreed that they save on commuting costs while working from home. However, 2.75% in question 1.3 strongly disagreed to having sufficient time to themselves and enduring less stress. In question 1.4, the majority (39.50%) revealed that they can comprehensively plan their work schedule and concentrate better while working from home. In question 1.5, 6.75% indicated that they do not have positive relations with colleagues and supervisors while working remotely, but 38.35% (question 1.6) strongly agreed that there is adequate access to business-related IT resources when working from home. Most of the participants (43.50%) stated in question 1.7 that they have experienced increased job satisfaction while working remotely.

Remote and hybrid work disadvantages

Question 1.8 reveals that a large number of the respondents (39.30%) did not lose a sense of belonging to their offices when working from home. However, 19.50% stated in question 1.9 that they do encounter isolation challenges and a lack of socialisation with colleagues. According to responses to question 1.10, 37.75% disagreed to encountering a lack of recognition of their work while working from home. Some of the respondents (4.50%) stated in question 1.11 that they have trouble in accessing work-related information and documents from colleagues while working from home, whereas 3.74% encountered challenges in scheduling their work accordingly (question 1.12).

Most of the participants (37.75%) acknowledged that they receive access to professional training and career progression (question 1.13), but a small group (5.25%) felt micromanaged by supervisors while working from home (question 1.14). In question 1.15, 8.20% agreed that they are distracted and disturbed by domestic duties at home. However, 40.80% indicated in question 1.16 that they are involved in work decision-making processes while working from home.

5.2.3 Section C: Intrapersonal and transpersonal psychological well-being

This section elaborates on the respondents' views of both intrapersonal and transpersonal well-being.

Table 2: Intrapersonal and transpersonal well-being scores

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Intrapersonal well-being							
2.1	I feel happy.	0.75%	4.25%	3.75%	14.00%	53.75%	23.50%
2.2	When something bad happens, I can adjust my emotions.	2.00%	13.75%	5.25%	16.75%	48.00%	14.25%
2.3	I can focus on what I am doing.	2.00%	6.25%	4.00%	16.00%	50.25%	21.50%
2.4	I feel lively.	1.00%	5.50%	5.75%	13.50%	52.25%	22.00%
2.5	I feel calm.	2.02%	5.79%	4.79%	14.11%	49.62%	23.68%
2.6	I can manage my everyday life with my physical strength.	1.01%	6.30%	7.56%	21.16%	47.61%	16.37%
2.7	I can live with life's ups and downs and let go of unpleasant experiences.	1.00%	6.75%	7.00%	23.00%	47.50%	14.75%
2.8	I have a healthy body.	1.50%	5.50%	8.00%	14.00%	49.50%	21.50%
2.9	I feel satisfied with my life.	1.50%	3.75%	6.50%	14.00%	47.00%	27.25%
2.10	I feel energetic.	1.50%	5.75%	4.00%	12.75%	49.25%	26.75%
Transpersonal well-being							
2.11	I will participate in activities to promote social changes.	2.75%	9.75%	4.75%	25.00%	40.00%	17.75%
2.12	I care about what is happening in society.	0.50%	4.01%	3.01%	9.77%	53.13%	29.57%
2.13	I am grateful to people around me for all they have done for me.	0.25%	0.75%	1.50%	8.27%	53.38%	35.84%

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
2.14	I treat others with kindness.	0.25%	0.50%	1.50%	7.02%	51.88%	38.85%
2.15	People (of different age or gender) should have equal opportunities.	0.25%	0.50%	1.75%	8.27%	49.37%	39.85%
2.16	I am part of society.	0.25%	1.25%	1.00%	6.52%	52.88%	38.10%
2.17	I am empathic towards the pain of other people.	0.25%	3.26%	3.01%	10.78%	47.37%	35.34%
2.18	Personal stories connect me to people.	2.02%	10.58%	7.81%	13.35%	43.07%	23.17%
2.19	I am closely connected to the environment (e.g., discrimination, environmental quality, social atmosphere, etc.).	1.52%	7.32%	7.58%	18.18%	43.18%	22.22%
2.20	I am genuinely happy for the happiness of people around me.	0.51%	0.00%	2.02%	5.30%	55.81%	36.36%

Psychological well-being: Intrapersonal well-being

According to question 2.1, only 0.75% of the participants responded that they do not feel happy, while 45.00% affirmed that they are able to adjust their emotions when something bad happens (question 2.2). Responses to question 2.3 indicated that 50.25% of the participants feel they can focus on what they are doing. Most respondents (52.25%) in question 2.4 felt lively, whereas 49.62% in question 2.5 felt calm. In question 2.6, the minority of the respondents (1.01%) revealed that they cannot manage their everyday life with their physical strength.

Further responses showed that 47.50% of the respondents agreed that they can live with life's ups and downs and let go of unpleasant experiences (question 2.7), while 1.50% asserted that they do not have healthy bodies (question 2.8). In question 2.9, 14.00%

slightly agreed to feeling satisfied with their lives, and as little as 1.50% strongly disagreed to feeling energetic (question 2.10).

Psychological well-being: Transpersonal well-being

Table 2 reveals that 2.75% of the participants would not participate in activities to promote social changes (question 2.11), but 53.13% (question 2.12) seemed to care about what is happening in society. In question 2.13, 8.27% were not sure of their gratitude levels for people around them and all they had done for them. Responses in question 2.14 disclosed that 38.85% of the participants strongly agreed to treating others with kindness.

Almost half of the respondents (49.37%) agreed that people of different ages or genders should have equal opportunities (question 2.15). Just over half (52.88%) agreed in question 2.16 that they are part of society, while 3.01% slightly disagreed to being empathic towards the pain of other people (question 2.27). As little as 2.02% disclosed that personal stories do not connect them to other people (question 2.18). Further responses indicated that 22.22% strongly agreed to being closely connected to the environment (question 2.19), whereas 55.81% were genuinely happy for the happiness of people around them (question 2.20).

5.2.4 Section D: Organisational citizenship behaviour

This section illustrates the participants' responses regarding their level of organisational citizenship behaviour in their respective organisations.

Table 3: Organisational citizenship behaviour scores

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
3.1	I create a healthy and cheerful workplace environment.	2.00%	6.50%	4.75%	18.50%	44.75%	23.50%
3.2	I am motivated and motivate co-workers to achieve the organisational objectives.	1.50%	5.50%	5.75%	20.75%	43.50%	23.00%

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
3.3	I am punctual.	0.76%	5.56%	5.81%	13.89%	49.24%	24.75%
3.4	I am interested in taking extra lunch breaks.	10.30%	44.97%	12.56%	11.81%	15.33%	5.03%
3.5	I volunteer for additional tasks, even though it is not part of my job.	2.01%	14.54%	9.52%	17.79%	41.60%	14.54%
3.6	I am enthusiastic about my job.	0.75%	3.77%	4.27%	10.80%	50.25%	30.15%
3.7	I work more hours than what is required of me.	1.50%	10.53%	6.52%	14.29%	41.60%	25.56%
3.8	I participate in activities and meetings that could enhance my career.	1.01%	4.27%	6.78%	12.56%	49.50%	25.88%
3.9	If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	1.00%	4.01%	5.51%	18.05%	50.13%	21.30%
3.10	I am always looking for better ways to do things.	0.25%	4.51%	5.01%	15.54%	43.11%	31.58%
3.11	I excel at identifying opportunities.	0.50%	6.78%	9.55%	16.08%	46.73%	20.35%
3.12	I defend my organisation when others criticise it.	1.01%	6.05%	8.06%	17.88%	42.57%	24.43%
3.13	I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.	0.75%	4.02%	9.05%	15.08%	47.99%	23.12%
3.14	I attend non-compulsory functions and help improve the organisational image.	1.01%	8.59%	6.31%	21.72%	45.20%	17.17%

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
3.15	I keep up with the organisation developments.	0.76%	2.53%	3.80%	16.96%	51.90%	24.05%

Respondents (44.75%) in question 3.1 confirmed that they create a healthy and cheerful workplace environment, while 5.50% said they are not motivated and do not motivate colleagues to achieve organisational goals (question 3.2). For question 3.3, as little as 0.75% of the respondents strongly disagreed to being punctual, whereas less than half of the respondents (44.92%) were not interested in taking extra lunch breaks (question 3.4). A small number (9.5%) slightly disagreed to volunteering additional tasks not part of their jobs (question 3.5), but most respondents (50.25%) said they are enthusiastic about their jobs (question 3.6).

According to responses in question 3.7, 14.29% slightly agreed to working more hours than what is required of them. Responses to question 3.8 indicated that 49.50% of the respondents participate in activities and meetings that could enhance their careers. Although the minority (1.00%) in question 3.9 stated that they will not fix something they do not like, 31.58% asserted that they are always looking for better ways of doing things (question 3.10), while 16.08% slightly agreed that they excel in identifying opportunities (question 3.11).

A significant percentage (42.57%) in question 3.12 confirmed that they will defend their organisations when others criticise it, but an insignificant percentage (0.75%) will not offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation (question 3.13). Question 3.14 measured the attendance of non-compulsory functions, and almost half of the respondents (45.20%) agreed that they will attend such functions to help improve the organisational image. Just over half (51.90%) said that they keep up with organisation developments (question 3.15).

5.2.5 Section E: Psychological capital

Section E details the psychological capital responses.

Table 4: Psychological capital scores

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
4.1	I am confident in contributing to discussions about the company strategy.	1.74%	6.47%	4.98%	19.15%	45.02%	22.64%
4.2	I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	0.25%	2.49%	3.99%	14.46%	49.13%	29.68%
4.3	When things are uncertain for me at work, I remain positive.	1.50%	9.50%	10.75%	16.50%	43.25%	18.50%
4.4	I have no trouble recovering from a work setback or failure.	1.01%	12.31%	9.55%	19.10%	42.21%	15.83%
4.5	There are various ways of solving problems.	0.25%	3.26%	2.26%	9.77%	47.12%	37.34%
4.6	I am able to think of multiple ways to reach my work goals.	0.75%	4.75%	7.00%	14.75%	45.00%	27.75%
4.7	I manage work difficulties well.	0.50%	6.52%	5.01%	15.54%	50.13%	22.31%
4.8	I see myself as successful at work.	0.50%	2.26%	5.01%	8.27%	50.13%	33.83%
4.9	I am confident in presenting information to a group of colleagues.	0.50%	2.75%	4.50%	15.75%	49.75%	26.75%
4.10	I am optimistic about what will happen to me in the future, especially if it pertains to work.	1.50%	3.76%	4.51%	17.54%	47.12%	25.56%
4.11	I approach my job with confidence and knowledge.	0.75%	1.24%	1.74%	11.44%	49.50%	35.32%

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
4.12	I feel confident analysing a long-term problem to find a solution.	0.50%	1.25%	4.00%	12.50%	51.25%	30.50%
4.13	I can multitask on the job.	0.50%	5.00%	5.50%	12.00%	48.00%	29.00%
4.14	I have the skills required to successfully fulfil my job description.	0.50%	0.75%	1.75%	7.50%	54.25%	35.25%
4.15	I always choose to consider the positive aspects regarding my job.	0.25%	1.75%	3.50%	8.50%	49.50%	36.50%

According to table 4, 22.64% of the participants indicated that they are confident in contributing to discussions about the company strategy (question 4.1). In question 4.2, 0.25% strongly disagreed that they energetically pursue their work goals. Related to question 4.3, only 9.50% would not remain positive when things are uncertain for them at work. A significant percentage (42.12%) in question 4.4 had no trouble recovering from a work setback or failure, whereas a small percentage (9.77%) slightly agreed that there are various ways of solving problems (question 4.5).

In question 4.6, 27.75% of the respondents indicated that they could think of multiple ways to reach their work goals. Half (50.13%) stated that they manage work difficulties well (question 4.7), while 33.83% said they see themselves as successful at work (question 4.8). Question 4.9 showed that 2.75% are not confident in presenting information to a group of colleagues, whereas a reasonable percentage (25.56%) of respondents indicated that they are optimistic about what will happen to them in future, especially pertaining to work (question 4.10). According to responses in question 4.11, 35.32% strongly agreed that they approach their jobs with confidence and knowledge.

Only 1.25% of respondents in question 4.12 did not feel confident in analysing a long-term problem to find a solution. Question 4.13 indicated that 48.00% can multitask on the job, while 7.50% in question 4.14 slightly agreed that they have the required skills to

successfully fulfil their job description. In question 4.15, 36.50% affirmed that they will always choose to consider the positive aspects of their jobs.

5.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics is a group of quantitative techniques that primarily enable the researcher to not only test hypotheses in a study, but to also estimate values in a population from which a sample has been drawn. Inferential statistics uses sample data to make inferences or predictions about a population. It involves statistical calculations and assumptions to analyse data and draw conclusions relevant to the larger population.

In this study, before commencement of the data analysis, all variables were assessed for normality. The assumption of normality is a prerequisite for a large percentage of parametric statistical analysis (See Annexure D for the codebook of items). The Shapiro-Wilk test was applied to assess the normality of the items. If the p-value of the Shapiro-Wilk test is <0.05 , it means that the data significantly deviate from a normal distribution (Laerd Statistics, 2019). Table 5 illustrates that all data variables significantly deviated from a normal distribution with p-values <0.05 .

Table 5: Normality assessment – Shapiro-Wilk test

Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	df	Sig.
OCB_01	0.834	367	$<.001$
OCB_02	0.850	367	$<.001$
OCB_03	0.811	367	$<.001$
OCB_04	0.850	367	$<.001$
OCB_05	0.875	367	$<.001$
OCB_06	0.783	367	$<.001$
OCB_07	0.841	367	$<.001$
OCB_08	0.813	367	$<.001$
OCB_09	0.824	367	$<.001$
OCB_10	0.827	367	$<.001$
OCB_11	0.848	367	$<.001$
OCB_12	0.856	367	$<.001$
OCB_13	0.841	367	$<.001$
OCB_14	0.850	367	$<.001$
OCB_15	0.809	367	$<.001$
PC_01	0.835	367	$<.001$
PC_02	0.811	367	$<.001$
PC_03	0.864	367	$<.001$

PC_04	0.868	367	<.001
PC_05	0.767	367	<.001
PC_06	0.832	367	<.001
PC_07	0.812	367	<.001
PC_08	0.765	367	<.001
PC_09	0.812	367	<.001
PC_10	0.821	367	<.001
PC_11	0.769	367	<.001
PC_12	0.800	367	<.001
PC_13	0.802	367	<.001
PC_14	0.746	367	<.001
PC_15	0.765	367	<.001
PWB_IP_01	0.778	367	<.001
PWB_IP_02	0.827	367	<.001
PWB_IP_03	0.789	367	<.001
PWB_IP_04	0.794	367	<.001
PWB_IP_05	0.796	367	<.001
PWB_IP_06	0.847	367	<.001
PWB_IP_07	0.853	367	<.001
PWB_IP_08	0.810	367	<.001
PWB_IP_09	0.809	367	<.001
PWB_IP_10	0.779	367	<.001
PWB_TP_01	0.863	367	<.001
PWB_TP_02	0.763	367	<.001
PWB_TP_03	0.753	367	<.001
PWB_TP_04	0.746	367	<.001
PWB_TP_05	0.752	367	<.001
PWB_TP_06	0.730	367	<.001
PWB_TP_07	0.781	367	<.001
PWB_TP_08	0.842	367	<.001
PWB_TP_09	0.855	367	<.001
PWB_TP_10	0.727	367	<.001
RWB_01	0.746	367	<.001
RWB_02	0.638	367	<.001
RWB_03	0.757	367	<.001
RWB_04	0.765	367	<.001
RWB_05	0.772	367	<.001
RWB_06	0.787	367	<.001
RWB_07	0.746	367	<.001
RWD_01	0.876	367	<.001
RWD_02	0.893	367	<.001
RWD_03	0.890	367	<.001
RWD_04	0.896	367	<.001
RWD_05	0.878	367	<.001
RWD_06	0.889	367	<.001
RWD_07	0.880	367	<.001

RWD_08	0.893	367	<.001
RWD_09	0.870	367	<.001

OCB: Organisational citizenship behaviour; PC: Psychological capital; PWB-IP: Psychological well-being (intrapersonal); PWB-IT: Psychological well-being (transpersonal); RWB: Remote working benefits; RWD: Remote working disadvantages.

From the table above, all data variables significantly deviate from a normal distribution. It was therefore deemed appropriate to use PLS-SEM to analyse the data for the study because PLS-SEM does not require data to be normally distributed. PLS-SEM is a variance-based structural equation that has become popular in recent years. It is a second-generation multivariate analysis technique that combines the features of the first-generation principal components and linear regression analysis. PLS-SEM is a regression-based approach that explores the linear relationships between multiple independent variables and a single or multiple dependent variables (Janadari, Subramaniam Ramalu, Wei, & Abdullah, 2016). PLS-SEM is also highly suitable if the goal of the study is to predict key target constructs and the research is exploratory in nature (Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017).

For PLS-SEM to be applicable, the minimum sample size of the study should be equal to the larger of the following: (1) ten times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure one construct; or (2) ten times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the structural model (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2017). Figure 3 below indicates that the maximum number of structural paths in the model is the four structural paths directed at organisational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, the minimum required sample size for the PLS-SEM analysis was 33.45 or 40.

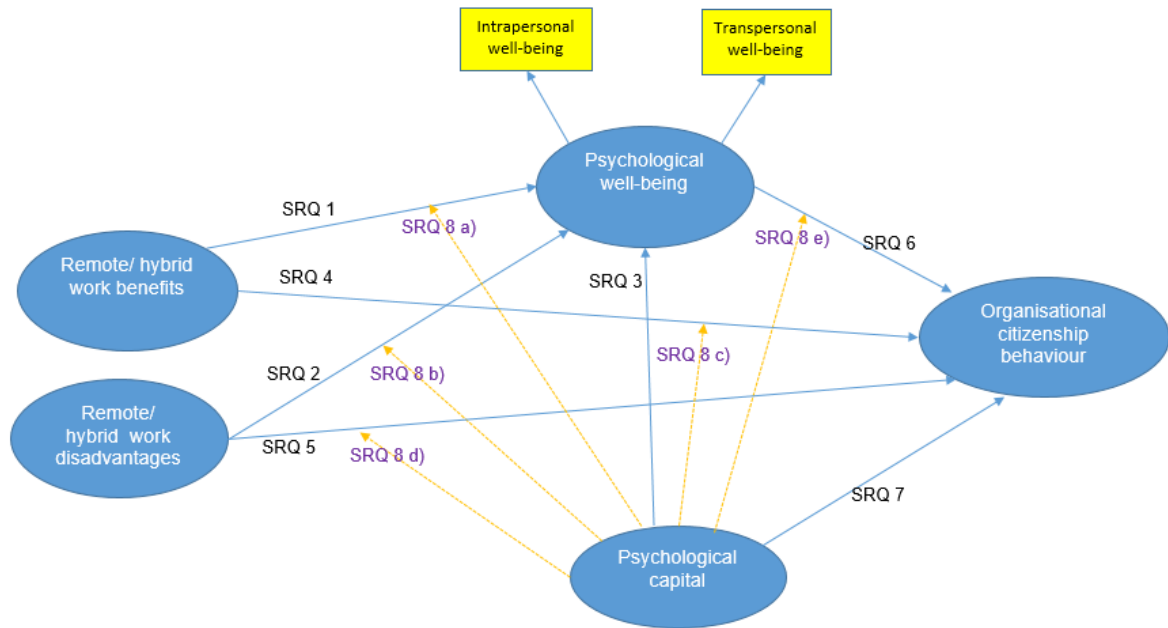


Figure 3: SEM research model

5.3.1 Assessment of the PLS-SEM model

The SEM model was evaluated in a two-stage process. The first stage included assessing the outer model, while the second stage involved assessing the inner model.

Outer model (Measurement model) assessment

According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), before testing for a significant relationship in the structural model, it is critical to evaluate the measurement model. The two main criteria used in PLS analysis to assess the measurement model, or what is alternatively called the outer model, are validity and reliability (Ramayah, Lee, & In, 2011). Reliability tests aim to find stability and the consistency of the measuring instrument, whereas validity tests assess how accurately the instrument measures a particular concept (Janadari *et al.*, 2016). To assess the reliability and validity of the measurement model for this study, the indicator reliability, convergent validity, internal consistency reliability, and discriminant validity were assessed.

Indicator reliability

According to Bless *et al.* (2016), indicator reliability refers to the degree of trustworthiness and consistency in the data provided by a specific indicator, ensuring that it accurately reflects the phenomenon or variable it is intended to measure over time. Hulland (1999) further explains that indicator loadings of >0.5 indicate that the item is an effective

measure of a latent construct. However, Sarstedt, Hair, Cheah, Becker, and Ringle (2019) caution against eliminating too many indicators from a construct, as doing so can compromise the construct's content validity. Therefore, a minimum number of three indicators were deemed necessary for the measurement of each construct to ensure content validity. Based on guidelines provided by Hulland (1999), indicators with loadings less than 0.50 were excluded from the measurement model. These indicators were PWB_IP_01, PWB_IP_02, OCB_03, OCB_04, OCB_05, OCB_06, OCB_07, PC_01, PC_02, PC_04, PC_07, RWD_01, RWD_02, RWD_07, and PWB_TP_02.

Table 6 reflects the indicator loadings of the lower-order constructs (remote work benefits and disadvantages; intrapersonal well-being and transpersonal well-being; organisational citizenship behaviour; psychological capital) for the SEM model. The table illustrates that all indicator loadings are above the 0.5 threshold and statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Therefore, it can be concluded that the measurement model for the lower-order constructs exhibits indicator reliability.

Table 6: Indicator loadings of lower constructs

Indicators	Intrapersonal well-being	Organisational citizenship behaviour	Psychological capital	Remote/hybrid work benefits	Remote/hybrid work disadvantages	Trans-personal well-being
PWB_IP_03	0.790					
PWB_IP_04	0.864					
PWB_IP_05	0.859					
PWB_IP_06	0.749					
PWB_IP_07	0.759					
PWB_IP_08	0.786					
PWB_IP_09	0.810					
PWB_IP_10	0.857					
OCB_01		0.683				
OCB_02		0.712				
OCB_08		0.768				
OCB_09		0.749				
OCB_10		0.820				
OCB_11		0.789				
OCB_12		0.826				
OCB_13		0.846				
OCB_14		0.784				
OCB_15		0.832				
PC_03			0.764			
PC_05			0.732			

PC_06			0.767			
PC_08			0.747			
PC_09			0.820			
PC_10			0.749			
PC_11			0.806			
PC_12			0.832			
PC_15			0.719			
RWB_01				0.797		
RWB_02				0.610		
RWB_03				0.772		
RWB_04				0.869		
RWB_05				0.822		
RWB_06				0.759		
RWD_03					0.838	
RWD_04					0.819	
RWD_05					0.824	
RWD_06					0.814	
RWD_08					0.756	
RWD_09					0.750	
PWB_TP_01						
PWB_TP_02						0.719
PWB_TP_03						0.803
PWB_TP_04						0.842
PWB_TP_05						0.765
PWB_TP_06						0.800

OCB: Organisational citizenship behaviour; PC: Psychological capital; PWB-IP: Psychological well-being (intrapersonal); PWB-IT: Psychological well-being (transpersonal); RWB: Remote working benefits; RWD: Remote working disadvantages.

Table 7 represents the indicator loadings of the higher construct (psychological well-being). The table indicates that both loadings of intrapersonal well-being and transpersonal well-being are above the 0.5 threshold and statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the indicator reliability of the psychological well-being construct is also considered to be satisfactory.

Table 7: Indicator loadings of higher construct

Indicator	Psychological well-being
Intrapersonal well-being	0.640
Transpersonal well-being	0.851
*All indicators are statistically significant with p-values < 0.001 .	

Convergent validity

Convergent validity is the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2017). Convergent validity is assessed using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), which is a variance shared between a construct and its measures (Janadari *et al.*, 2016). According to Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Fornell and Larcker (1981), the AVE should be greater than 0.5. Table 8 indicates that the AVE of all the lower constructs is above the 0.5 threshold. Therefore, all constructs reflect convergent validity.

Table 8: Average variance extracted (AVE) of lower construct

Constructs	AVE
Intrapersonal well-being	0.816
Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.612
Psychological capital	0.595
Remote/hybrid work advantages	0.601
Remote/hybrid work disadvantages	0.641
Transpersonal well-being	0.619

Sarstedt *et al.* (2019) assert that the AVE should be manually determined when evaluating the convergent validity of a higher-order construct. Table 9 demonstrates the AVE manual determination of the higher construct in this study, namely psychological well-being. According to table 9, psychological well-being is above the 0.5 threshold, indicating that the construct has convergent validity.

Table 9: Average variance extracted (AVE) of higher construct

$\frac{(\text{Loading of intrapersonal well-being})^2 * (\text{Loading of transpersonal well-being})^2}{\text{AVE} / 2}$ $\text{AVE} = \frac{(0.640)^2 + (0.851)^2}{2}$ $\text{AVE} = \underline{0.567}$
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Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability is a measurement of how effectively a test handles various constructs and produces accurate results. Internal consistency reliability can be assessed using the composite reliability (CR) of a construct. Gefen, Straub, and

Boudreau (2000) state that the CR of a construct should be greater than 0.7 in order to indicate adequate internal consistency reliability. As reflected in table 10, the CR and Cronbach's alpha (α) of all constructs are above the 0.70 threshold, displaying an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability.

Table 10: Composite reliability

	Cronbach's α	CR (rho_a)	CR (rho_c)
Intrapersonal well-being	0.887	0.901	0.930
Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.929	0.931	0.940
Psychological capital	0.915	0.915	0.930
Psychological well-being	0.833	0.843	0.867
Remote/hybrid work advantages	0.865	0.878	0.900
Remote/hybrid work disadvantages	0.889	0.912	0.915
Transpersonal well-being	0.845	0.847	0.890

Discriminant validity

Hair Jr *et al.* (2017) explain that discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards. 'Discriminant validity implies that a construct is unique and captures a phenomenon not represented by other constructs in the model'. According to Janadari *et al.* (2016), the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) of correlations is the most accurate way to evaluate discriminant validity of constructs. HTMT examines the correlations of indicators across constructs to the correlations of indicators within a construct. The HTMT ratio of constructs should not exceed 0.9 (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2017). Table 11 indicates that all constructs are below the 0.9 threshold, reflecting that the measurement model exhibits discriminant validity.

Table 11: Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) of constructs

Constructs	HTMT
Organisational citizenship behaviour <-> Intrapersonal well-being	0.240
Psychological capital <-> Intrapersonal well-being	0.343
Psychological capital <-> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.748
Psychological well-being <-> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.601
Psychological well-being <-> Psychological capital	0.688
Remote/hybrid work advantages <-> Intrapersonal well-being	0.332
Remote/hybrid work advantages <-> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.090
Remote/hybrid work advantages <-> Psychological capital	0.121

Remote/hybrid work advantages <-> Psychological well-being	0.285
Remote/hybrid work disadvantages <-> Intrapersonal well-being	0.256
Remote/hybrid work disadvantages <-> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.077
Remote/hybrid work disadvantages <-> Psychological capital	0.123
Remote/hybrid work disadvantages <-> Psychological well-being	0.221
Remote/hybrid work disadvantages <-> Remote/hybrid work advantages	0.453
Transpersonal well-being <-> Intrapersonal well-being	0.191
Transpersonal well-being <-> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.508
Transpersonal well-being <-> Psychological capital	0.584
Transpersonal well-being <-> Remote/hybrid work advantages	0.137
Transpersonal well-being <-> Remote/hybrid work disadvantages	0.072

Inner model (structural model) assessment

The assessment of the structural model of the study was conducted in five steps: examining the model for collinearity; assessing the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships; assessing the level of R^2 ; assessing the effect size (f^2); and assessing the moderating relationships.

Step 1: Examine the model for collinearity

According to Hair and Alamer (2022), it is vital to ensure that there are no strong correlations between the constructs. Strong correlations between constructs can result in methodological and interpretation challenges. The PLS-SEM cannot effectively estimate models with two predictor constructs that are highly correlated. Hence, the proposed measure of collinearity is the variance inflation factor (VIF). VIF is the reciprocal of tolerance and determines the strength of the correlation between independent variables. Sarstedt *et al.* (2019) state that a VIF score of 5 or more suggests concerns with collinearity between predictor constructs, whereas a VIF score below 3 implies no collinearity, and values between 5 and 3 are considered acceptable. The VIF matrix of all constructs for this study is reflected in table 12. Table 12 confirms that all values are below 3, indicating no collinearity concerns in the SEM model.

Table 12: Variance inflation factor matrix

	VIF
Psychological capital -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	1.796
Psychological capital -> Psychological well-being	1.187
Psychological well-being -> Intrapersonal well-being	1.000
Psychological well-being -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	1.779
Psychological well-being -> Transpersonal well-being	1.000

Remote/hybrid work advantages -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	1.249
Remote/hybrid work advantages -> Psychological well-being	1.204
Remote/hybrid work disadvantages -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	1.285
Remote/hybrid work disadvantages -> Psychological well- being	1.279

Step 2: Assess the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships

The direct effects of all the hypothesised relationships were evaluated by making use of bootstrapping analysis. Bootstrapping is a resampling technique that draws many subsamples from the original data (with replacement) and estimates models for each subsample. It is used to determine standard errors of coefficients to assess their statistical significance without relying on distributional assumptions.

In this study, the standardised beta and t-values were calculated by the bootstrapping procedure with a resample of 10 000 (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2017). Table 13 shows the results of the path model analysis of the SEM model that was used to answer the subsidiary research questions of the study.

Table 13: Path model results of SEM model

SRQ	Relationship	Std beta	Std error	t-value	p-value	
SRQ1	Remote/hybrid work benefits -> Psychological well-being	0.113	0.052	2.253	0.024	Accepted
SRQ2	Remote/hybrid work disadvantages -> Psychological well-being	-0.053	0.045	1.171	0.242	Rejected
SRQ3	Psychological capital -> Psychological well-being	0.570	0.044	12.765	<0.001	Accepted
SRQ4	Remote/hybrid work benefits -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	-0.024	0.041	0.577	0.564	Rejected
SRQ5	Remote/hybrid work disadvantages -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.025	0.042	0.589	0.556	Rejected
SRQ6	Psychological well-being -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.183	0.052	3.418	<0.001	Accepted
SRQ7	Psychological capital -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.592	0.053	11.121	<0.001	Rejected

According to table 13, the results of the path model analysis of the SEM model are as follows:

SRQ1: There is a positive statistically significant relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being ($\beta=0.113$, $p=0.024$).

SRQ2: There is no statistically significant relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being ($\beta=-0.053$, $p=0.242$).

SRQ3: There is a positive statistically significant relationship between psychological capital and psychological well-being ($\beta=0.570$, $p<0.001$).

SRQ4: There is no statistically significant relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour ($\beta=-0.024$, $p=0.564$).

SRQ5: There is no statistically significant relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and organisational citizenship behaviour ($\beta=0.025$, $p=0.556$).

SRQ6: There is a positive statistically significant relationship between psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour ($\beta=0.183$, $p<0.001$).

SRQ7: There is a positive statistically significant relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour ($\beta=0.592$, $p<0.001$).

(SRQ8 is presented in table 16.)

Step 3: Assess the level of R^2

R^2 measures the proportion of variance in a latent endogenous construct that is explained by other exogenous constructs expressed as a percentage (Chin, 1988). Exogenous constructs are independent constructs in all equations in which they appear. On the other hand, endogenous constructs are dependent constructs in at least one equation, although they may be independent variables in other equations in the system. Hair Jr *et al.* (2017) mention that the R^2 values of 0.12 or below indicates a low effect size, values between 0.13 and 0.25 indicate a medium effect size, and values of 0.26 and above indicate a high effect size. The R^2 values of the structural model are demonstrated in table 14 and figure 4.

Table 14: R^2 values of SEM model

	R^2	R^2 adjusted
Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.506	0.496
Psychological well-being	0.416	0.407

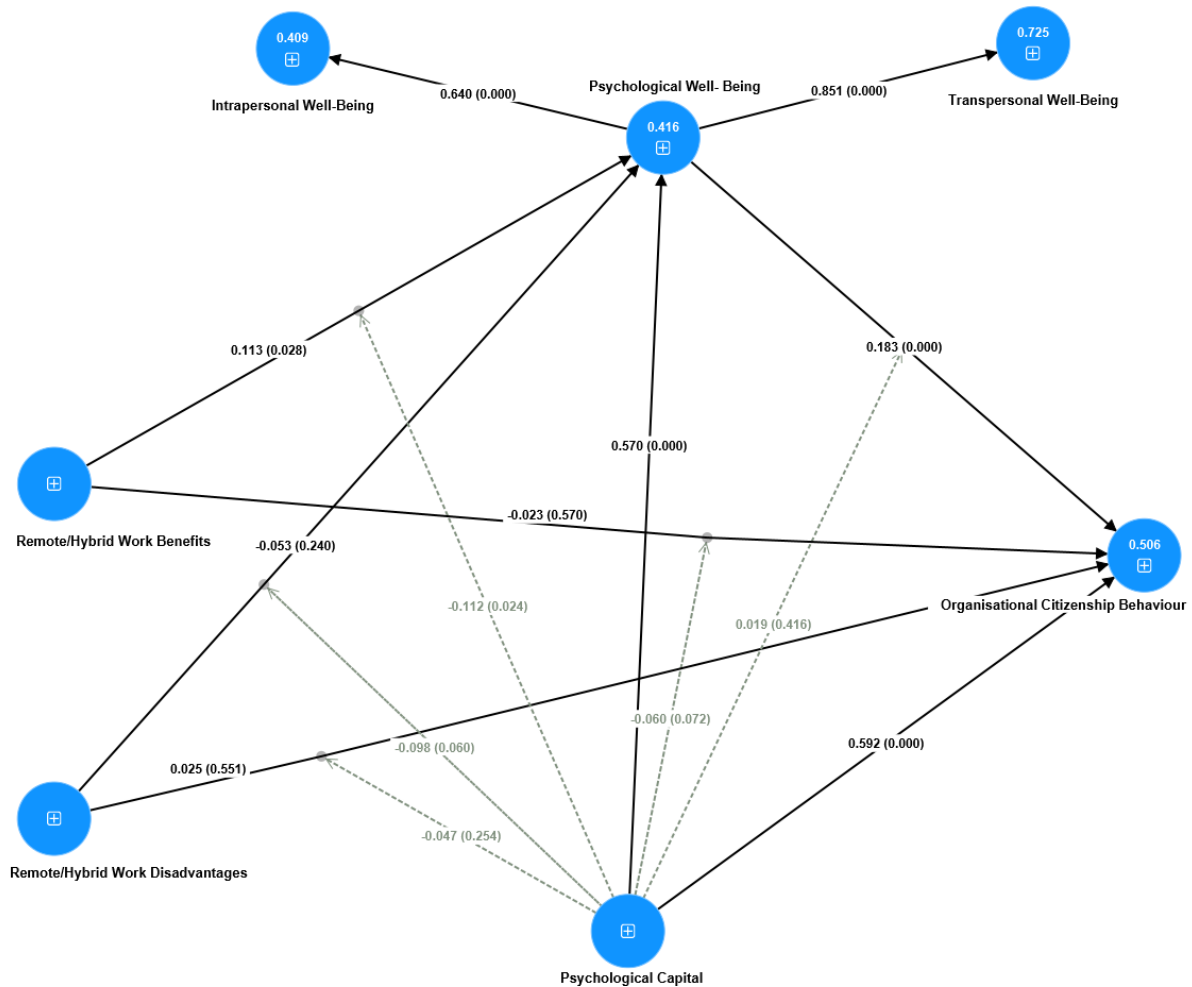


Figure 4: R^2 values and path model results of SEM model

According to figure 4, the R^2 value of organisational citizenship behaviour is 0.506. This means that psychological well-being ($\beta=0.183$, $p<0.001$) and psychological capital ($\beta=0.592$, $p<0.001$) collectively explain 50.6% of the variance in organisational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, psychological well-being and psychological capital collectively have a high predictive power towards organisational citizenship behaviour. Moreover, the R^2 value of psychological well-being is 0.416. This means that remote/hybrid work benefits ($\beta=0.113$, $p<0.024$) and psychological capital ($\beta=0.570$, $p<0.001$) collectively explain 41.6% of the variance in psychological well-being, which indicate high predictive power.

Step 4: Assess the effect size (f^2)

The assessment of the effect size of a construct evaluates whether the omitted construct has a substantive impact on the endogenous construct. This is also known as the effect

size of the exogenous latent variable on the model. The assessment of this effect size follows Cohen's (1988) guideline, namely $0.02 \leq f^2 < 0.15$: weak effect; $0.15 \leq f^2 < 0.35$: moderate effect; and $f^2 > 0.35$: strong effect. Table 15 presents the effect sizes of the four variables that are statistically significantly related to organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological well-being.

Table 15: f^2 values

	f-square
Psychological capital -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.395
Psychological capital -> Psychological well-being	0.468
Psychological well-being -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.038
Remote/hybrid work benefits -> Psychological well-being	0.018

Table 15 reveals that psychological well-being had a weak effect size in the prediction of organisational citizenship behaviour with an f^2 value of 0.038. Likewise, remote and hybrid work benefits had a weak effect size in the prediction of psychological well-being with an f^2 value of 0.018. In contrast, psychological capital had a strong effect size in the prediction of organisational citizenship behaviour ($f^2 = 0.395$) and psychological well-being ($f^2 = 0.468$).

Step 5: Assess the moderating effects in the SEM model

Hair *et al.* (2021) explain that the significance of the interaction term is the main consideration when interpreting the findings of a moderation analysis. The moderator has a considerable moderating influence on the link between two constructs if the interaction term's effect on the endogenous construct is significant. To assess the moderating effects in the model, the significance of the interaction terms was investigated. The significance of the moderating effects is shown in table 16.

Table 16: Path model results for moderating effects

SRQ	Relationship	Std beta	Std error	t-value	p-value	
SRQ8(a)	Psychological capital x Remote/hybrid work benefits -> Psychological well-being	-0.113	0.050	2.275	0.023	Accepted
SRQ8(b)	Psychological capital x Remote/hybrid work disadvantages -> Psychological well-being	-0.098	0.052	1.874	0.061	Rejected
SRQ8(c)	Psychological capital x Remote/hybrid work benefits -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	-0.060	0.033	1.795	0.073	Rejected
SRQ8(d)	Psychological capital x Remote/hybrid work disadvantages -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	-0.047	0.041	1.152	0.250	Rejected
SRQ8(e)	Psychological capital x Psychological well-being -> Organisational citizenship behaviour	0.018	0.023	0.793	0.428	Rejected

Table 16 reveals the moderating effect of the psychological capital as follows:

SRQ8(a): There is a statistically significant moderating effect on the relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being ($\beta=-0.113$, $p=0.023$).

SRQ8(b): There is no statistically significant moderating effect on the relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being ($\beta=-0.098$, $p=0.061$).

SRQ8(c): There is no statistically significant moderating effect on the relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour ($\beta=-0.060$, $p=0.073$).

SRQ8(d): There is no statistically significant moderating effect on the relationship between psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour ($\beta=-0.047$, $p=0.250$).

SRQ8(e): There is no statistically significant moderating effect on the relationship between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and organisational citizenship behaviour ($\beta=-0.018$, $p=0.428$).

The positive moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being was negative. This indicated an inverse moderating effect. A negative path coefficient for a moderating effect indicates that the moderating variable has an inverse relationship with the strength of the original relationship. In other words, the higher the level of the moderator variable, the weaker the original relationship. Similarly, the lower the level of the moderator, the stronger the original relationship. Therefore, in the current study, the lower the level of psychological capital, the stronger the positive relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being. In contrast, the higher the level of psychological capital, the weaker the positive relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being. This moderating effect is shown in figure 5 below.

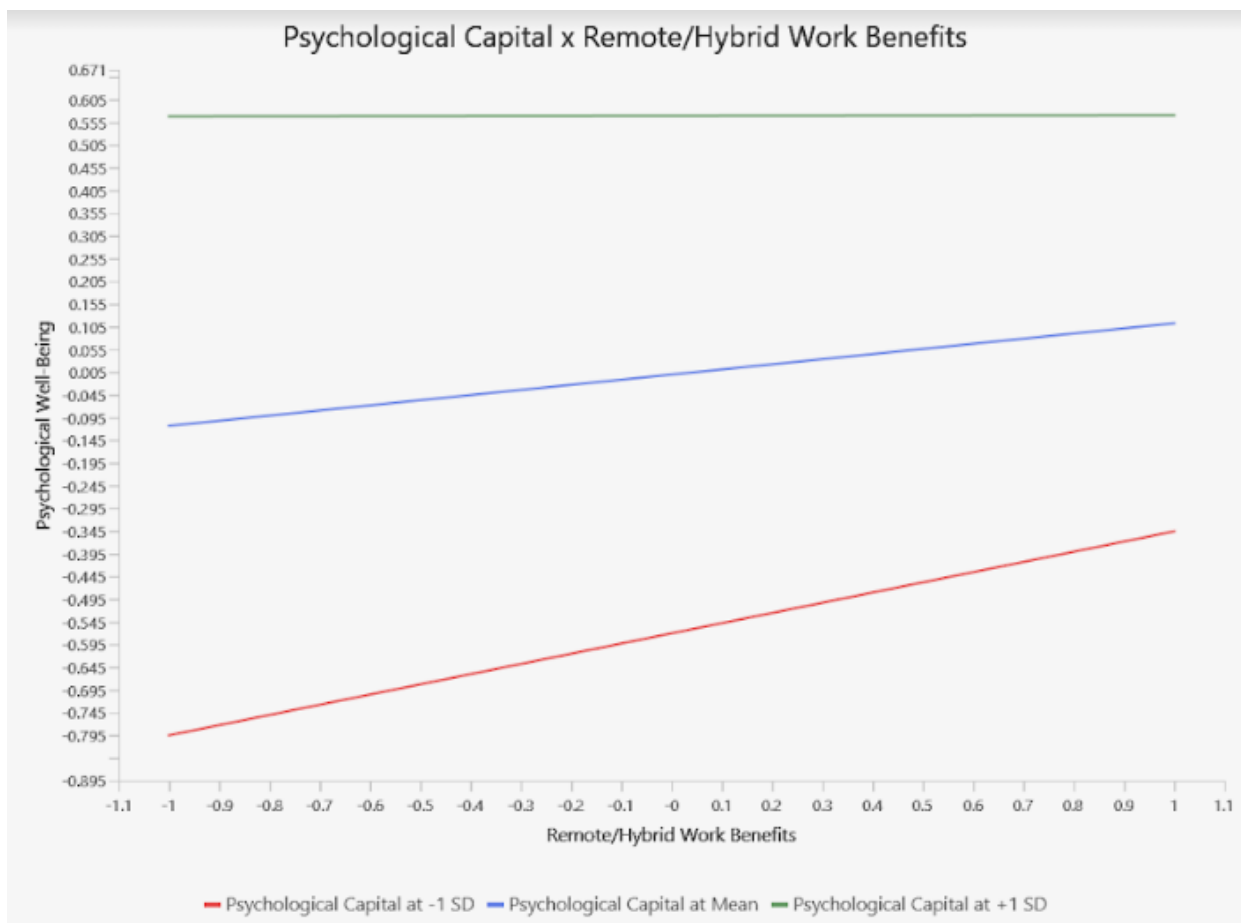


Figure 5: The moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between remote/hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being

Figure 5 indicates that, when psychological capital is at mean value, there is a positive relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being. In

other words, psychological well-being will increase when remote and hybrid work benefits increase. However, figure 5 also illustrates that, when psychological capital is at a higher level of one standard deviation above the mean, the positive relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being becomes weak. In contrast, when psychological capital is at a low level of one standard deviation below the mean, the positive relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological well-being becomes stronger.

5.4 Discussion of findings

As mentioned earlier, the R^2 value of organisational citizenship behaviour is 0.506. This means that psychological well-being ($\beta=0.183$, $p<0.001$) and psychological capital ($\beta=0.592$, $p<0.001$) collectively explain 50.6% of the variance in organisational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, psychological well-being and psychological capital collectively have a high predictive power towards organisational citizenship behaviour. Moreover, the R^2 value of psychological well-being is 0.416. This means that remote and hybrid work benefits ($\beta=0.113$, $p<0.024$) and psychological capital ($\beta=0.570$, $p<0.001$) collectively explain 41.6% of the variance in psychological well-being, which indicates high predictive power.

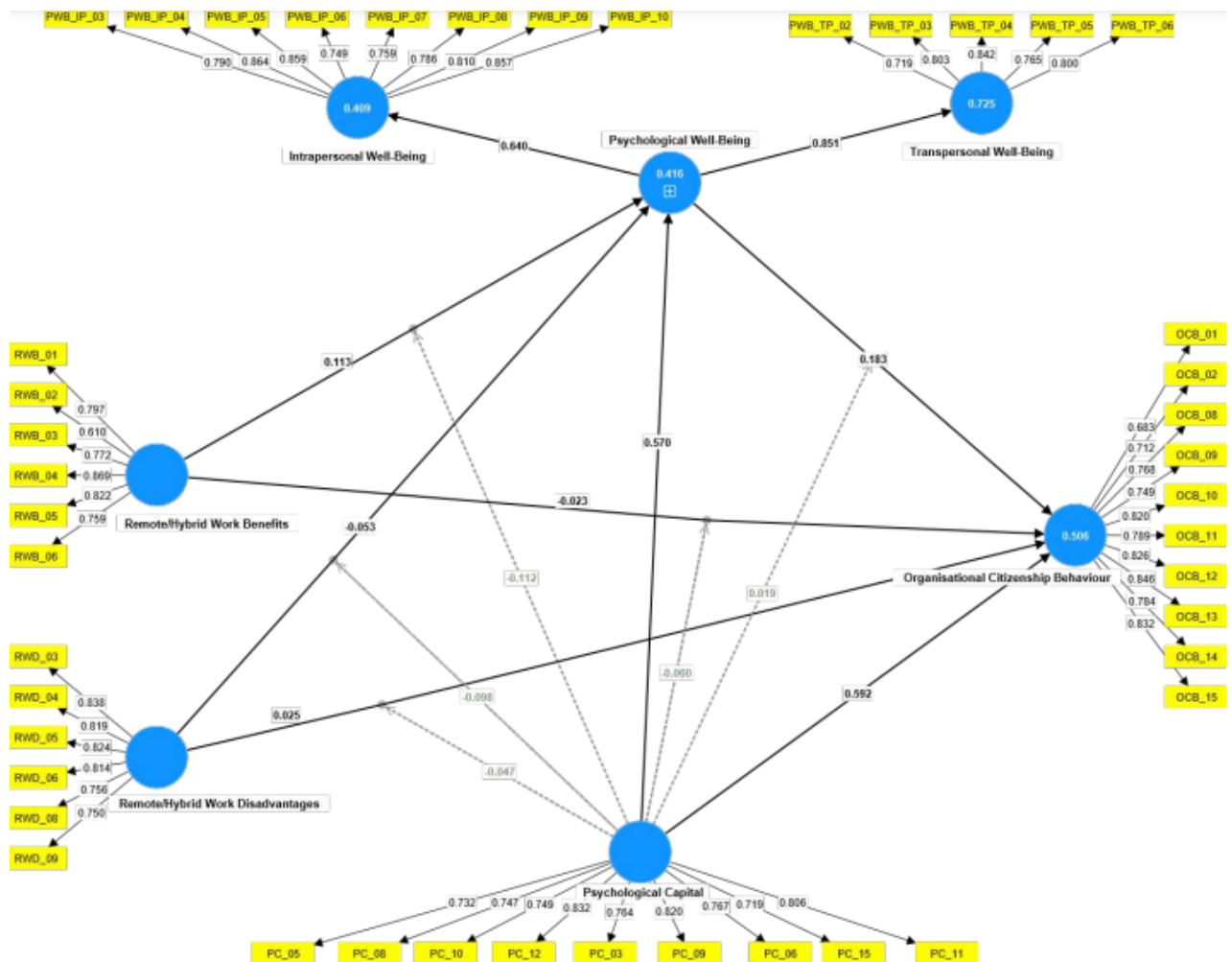


Figure 6: Indicator loadings of the measurement model

5.4.1 Remote and hybrid work benefits and disadvantages

Remote and hybrid work benefits

According to figure 6, respondents can coordinate work–family balance and meet family needs in an appropriate way while working from home (0.797). Most of the respondents indicated that they save on commuting costs when working from home (0.610) and generally felt they have sufficient time to themselves and endure less stress (0.772). Figure 6 further reveals that respondents can comprehensively plan their work schedule and concentrate better while working from home (0.869). Respondents mostly had positive relations with colleagues and supervisors while working from home (0.822). Moreover, respondents generally had adequate access to business-related IT resources while working from home (0.759).

Remote and hybrid work disadvantages

As reflected in figure 6, respondents experienced a lack of recognition for their work while working from home (0.838) and they had trouble accessing work-related information and documents from colleagues (0.819). Figure 6 also shows that respondents encountered challenges in scheduling their work while working from home (0.824). Further findings indicate that respondents had less access to professional training and lacked career progress when working from home (0.814). Moreover, most respondents were distracted and disturbed by domestic duties while working from home (0.756) and indicated that they are not involved in decision-making processes while working from home (0.750).

5.4.2 Psychological well-being

Psychological well-being was measured using two components, namely intrapersonal well-being, and transpersonal well-being. The findings are explained below.

Intrapersonal well-being

According to the findings, respondents could generally focus on what they are doing (0.790) and felt lively (0.864). Respondents also felt they can manage their everyday lives with their physical strength (0.749). Further findings show that respondents felt they can live with life's ups and downs and let go of unpleasant experiences (0.759). Most respondents felt they have healthy bodies (0.786), most felt satisfied with their lives (0.810), and most felt energetic (0.857).

Transpersonal well-being

Figure 6 shows that respondents cared about what is happening in society (0.719). Most of them were grateful for the people around them and all they had done for them (0.803). Respondents further held the opinion that they treat others with kindness (0.842) and felt that people of different genders or ages should be treated equally (0.765). Overall, respondents felt they are part of society (0.800).

5.4.3 Organisational citizenship behaviour

Some respondents felt they can create a healthy and cheerful work environment (0.683). Respondents generally seemed motivated and felt that they can motivate co-workers to achieve the organisational objectives (0.712). Also, respondents generally seemed to

participate in activities and meetings that could enhance their careers (0.768) and address issues that they do not like (0.749).

The findings further show that respondents were generally looking for better ways to do things (0.820), they try to excel at identifying opportunities (0.789), and defend their organisations when others criticise it (0.826). They held the opinion that they can offer ideas to improve the functioning of the business (0.846) and seemed willing to attend non-compulsory functions and help improve the organisational image (0.784). Lastly, respondents felt they keep up with the organisational developments such as production expansion or increased profits (0.832).

5.4.4 Psychological capital

Figure 6 shows that respondents generally remained positive even when things are uncertain for them (0.764). They felt there are various ways of solving problems (0.732) and they generally searched for various ways to reach their goals (0.767). They indicated a sense of being successful at work (0.747) and seemed confident in presenting information to a group of colleagues (0.820). Furthermore, they were generally optimistic about what will happen to them in the future, especially pertaining to work (0.749). Most respondents indicated they have confidence and knowledge in performing their jobs (0.806). They also felt confident in analysing long-term problems and searching for solutions (0.832). Most respondents tended to focus on the positive aspects regarding their jobs (0.719).

5.5 Summary

Chapter 5 presented the research findings from an empirical point of view. The descriptive statistics for the various questions was analysed and discussed. The first part of the chapter provided background information of the respondents by analysing their demographic profile, which included gender, educational level, and industry of employment. The second part of the chapter presented a descriptive summary of the responses to questions 4 (remote and hybrid work benefits and disadvantages), 5 (intrapersonal and transpersonal well-being), 6 (organisational citizenship behaviour), and 7 (psychological capital) of the questionnaire. The chapter also illustrated the inferential statistics of the study through the PLS-SEM analysis. Thus, a summary of the main findings was also presented.

The following chapter provides the conclusions drawn from the findings, followed by the contribution of the research to the field of study. Limitations of the research will be mentioned, and recommendations on future research will be made.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented, analysed, and discussed the findings from the descriptive and empirical results of the investigation. The current chapter provides the conclusions and the researcher's final arguments, with recommendations that emanated from the investigation. The limitations of the study, as well as future research directions, are also addressed.

6.2 Conclusions

The main research objective was to determine the impact of remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being on organisational citizenship behaviour, as well as the moderating effect of psychological capital. PLS-SEM was used to analyse the relationships between the variables. As mentioned earlier, a structured questionnaire was administered through QuestionPro to formally employed individuals across different industries. The questionnaire consisted of five sections. Section A focused on the participants' demographics, namely the respondents' gender, education level, and industry of employment. Sections B to E captured responses regarding remote work benefits and disadvantages, psychological well-being (intrapersonal and transpersonal), organisational citizenship behaviour, and psychological capital.

According to the demographics, 54% of the respondents were female and 46% were male. Most of the participants held honours or equivalent degrees (24.44%). A variety of industries in South Africa were represented among the respondents, with the education sector having the highest percentage at 22.58%.

According to Oakman *et al.* (2020), there is a significant relationship between remote work and several health outcomes, including pain, self-reported health, safety, well-being, stress, depression, fatigue, quality of life, strain, and happiness. Similarly, the findings of this study identified no positive correlation between remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being. Authors like Crawford *et al.* (2011) found a moderate relationship between remote work and psychological well-being. In contrast, the current study found a statistically significant relationship between remote work benefits and psychological well-being. Also, contrary to Lee (2018), who found that

working remotely often resulted in a lack of resources, frustration, inadequate decision making, a lack of contribution towards work schedules, and poor interaction this study found that the participants had adequate access to business-related IT resources, comprehensively planned their work schedule, and concentrated better while working from home. Moreover, they were involved in work decision-making processes while working remotely.

The study further found that respondents maintained positive relations with colleagues and supervisors while working from home. Research conducted by Eddleston and Mulki (2017) found a positive link between remote work and the inability to disengage from work. This implies that working from home may cause remote employees to overwork, which could interfere with family time. In contrast, the current findings revealed that respondents were able to coordinate work–family balance and meet family needs in a satisfactory way. Al-Habaibeh *et al.* (2021) found that remote workers saved money on travel expenses, which enhanced productivity but inhibited the establishment of good work–life boundaries. This was affirmed by the current study.

Gupta *et al.* (2017) conducted research to establish the impact of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour, exploring the mediating role of work engagement. They established that organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological capital have a positive and significant association. Likewise, this study found a positive statistically significant relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. Respondents reported that they were able to create a healthy and cheerful workplace environment, and they were motivated to achieve organisational goals. Respondents defended their organisations when others criticise them and they generally kept up with the organisational developments such as product expansion or increased profits (see table 3).

Findings of this study further revealed that psychological well-being and psychological capital collectively explain 50.6% of the variance in organisational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, psychological well-being and psychological capital collectively have a high predictive power towards organisational citizenship behaviour. Moreover, remote and hybrid work benefits and psychological capital collectively explain 41.6% of the variance in psychological well-being, which indicates high predictive power (see table 14 and

figure 4). According to table 2, half of the respondents (50.25%) seem to engage in positive organisational citizenship behaviour because they are able to focus on what they are doing. More than half also felt lively (52.25%) and most felt calm (49.62%). Most of the respondents (47.75%) indicated that they can manage their everyday life with their physical strength, and 47.50% stated that they can live with life's ups and downs and let go of unpleasant experiences.

Half of the respondents (49.50%) felt they had healthy bodies, whereas 47.00% generally felt satisfied with their lives and 49.15% felt energetic. In addition, more than half of the respondents (53.13%) cared about what is happening in society and 53.38% were grateful to people around them for everything they had done for them. Most of the respondents (51.88%) confirmed that they treated others with kindness and 49.37% stated that people of different ages or genders should have equal opportunities. Moreover, a significant percentage of the respondents asserted that they feel part of society (52.88%).

According to table 4, a fair number of respondents (43.25%) possessed positive organisational behaviour because they remain positive even when things are uncertain. Almost half of the respondents affirmed that there are various ways of solving problems (47.12%) and that they are able to think of multiple ways to reach their goals (45.00%). Half of the respondents saw themselves as successful at work (50.23%) and 49.75% were confident in presenting information to a group of colleagues. A moderate number of respondents (47.12%) confirmed that they are optimistic about the future, especially pertaining to work. Almost half (49.50%) mentioned that they approach their jobs with confidence and knowledge, whereas just over half (51.25%) felt confident in finding solutions to problems. Another 49.50% chose to consider the positive aspects of their jobs.

Table 1 showed that most respondents (41.19%) experienced positive psychological well-being because they were able to coordinate work–family balance and meet family needs in an appropriate way while working from home. More than half (56.78%) saved on commuting costs, while a fair number (41.06%) indicated they had sufficient time to themselves and endured less stress while working from home. Furthermore, 39.50% confirmed that they comprehensively plan their work schedule and concentrate better

while working from home. Forty per cent (40.00%) stated that they have positive relations with colleagues and supervisors, while only 38.35% indicated that they have adequate access to business-related IT resources while working remotely.

To summarise, neither the benefits nor the disadvantages of remote and hybrid work impacted psychological well-being. From the responses in table 2, it is clear that moderate levels of psychological well-being were recorded. This corresponds with the moderate levels of psychological capital recorded in table 4. In other words, despite the hardships South Africans face (e.g., continuous power outages, water shortages, civil unrest) individuals have hope and optimism for the future.

The findings also showed that remote and hybrid work disadvantages did not have an impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. Thus, despite the challenges of remote and hybrid work, organisational citizenship behaviour was not affected. In fact, the findings demonstrated that remote and hybrid work benefits impacted positively on organisational citizenship behaviour. It therefore seems that remote and hybrid work benefits, such as positive relations with colleagues, flexibility, and improved work–life balance, can influence employee willingness to engage in discretionary behaviours that benefit the organisation. Perceived organisational support contributes positively to the relationship between remote and hybrid work benefits, psychological capital, and psychological well-being. Employees may feel more supported by their organisations when they encourage and adopt advantages related to remote and hybrid work. Perceived support is linked to positive well-being outcomes.

This study provided evidence of a positive statistically significant relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. This suggests that fostering psychological capital in employees is associated with increased levels of organisational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, individuals with higher levels of psychological capital are more likely to engage in behaviours that go beyond their formal job requirements. This finding is supported by research conducted in public hospitals in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa which revealed a positive association between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour (Chamisa, Mjoli, & Mhlanga, 2020).

A positive relationship between psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour indicates that employees with positive psychological well-being are most likely to engage in positive behaviour. It shows that a positive mind has a positive effect on individual engagement, including organisational citizenship behaviour. This, in turn, corresponds with Kumar, Jauhari, and Singh (2016) who also found a positive relationship between psychological well-being and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The current study established that psychological capital had a moderating effect on the benefits of remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being. This means that, where changes and uncertainties may be more prevalent, employees with high psychological capital are better equipped to cope with challenges, navigate changes, and maintain a positive psychological state. In addition, optimistic individuals tend to focus on positive aspects and opportunities even in challenging situations. In the context of remote or hybrid work, maintaining an optimistic mind-set can help individuals better recognise the benefits of flexibility, increased autonomy, and a better work–life balance, contributing to overall psychological well-being. Furthermore, employees with high psychological capital may actively seek support, maintain strong relationships with colleagues, and foster a sense of community, all of which positively influence psychological well-being.

On the other hand, the study found that psychological capital had no moderating effect on remote and hybrid work disadvantages and psychological well-being. Some of the disadvantages of working remotely, such as feelings of loneliness, communication challenges, and challenges in maintaining work and personal obligations, could be difficult to manage solely through individual psychological resources. Therefore, organisational support and structure also have an impact on effective remote and hybrid work arrangements. The potential moderating influence of individual psychological capital may be hampered if the organisation does not provide adequate resources, communication tools, or a supportive culture. For example, the moderating effect of psychological capital may be constrained if employees do not have access to the required technology or if the organisational infrastructure does not support remote work.

Psychological capital was found to also have no moderating effect on remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour. The viability of remote and hybrid work arrangements is contingent not only upon personal psychological characteristics,

but also on structural components like work procedures, communication tools, organisational culture, and organisational policies. This finding could be influenced by factors such as a lack of a supporting organisational culture, a lack of communication with colleagues, team and collaboration challenges, or poor individual adaptation. In cases of a lack of support for organisational citizenship behaviour, unclear expectations for remote and hybrid work, and a lack of teamwork and strong colleague collaboration, the moderating effect of psychological capital may also be limited. However, it is critical to note that some employees may thrive in remote work settings, while others may adapt better to face-to-face interactions. It is thus possible that psychological capital may not moderate the impact of individual preferences and adaptation on organisational citizenship behaviour.

Another finding was that psychological capital also did not moderate the relationship between psychological well-being and organisation citizenship behaviour nor between remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour. It is possible that individuals with high psychological well-being may already have a solid basis for beneficial behaviours, such as organisational citizenship behaviour – which means the additional impact of psychological capital may be limited, leading to a reduced moderating effect. Moreover, the moderating effect of psychological capital may be restricted in addressing broader organisational and structural challenges related to remote and hybrid work benefits and organisational citizenship behaviour.

6.2.1 Managerial implications

The current study showed that remote and hybrid work benefits such as balancing work–family needs and saving on commuting costs are highly important for the psychological well-being of any employee working from home. Therefore, employers should be in constant communication with their employees to ensure that they have access to work-related documents and resources. Employers should build trust relationships with employees to create open communication platforms.

Managers should also assist employees to intrinsically motivate themselves and, thus, cultivate a positive mind-set both personally and professionally. This could be achieved through continuous training and personal development like building resilience, setting clear goals for oneself, or participating in projects for personal development. In addition,

employers should be able to create a safe space for employees to have honest conversations about their psychological well-being.

Employers should also clearly communicate expectations to employees, especially those working from home. Clarity can help alleviate psychological strain since uncertainty can lead to stress. It is equally important that employers acknowledge all employee contributions made remotely because feeling valued and appreciated positively impacts psychological well-being and can boost morale.

Employers should always lead by example. When they exhibit admirable traits that transcend their official responsibilities, leaders create a precedent and foster an environment where going above and beyond is valued. Moreover, employers should create metrics to assess organisational citizenship behaviour and honour employees who regularly make a positive contribution. This, in turn, will emphasise the significance of these behaviours and foster a sense of accountability.

6.2.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study the following recommendations are presented for organisations.

1. Continuous training and development for managers needs to be part of the organisational landscape. Employers should understand the different remote and hybrid work mechanisms – both positive and negative – that have an impact on psychological well-being such as the role of autonomy, flexibility, and social isolation. Understanding these factors is important in designing effective remote work policies and support systems for employees.
2. It is important that both employees and employers understand the various facets of psychological well-being, including emotional, cognitive, and social well-being. Employees need to understand the importance of soft skill development including emotional awareness, emotional regulation, continuous learning, and building strong relations.
3. Employers need to create a supportive environment, provide counselling services, encourage innovation, offer training and development, and encourage teamwork,

collaborations and social activities. This can provide a thorough understanding of how remote and hybrid work impacts the different aspects of employee psychological well-being.

4. Employers should examine the effect of contextual factors such as organisational culture within their respective organisations through performing internal cultural assessments, analysing employee feedback, or conducting employee engagement surveys. These factors can shape the impact of remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being on organisational citizenship behaviour.
5. Organisations should implement psychological capital development programmes in the context of remote and hybrid work to enhance employees' psychological well-being.
6. Organisations should develop psychological well-being interventions aimed at improving employee well-being, particularly in remote and hybrid work settings. This may include stress management programmes, virtual team-building activities, and mental health support initiatives.
7. Employers should create strong policy frameworks that can assess organisational citizenship behaviour and promote a culture of appreciation for organisational citizenship behaviour in remote and hybrid work environments.
8. Organisations should develop educational programmes focusing on building resilience, optimism, self-efficacy, and hope with the aim to enhance employees' psychological capital.

The following recommendations pertain to remote and hybrid employees.

1. Remote and hybrid workers need to better care for themselves when working from home by taking regular breaks to stretch, seeking support from colleagues if necessary, engaging in learning opportunities presented by the organisation, and regularly assessing individual well-being.

2. When working from home, employees should be open and honest with their employers about any difficulties they may be experiencing. This is especially important if these difficulties could have an adverse effect on their productivity or general well-being.
3. Remote and hybrid workers should interact more with co-workers and managers by participating in virtual events and workshops, sharing personal stories, making use of social media platforms and frequent check-ins. This will enable them to build connections that will serve as a support system in times of need.

6.2.3 Limitations

The research was conducted in one country; thus, the findings of the study cannot be generalised to other countries. Owing to the profound role of cultural differences, the impact of remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being on organisational citizenship behaviour can vary significantly across cultures, limiting the external validity of the research. Moreover, because of the socioeconomic differences within South Africa, the researcher found it challenging to extrapolate findings across all industries, organisations, and demographic groupings. For example, remote and hybrid work may have different implications for employees with varying levels of access to resources and technology and conducive home working environments.

Only one online survey instrument was administered to collect data. The challenge arises from the exclusion of interviews or open-ended questions, which means that respondents were not given the opportunity to express their feelings and opinions. Additional studies aimed at gathering data from other sources could address this limitation.

6.2.4 Recommended future research

Further research can focus on duplicating this study in a country other than South Africa or in South Africa but ensuring that there is no sample bias present. This means the researcher should ensure that the sample is representative of the country's diverse population. Through this, the researcher's findings would more likely be generalizable to all demographic groups, industries and religions within South Africa.

Future research can focus on other determinants that could potentially enhance employee organisational citizenship behaviour and contribute to positive organisational citizenship behaviour. Researchers can investigate the different moderators that could influence the relationship between the study variables.

Further research can adopt other forms of data gathering such as interviews to engage with employees on a personal level for a comprehensive understanding of factors that contribute to positive organisational behaviour. Multiple data sources could also be included, such as supervisor ratings or objective performance metrics, and more objective measures of remote and hybrid work arrangements, psychological well-being, and organisational citizenship behaviour could be considered. This approach could minimise the likelihood of employees providing socially desirable responses that could potentially inflate the strength of the relationship between the study variables or moderating effects, ultimately limiting the generalisability of the findings. Thus, researchers should carefully consider their sampling methods and aim for a representative sample to ensure that their findings are more widely applicable to the wider population.

6.3 Summary

This study explored the complex interplay between remote and hybrid work, psychological well-being, organisational citizenship behaviour, and the moderating effect of psychological capital. With the global rise of remote and hybrid work and its profound effects on employees' work experiences, insight into the impact of these factors on their well-being and their contribution to organisational success becomes critical.

As mentioned earlier, remote work, enabled by technological advancements, has become a prevalent mode of work, especially following the Covid-19 pandemic. The study delved into the effects of remote work not only on employee psychological well-being such as stress, anxiety, and depression, but also on their overall well-being. The study aimed to understand how remote and hybrid work and psychological well-being influence organisational citizenship behaviour. Specifically, it investigated whether employees who experience better psychological well-being are more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour, or whether remote and hybrid work conditions hinder these behaviours.

The study introduced psychological capital as a moderator in the relationship between remote and hybrid work, psychological well-being, and organisational citizenship behaviour. In other words, the researcher sought to determine whether psychological capital strengthens the correlations among these variables, yielding findings with practical implications for organisations and managers. For example, the findings may inform strategies to support remote and hybrid workers in maintaining their psychological well-being, fostering organisational citizenship behaviour, and developing psychological capital. The findings could also guide initiatives aimed at creating a positive and productive remote and hybrid work environment and contribute to the broader discussions regarding the future of work.

Overall, this study provided valuable insights into how organisations can optimise their remote and hybrid work arrangements while ensuring employee well-being and commitment to organisational goals.

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Annexure A: Ethics clearance



FACULTY RESEARCH AND INNOVATION COMMITTEE

Faculty of Management Sciences
Research ethics approval letter

Date: 27/01/2022

This is to confirm that:

Applicant's Name	Ms. Mothepane Seqhobane
Supervisors' Name[s] for Student Project (where applicable) Co-Supervisor	Prof D Kokt
Level of Qualification for Student Project (where applicable)	Doctor of Human Resource Management
Title of research project	The impact of remote working and psychological well-being on organisational citizenship behaviour: The moderating effect of psychological capital

Ethical clearance has been provided by the Faculty Research and Innovation Committee in view of the CUT.

Research Ethics and Integrity Framework, 2016 with reference number: **FMSEC01/22**

The following special conditions were set:

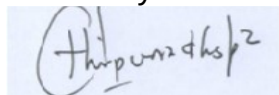
☒ None

☐ Specific conditions

The following specific conditions apply:

1. _____ NA _____
2. _____ NA _____
3. _____ NA _____

We wish you success with your research project.



Professor C Chipunza
(FRIC Chairperson)

Annexure B: Cover letter



Dear Participant

Study topic: THE IMPACT OF REMOTE AND HYBRID WORKING AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR: THE MODERATING EFFECT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

Thank you very much for your time and effort to answer this questionnaire. All information provided is anonymous and will be handled with confidentiality. Your willingness to answer all these questions is very valuable to both the researcher and management involved. Please answer these questions with honesty. All answers received by the researcher will be used solely for research purposes.

Thank you

Miss Seqhobane (Researcher)

Study leader: Prof Koko

Email: koktd@cut.ac.za

Contact numbers: 051-507 3114

Annexure C: Questionnaire on the impact of remote and hybrid working and psychological well-being on organisational citizenship behaviour: The moderating effect of psychological capital

Please answer the following questions by indicating with an (X) where it is most appropriate.

Section A: Demographic profile of the respondent

1. Please indicate your gender.

1. Male	
2. Female	

2. Please indicate your educational level.

Completed secondary school		01
In-house training		02
Completed 1-year certificate		03
Completed 1-year diploma		04
Completed an advanced diploma		05
Completed a 3-year B degree		06
Completed a 4-years B degree		07
Completed an honours degree		08
Completed a master's degree		09
Completed a PhD or Dr's degree		10

3. Please indicate your industry of employment

Mining		01
Banking and finance		02
Health care		03
Tourism and hospitality		04
Transport and logistics		05
Agriculture and agri-processing		06
Telecommunication and information technology		07
Manufacturing		08
Public sector		09
Energy sector		10
Human Resource Management		11
Other: Please specify		12

Section B: Remote and hybrid work

4. The undermentioned questions pertain to remote and hybrid work experience during and after Covid-19. Please indicate the level of your agreement by marking with an (X) in the appropriate block.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Remote work benefits							
4.1	I am able to coordinate work–family balance and/or to meet family needs in an appropriate way while working from home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.2	I save on commuting costs while working remotely.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.3	Through remote working I have sufficient time to myself and endure less stress.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.4	I comprehensively plan my work schedule and concentrate better while working from home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.5	I have positive relations with colleagues and supervisors while working remotely.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.6	I have adequate access to business-related IT resources while working from home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.7	Working remotely, I experience increased job satisfaction.						
Remote working disadvantages							
4.8	When I work from home, I lose a sense of belonging to my office.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.9	I encounter isolation challenges and a lack of socialisation with colleagues while working from home.						

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
4.10	With remote working I encounter a lack of recognition of my own work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.11	I experience difficulty in accessing work-related information and documents from colleagues while working remotely.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.12	I encounter challenges in scheduling my work while working from home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.13	While working from home, there is less access to professional training and a lack of career progression.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.14	I feel micromanaged by my superiors while working from home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.15	I am distracted and disturbed by domestic duties while working from home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.16	I am not involved in work decision-making processes while I work from home.						

Section C: Psychological well-being

5. The questions below pertain to your psychological well-being during and before Covid-19 while working from home. Please indicate the level of your agreement by marking with an (X) in the appropriate block.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Intrapersonal well-being							
5.1	I feel happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
5.2	When something bad happens, I can adjust my emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.3	I can focus on what I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.4	I feel lively.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.5	I feel calm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.6	I can manage my everyday life with my physical strength.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.7	I can live with life's ups and downs and let go of unpleasant experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.8	I have a healthy body.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.9	I feel satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.10	I feel energetic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Transpersonal well-being							
5.11	I will participate in activities to promote social changes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.12	I care about what is happening in society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.13	I am grateful to people around me for all they have done for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.14	I treat others with kindness.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.15	People (of different age or gender) should have equal opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.16	I am part of society.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
5.17	I am empathic towards the pain of other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.18	Personal stories connect me to people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.19	I am closely connected to the environment (e.g., discrimination, environmental quality, social atmosphere, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.20	I am genuinely happy for the happiness of people around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section D: Organisational citizenship behaviour

6. The undermentioned questions pertain to your organisational citizenship behaviour levels in your workplace while working from home. Please indicate the level of your agreement by marking with an (X) in the appropriate block.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
6.1	I create a healthy and cheerful workplace environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.2	I am motivated and motivate co-workers to achieve the organisational objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.3	I am punctual.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.4	I am interested in taking extra lunch breaks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.5	I volunteer for additional tasks, even though it is not part of my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.6	I am enthusiastic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
6.7	I work more hours than what is required of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.8	I participate in activities and meetings that could enhance my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.9	If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.10	I am always looking for better ways to do things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.11	I excel at identifying opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.12	I defend my organisation when others criticise it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.13	I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.14	I attend non-compulsory functions and help improve the organisational image.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.15	I keep up with the organisation developments.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section E: Psychological capital

7. The undermentioned questions describe how you may think about yourself within your work scope. Please indicate the level of your agreement by marking with an (X) in the appropriate block.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
7.1	I am confident in contributing to discussions about the company strategy.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
7.2	I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.3	When things are uncertain for me at work, I remain positive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.4	I have no trouble recovering from a work setback or failure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.5	There are various ways of solving problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.6	I am able to think of multiple ways to reach my work goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.7	I manage work difficulties well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.8	I see myself as successful at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.9	I am confident in presenting information to a group of colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.10	I am optimistic about what will happen to me in the future, especially if it pertains to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.11	I approach my job with confidence and knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.12	I feel confident analysing a long-term problem to find a solution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.13	I can multitask on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
7.14	I have the skills required to successfully fulfil my job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.15	I always choose to consider the positive aspects regarding my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you for your valuable time and effort you granted me!

Annexure D: Codebook of construct items

Remote and hybrid work

Remote/hybrid work benefits

RWB_01	I am able to coordinate work–family balance and/or to meet family needs in an appropriate way while working from home.
RWB_02	I save on commuting costs while working remotely.
RWB_03	Through remote working I have sufficient time to myself and endure less stress.
RWB_04	I comprehensively plan my work schedule and concentrate better while working from home.
RWB_05	I have positive relations with colleagues and supervisors while working remotely.
RWB_06	I have adequate access to business-related IT resources while working from home.
RWB_07	Working remotely, I experience increased job satisfaction.

Remote/hybrid work disadvantages

RWD_01	When I work from home, I lose a sense of belonging to my office.
RWD_02	I encounter isolation challenges and a lack of socialisation with colleagues while working from home.
RWD_03	With remote working I encounter a lack of recognition of my own work.
RWD_04	I experience difficulty in accessing work-related information and documents from colleagues while working remotely.
RWD_05	I encounter challenges in scheduling my work while working from home.
RWD_06	While working from home, there is less access to professional training and a lack of career progression.
RWD_07	I feel micromanaged by my superiors while working from home.
RWD_08	I am distracted and disturbed by domestic duties while working from home.
RWD_09	I am not involved in work decision-making processes while I work from home.

Psychological well-being

Intrapersonal well-being

PWB_IP_01	I feel happy.
PWB_IP_02	When something bad happens, I can adjust my emotions.
PWB_IP_03	I can focus on what I am doing.
PWB_IP_04	I feel lively.
PWB_IP_05	I feel calm.
PWB_IP_06	I can manage my everyday life with my physical strength.
PWB_IP_07	I can live with life's ups and downs and let go of unpleasant experiences.
PWB_IP_08	I have a healthy body.
PWB_IP_09	I feel satisfied with my life.
PWB_IP_10	I feel energetic.

Transpersonal well-being (PWB_TP)

PWB_TP_01	I will participate in activities to promote social changes.
PWB_TP_02	I care about what is happening in society.
PWB_TP_03	I am grateful to people around me for all they have done for me.
PWB_TP_04	I treat others with kindness.
PWB_TP_05	People (of different age or gender) should have equal opportunities.
PWB_TP_06	I am part of society.
PWB_TP_07	I am empathic towards the pain of other people.
PWB_TP_08	Personal stories connect me to people.
PWB_TP_09	I am closely connected to the environment (e.g., discrimination, environmental quality, social atmosphere, etc.).
PWB_TP_10	I am genuinely happy for the happiness of people around me.

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

OCB_01	I create a healthy and cheerful workplace environment.
OCB_02	I am motivated and motivate co-workers to achieve the organisational objectives.
OCB_03	I am punctual.
OCB_04	I am interested in taking extra lunch breaks.
OCB_05	I volunteer for additional tasks, even though it is not part of my job.
OCB_06	I am enthusiastic about my job.
OCB_07	I work more hours than what is required of me.
OCB_08	I participate in activities and meetings that could enhance my career.
OCB_09	If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
OCB_10	I am always looking for better ways to do things.
OCB_11	I excel at identifying opportunities.
OCB_12	I defend my organisation when others criticise it.
OCB_13	I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.
OCB_14	I attend non-compulsory functions and help improve the organisational image.
OCB_15	I keep up with the organisation developments.

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