Psychological Well-Being: Impact of Workplace Violence and Demographic Variables on Employees of Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development, Ibadan, Oyo State.

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Abstract: The study investigated the influence of demographic factors and workplace violence on psychological well-being among employees of ministry of physical planning and urban development, Ibadan, Oyo State. A structured questionnaire was adopted for data collection which was administered on two hundred employees. Data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Five hypotheses were stated and tested. Result showed there was a significant influence of workplace violence on psychological well-being \( t(-15.418; df=199, p<.05) \). There was a significant influence of academic qualification on psychological well-being \( (F(2,198)=6.305; p<.05) \). Age had significant influence on psychological well-being \( t(-2.509; df=199, p<.05) \). The mean observation however shows that older employees score higher (X=55.06) on psychological well-being than their counterparts (X=51.63). There was also a significant influence of years of experience on psychological well-being \( t(-2.039; df=199, p<.05) \). Furthermore, the mean observations shows that respondents with high experience scored higher (X=55.19) on psychological well-being that their counterparts with lower experience (X=52.31). It was recommended that, future study can include a larger and more broader-based sample. It would be appropriate to conduct quantitative and qualitative studies with a larger and more heterogeneous sample.

Keywords: Accountability, transparency, cash basis, accrual basis, decision making.

Introduction

Psychological well-being is about lives going well. It is the combination of feeling good and functioning effectively. Psychological well-being is, however, compromised when negative emotions are extreme or very long lasting and interfere with a person’s ability to function in his or her daily life. Therefore, well-being or happiness at work is pointed out as an essential phenomenon for appropriate and competitive organisational functioning (Rodriguez-Carvajal, Moreno-Jimenez, Rivas-Hermosilla, Alvarez-Bejarano, & Vergel, 2010). When investigated in the work context, well-being tends to be assessed by the absence of negative experiences (Luthans, 2002). Moreover, the existence of two main perspectives in the study of well-being, hedonic (affective) and perceptions of fulfilment and personal accomplishment (cognitive), favours the dichotomy between such experiences (Fave, Brdar, Freire, Vella-Brodrick & Wissing, 2011). The
psychological well-being comprises a larger number of dimensions and usually involves concepts of self-acceptance, positive social relationships, autonomy, environmental control and personal evaluation of various job characteristics comprising emotional, motivational, behavioural, cognitive and psychosomatic aspects.

An impressive body of cross-sectional survey data shows that happy people tend to function better in life than less happy people; are typically more productive and more socially engaged; and tend to have higher incomes (Diener, 200; Judge, Thoresen, Bomo & Patton, 2001). Ryan and Deci (2001) pointed out that people high in happiness or subjective well-being tend to have attribution styles that are more self-enhancing and more enabling that those low in subjective well-being, suggesting that positive emotions can lead to positive cognitions which, in turn, contribute to further positive emotions. Therefore, many risk factors and vulnerability factors for mental ill-being have been identified, some operating at the individual level (e.g. genotype, mother-infant attachment, parenting style, adverse life events), others at the social level (e.g. poverty, unemployment, discrimination) (Jenkins et al, 2008). An important question is whether demographic factors and workplace violence are predictors of psychological well-being.

A general concern in the workplace is not only how management manages, but also what goes on when colleagues choose to turn their heads. Violence normally means any aggressive behaviour that is intended to harm another human being (Baumeister & Bushman, 2007; Fountoulakis, Leucht & Kaprinis, 2008). It can take several forms in respect of the relationship between an aggressor and a victim and in respect of the setting and the type of aggressive act (Beck & Pretzer, 2005; Fountoulakis et al., 2008). However, workplace violence refers to incidents where persons are abused, threatened or assaulted in circumstances related to their work, involving an explicit or implicit challenge to their safety, well-being and health (Di Martino, Hoel & Cooper, 2003). Workplace violence is now widely recognized as a major occupational health hazards for many organisations and employees the world over (Chappell & Di Martino, 200). Workplace violence occurs in a variety of forms. These ‘types’ are violence by strangers, violence by customers or clients, violence by personal relationships.

There are many studies conducted on the linkage between workplace violence and worker’s emotional well-being, for example, it has been consistently focused on the prevalence of reported workplace violence and its impact on psychological health of the bullied (Bilgel, 2006); lower overall job satisfaction (Lapiere et al., 2005); high level of anxiety, depression, psychosomatic complaints and musculoskeletal problems (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009); physical health complaints (Bowling & Beehr, 2006); and effect of violence on self-esteem, terror, annoyance, and nervousness (Vartia-väänänen, 2003). Even awareness of the possibility of becoming exposed to violence during work duties may increase a worker’s risk of a variety of stress-related disorders and have an impact on psychological and physical well-being (Wieclaw et al., 2006; Perrot & Kelloway, 2006; Santos, Leather, Dunn & Zarola, 2009; Mueller & Tschan, 2011).

Demographic characteristics also show some differential effects for well-being and ill-being. Women have substantially higher rates of symptoms (or diagnosis) of common mental disorders such as anxiety and depression than men, but the effect of gender differences (e.g Stephens, Dulberg & Joubert, 1999), while others showed higher scores for women on some sub-scales such as those assessing social functioning (e.g. Huppert, Wlaters, Day & Elliot, 1989; Ryff & Singer,
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1998b). The findings Maria, K (2004) also revealed the significance of gender in moderating the effects of marital status on subjective wellbeing. Being married id usually associated with higher life satisfaction and lower rates of psychological ill health (see review by Dolan, Peasgood & White, 2008). But the direction of causation is not clear, since individuals with high levels of psychological wellbeing are more likely to get married (Diener, 2000). Some longitudinal studies have found that, while getting married is good for one’s psychological wellbeing, being married may not be (e.g. Zimmermann & Eaterlin, 2006). While most studies find higher educational qualification protective against poor mental health, a few have found a reverse gradient for education (see Dolan et al., 2008; Fagg et al., 2008). For example, Chevalier and Feinstein (2006) found that men with a high level of education were more likely to be depressed than those with less education.

Statement of the problem
All business strives to be in a healthy state. If employees are not in a good state of health and well-being, this is likely to contribute to poor performance (Economic and Social Research Council, 2006; MacDonald, 2005). Exposure to violence has been associated with reduced work satisfaction and psychological morbidity, which have ranged from distress to more serious psychological disorders (Carmi Iluz, Peleg, Freud & Shwartzman, 2005; Perot & Kelloway, 2006; Beech & Leather, 2006; Maguire & Ryan, 2007; Kessler, Spector, Chang, & Parr, 2008; Camerino et al., 2008). Violence at work has been increasingly recognized as a serious health concern associated with negative personal and organisational outcomes (Schat & Kelloway, 2003). Previous research has shown that client-initiated and coworker-initiated workplace aggression and violence have differential impacts on employeeswell being (Hershcovic&Barling, 2010). Budd (1999) suggested that victims of threats could be more seriously emotionally affected than victims of assaults. budd, Arvey and Lawless (1996) showed that respondents who had been physically attacked or threatened, reported increased worries about attacks and were more likely to consider bringing tear gas or even a gun to work for protection. A considerable number of respondents indicated that fear of violence (not actual victimization) had caused them mental or physical distress or had made them consider changing jobs. Hurrell, Worthington &Driscoll (1996) found that assaulted employees reported significantly higher symptom of scores for depression and less job satisfaction than non-assaulted respondents and assaulted men reported lower self-esteem. However, low level of research evidence revealed the influence of workplace violence and demographic variables on psychological wellbeing among employees of ministry of physical planning and urban development, Ibadan, Oyo State; therefore, this research tend to fill this research gap.

Purpose of study
The main objective of the study is to investigate the influence of demographic factors and workplace violence on psychological wellbeing. The specific objectives include:
1. To examine if employees with high workplace violence will significantly score higher on psychological wellbeing than their counterpart with low workplace violence.
2. To determine if demographic variables (marital status, years of experience and academic qualification) will jointly and independently predict psychological wellbeing.
3. To find out of there is a significant influence of academic qualification on psychological wellbeing.
4. To investigate if older employees will significantly score higher on psychological wellbeing than their younger counterparts
5. To examine if employees with high years of experience will significantly score higher on psychological wellbeing

**Method**

**Research Design**

The research design used in this study was a cross-sectional survey. This was considered as the most appropriate design. Therefore, the research collected the necessary data needed for the study in order to draw inferences about these variables in association with the dependent variable (psychological wellbeing) of interest. The independent variables used in this study are: demographic factors and workplace violence.

**Research setting**

The study was conducted in Ibadan, Oyo State. Oyo state with a population of 4,274,616 are largely urban and have 33 Local Government Areas (LGA). Ibadan, one of Nigeria’s oldest state capitals serves as its capital. However, the study was carried out in the ministry of physical planning and urban development, Oyo State Secretariat, Ibadan.

**Sample size and sampling technique**

The sample used was two hundred and one (201) who were randomly selected from ministry of physical planning and urban development, Oyo State secretariat, Ibadan.

**Instrument**

A structured questionnaire was used in data collection for the study. The questionnaire booklet consists of sections namely: A, B, C, and D. Section A measured the socio-demographic variables of the participants. Section B measured Psychological wellbeing, Section C measured workplace violence.

**Section A: Socio-demographic information**

It consists of items accessing socio-demographic information of the participants, such as gender, age, marital status, religion, ethnicity, academic performance and year in service. Age was measured in continuous form as reported and provided by the respondents. Gender was dichotomized into two and measured as: male and/or female. Ethnic group was dichotomized into four and measured as: Ibo, Hausa, Yoruba and others, Marital Status was dichotomized into three and measured as: Single, Married, Divorced and Separated. Educational qualification was dichotomized into four and measured as SSCE, OND/NCE, HND/B.sc, Ph.D while year in service was measured in continuous form as reported and provided by the respondents.

**Section B: General Health Questionnaire-28 Scale**

The General Health Questionnaire (*GHQ-28) is a 28-item developed by Goldberg and Hillier’s (1979). GHQ-28 is adequate in order to measure the psychological component of quality of life but it was used to measure the psychological wellbeing of employees in this study. The GHQ-28 has a 4-item response scale anchored (typically) with (1-not at all, 2-no more than usual, 3-rather more than usual, 4-much more than usual). Several scoring options are available; we used the likert method to indicate symptom severity, which scores the item response between 0-3 (0-1=2=3. Subscale range 0 to 21) as this is the recommended method for assessment of the subscales. High score above the norm indicate high psychological wellbeing while low below the room indicate low/poor psychological well-being of the employees. In the study sample, the internal consistency of the total scale is
Section C: Workplace Violence Scale

The workplace violence scale is a 22-item scale developed by (Manon & Kevin (2002) measuring risk for workplace violence and expanded a model linking a) risk and experienced of violence and aggression from the public and (b) experience of aggression from co-workers to emotional wellbeing, psychosomatic well-being, affective commitment and turnover intentions. The scale has a 4-item response scale anchored (typically) with (1-never, 2-rarely, 3-sometimes, and 4-always). Using data from 254 employees representing 71 different occupations, the measure demonstrated acceptable within-occupation and 1-month test-retest reliability was 0.92. High score above the norm indicate high workplace violence while low score below the norm indicate how workplace violence of the employees. In the sample, the internal consistency of the total scale is .63.

Procedure

On getting to the study areas permission was obtained from the authority after which recruitment for the study participants took place by approaching the participants. An ethical issue of assurances were given on the bases of confidentiality and discretion of the study. The participants were informed of the purposes and/or objectives of the study, and its seriousness. Participants were made to understand that participation would help them to address a very important issue, ‘psychological wellbeing’. Direction on how to complete the questionnaire was given to the participants and was guided in proper completion of the questionnaire. Honesty in its completion was highly and continuously emphasised during the course of administration. The researcher assured the participants that their questionnaires would not be personally identified. Finally, those participants who were willing to participants in the study were encouraged to fill the questionnaire correctly, and the questionnaires were collected on the spot.

Statistical Analysis

Data obtained was analyzed using the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS 20). Descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean, standard deviation and variance was conducted to describe the socio demographic information of the respondents. t-test for independent samples, one way ANOVA and multiple regression was used to test the hypothesis.

Result

The study was done under the guidance of the main objective which was aimed at determining the influence of demographic factors and workplace violence on psychological wellbeing. Out of this objective, five hypothesis were formulated and tested below.

Hypothesis one

The first hypothesis stated that employees with high workplace violence will significantly score higher on psychological wellbeing than their counterparts with low workplace violence was tested with t-test for independent sample. The result is presented in table 1

Table 1: Summary table of t-test for independent samples showing the significant difference between high and low dimensions of workplace violence on psychological well-being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DV</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Well-Being</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>46.16</td>
<td>7.031</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>-15.418</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>60.60</td>
<td>6.231</td>
<td>199</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 above showed there is a significant influence of workplace violence on psychological wellbeing [t(-15.418;df=199, p<.05). Furthermore, the mean observation shows that employees with high workplace violence scored higher (X=60.60) on psychological wellbeing than their counterparts with low workplace violence (X=46.16).
Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis which stated that demographic variables (age, years of experience, gender, religion, ethnicity, marital status, and academic qualification) will jointly and independently predict psychological well-being was tested using multiple regression and result is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Summary table of multiple regressions showing joint and independent prediction of demographic variables on psychological wellbeing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.950</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.638</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.086</td>
<td>-.1.242</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>-.269</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>3.731</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Qualification</td>
<td>-.224</td>
<td>-.294</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that demographic variables yielded a coefficient of multiple correlation (R) of .387 and multiple correlation square (R²) of .149. This shows that 14.9% of the total variance of psychological wellbeing was accounted for by the linear combination of age, years of experience gender, religion, ethnicity, marital status and academic qualification. This table also indicated that age, years of experience, gender, religion, ethnicity, marital status and academic qualification had a significant joint influence on psychological wellbeing [F(7, 193)=4.827; p<.05]. Furthermore, ethnicity, and academic qualification independently predicted psychological wellbeing (β=.258; t=3.731; p<.05) and (β=.224; t=3.294; p<.05) respectively while age, years of experience, gender, religion and marital status did not independently predict psychological well-being (β=.075; t=.950; p>.05), [β=.051; t=.638; p>.05], [β=.019; t=.269; p>.05] and [β=.006; t=.088; p>.05] respectively.

Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis which stated that there will be a significant influence if ethnicity on psychological well-being was tested one-way ANOVA. The result is presented in Table 3 below:

Table 3: Summary table of one way Anova showing the influence of academic qualification on psychological wellbeing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DV</th>
<th>Academic Qualificatn</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Well-Being</td>
<td>SSCE</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>57.85</td>
<td>8.04</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>6.305</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OND/NCE</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>53.05</td>
<td>10.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HND/B.sc</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>51.41</td>
<td>9.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result in the table 3 above shows that there is a significant influence of academic qualification on psychological well-being (F(2,198)=6.305; p<.05). Furthermore, the mean observations shows that respondents who are SSCE holders score higher (X=57.85) on psychological well-being, followed by respondents who are OND/NCE holders (X=53.05), while respondents who are HND/B.sc holders had the lower mean score (X=51.41).

Hypothesis Four

The fourth hypothesis which stated that older employees will score significantly higher on psychological well-being than their younger counterparts was tested with t-test for independent sample. The result is present in Table 4.
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Table 4: summary table of t-test for independent samples showing the significant difference between young and old on psychological well-being.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DV</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Well-Being</td>
<td>Young</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>51.63</td>
<td>10.23</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>-2.509</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Old</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>55.06</td>
<td>9.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 above shows that age had a significant influence on psychological well-being \(t(2.509;df=199, p<.05)\). The mean observation however shows that older employees scored higher (X=55.06) on psychological well-being than their younger counterparts (X=51.63).

**Hypothesis five**

The fifth hypothesis which stated that employees with high years’ experience will significantly score higher score on psychological well-being than their counterpart with low years of experience was tested with t-test for independent sample. The result is presented in table 5.

Table 5: summary table of t-test for independent samples showing the significant difference between high and low years of experience on psychological well-being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DV</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Well-Being</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>52.31</td>
<td>9.78</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>-2.039</td>
<td>&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>55.19</td>
<td>9.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 above showed there is a significant influence of years of experience on psychological well-being \(t(-2.039;df=199, p<.05)\). Furthermore, the mean observation shows that respondents with high experience scored higher (X=55.19) on psychological well-being than their counterparts with lower experience (X=52.31).

**Discussion**

The study showed there was significant influence of work place violence on psychological well-being and those employees with high work place violence scored higher on psychological well-being than their counterparts with low work family conflict. The result is inline with many other studies who showed linkage between workplace violence and worker’s emotional well-being, for example, it has been consistently focused on the prevalence of reported workplace violence and its impact on psychological health of the bullied (Bilgel, 2006); lower overall job satisfaction (Lapierre et al., 2005) high level of anxiety, depression, psychosomatic complaints, and musculoskeletal problems (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009); physical health complaints (Bowling & Beehr, 2006); and effect of violence on self esteem, terror, annoyance and nervousness (Vartia-Väänänen, 2003). It was also noted that years of experience, marital status, and academic qualification had a significant ony influence on psychological wellbeing. Employees who are separated score higher on psychological wellbeing, followed by divorced single while married had the lowest mean score. There is a significant influence of academic qualification on psychological wellbeing with employees who are SSCE holders score higher onpsychological wellbeing. There was also a significant influence of years of experience on psychological wellbeing. Some longitudinal studies have found that, while getting married is
good for one’s psychological wellbeing, being married may not be (Zimmermann & Easterlin, 2006). While most studies find higher educational qualifications protective against poor mental health, a few have found a reverse gradient for education (see Dolan et al., 2008; Fagg et al., 2008). For example, Chevalier and Feintein (2006) found that men with a high level of educational were more likely to be depressed than those with less education. Maria, (2004) study revealed the gender, marital status and education, the three main predictive factors of midlife wellbeing and age as a covariate explained 29% of variation in subjective well-being. Marital status was the most powerful predictive factor for variation in males’ subjective wellbeing and education was the most powerful for women.

Conclusion

The study investigated the influence of demographic factors and work family conflict on psychological wellbeing among employees of ministry of physical planning and urban development. A cross-sectional design and a quantitative methodology approach were used. Data from 201 employees were selected for the study. By making use of t-test for independent sample, multiple regression and one way ANOVA, a number of significant findings emerged from the previous procedures undertaken. These findings were considered in the light of previous studies. Hence, the study therefore concluded that there was a significant influence of workplace violence on psychological wellbeing. There was a significant influence of academic qualification on psychological wellbeing. Age had a significant influence on psychological wellbeing and there was also a significant influence of years of experience on psychological wellbeing.

Limitations and recommendation of the study

Several limitations of the study should be mentioned. First, cause-effect relationships could not be determined from these cross-sectional data. Second, relatively few of total of eighty respondents were available for the current analyses. This, the sample of this study was relatively small considering the size of the model being evaluated. Our results should, therefore, be considered as preliminary. It is also likely that only medium or higher effects could be identifies. Third, data were collected using self-reporting questionnaires. Response to questions may be biased by individuals’ willingness to self-disclose their feelings, selective recall and their desire to present themselves in a socially desirable way. Fifth, the extent to which the findings can be generalized beyond the scope of our sample remains unclear. Therefore, based on the findings of the study, following recommendations for future research could be taken into account. For example, future researchers could focus on different sub-groups such as ethnicity, socioeconomic status, subjects from urban and rural areas etc with respect to employees well-being. Given the preliminary nature of this study, further research needs to be conducted on HRM practises, the influence of demographic factors, work family conflict and workplace violence on psychological wellbeing in Nigeria. The importance of gaining greater understanding of additional antecedent constructs that might be included in the promotion of wellbeing at work is vital to this relationship. This would be helpful in contributing to the literature as well as expanding the understanding of mental health providers on psychological wellbeing among different people.

Implications of the study

There are practical implications to be drawn from there findings. Management who are responsible for the implementation of HR practices will be interested to know that by promoting commitment, trust and support through positive relationship with employees they can influence the extent to which employee well-being at work is positively or negatively promoted. By promoting
employee well-being at all levels within their organisation, managers can thus contribute to developing a public-sector workforce, which is more committed, satisfied with their jobs and work-life balance and more positively predisposed towards enhanced performance, reduced absenteeism and turnover.

The implications of these findings for management are that positive relationships can be embedded into organisational climate through the promotion of support, development of trust and involvement amongst workers. This likely to be promoted through effective implementation of HRM practices by managers’ relationships with employees that are likely to promote positive attitudes and behaviour, which shape the culture and work environment. Developing an atmosphere to equality and fairness is conductive to the promotion of employees’ voice and opportunity to be involved in decision making and team working can have a cross fertilisation effect on workers well-being, which is the pre-requisite for cooperation, flexibility, balance between work and personal life, enhance performance and reduced absenteeism.

Managers need to be enlightened that being good employer involved attracting, motivating and retaining staff. Therefore, organisational objectives are not just economic (targets and bottom line) but should involve a crucial and often overlook element of the discourse employee well-being at work, which can be used as the holistic framework for worker happiness and organisational success. Failure to evaluate employee well-being at work in terms of improved productivity, reduced sickness absence or other organisational benefits can hinder organisational sustainability, employee and societal well-being. As public sector organisations continue to go through fundamental changes, employee well-being at work appears to be a critical factor in determining employee attitudes to change, therefore the central role of workplace violence in management of employee well-being at work should be widely acknowledged. Therefore, the success and effectiveness of organisations meeting their objectives depends to a large extent on the social relations that exist between managers and employees in pursuit of organisational outcomes. It is therefore suggested that management career breaks for carers; sabbaticals; study leave; secondments and through additional support like employee assistance programme; financial services through subsidised insurance or loans; workplace facilities like crèches or medical centres and loans allowance to help pay for children.

References


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