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Research Article

Organizational Support, Psychological Safety and Well-Being Among Teaching and Non-Teaching Personnel in a Philippine Local College

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Abstract. This cross-sectional study examined perceived organizational support (POS), workplace psychological safety (WPS), and psychological well-being (PWB) among all 121 personnel of a local college in Cavite, Philippines (94 teaching and 27 non-teaching). Philippine evidence seldom examines both personnel groups within the same institution while jointly considering organizational and interpersonal resources. Respondents completed the eight-item Survey of Perceived Organizational Support, seven-item Psychological Safety Scale, and 18-item Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale. Internal consistency was low for POS (Cronbach's α = .49), acceptable for exploratory use for WPS (α = .71), and marginal for PWB (α = .64). POS was not significantly associated with WPS, r = .02, p = .868, or PWB, r = .08, p = .399; WPS was likewise not significantly associated with PWB, r = −.06, p = .542. The two-predictor regression was nonsignificant, $F(2, 118)$ = 0.55, p = .578, R^2 = .01. Non-teaching personnel reported higher PWB than teaching personnel, Welch's $t(34.80)$ = −3.09, p = .004, Hedges' g = −0.79. An exploratory covariate-adjusted model also indicated lower PWB among teaching personnel, B = −0.70, robust SE = 0.21, 95% CI [−1.11, −0.30], p = .001. Sparse employment categories and limited demographic overlap, however, prevented interpretation of this coefficient as an isolated occupational-role effect. The findings identify teaching personnel as a priority group for role-specific assessment and support a differentiated, evidence-informed approach to employee well-being in local higher education.

Keywords: *College personnel; Organizational support; Philippine higher education; Psychological safety; Psychological well-being.*

Employee well-being matters to higher education because teaching, student support, and administrative continuity depend on personnel who can sustain effective functioning. Teaching and non-teaching employees share an institutional employer but may experience different workloads, supervisory relationships, access to development, and employment security. The World Health Organization (2022) identifies workload, limited control, job insecurity, and inadequate support as psychosocial risks and recommends organizational interventions alongside manager training and worker participation.

Psychological well-being is broader than the absence of distress. Ryff (1989) described six dimensions of positive functioning: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. Ryff and Keyes (1995) supported this multidimensional account, while Ryff (2024) emphasized that social and institutional conditions shape opportunities for well-being. A meta-analysis also indicates that interventions can improve eudaimonic well-being, with effects depending on intervention characteristics (van

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Dierendonck et al., 2023). These findings favor examining employees' working conditions alongside individual coping.

Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) theory explains how resources help employees achieve goals, manage demands, and develop (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Organizational Support Theory (OST) explains the significance of employees' belief that their contributions are valued and their welfare matters (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2020). Together, the theories motivate examining perceived organizational support as an institutional resource that may support positive functioning through recognition, belonging, and access to assistance. Their integration does not imply that organizational support and eudaimonic well-being are the same construct.

Research generally associates POS with favorable employee outcomes (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Eisenberger et al., 2020). Deniz and Kocabaş (2024) found a positive POS–PWB relationship among Turkish public-university faculty after accounting for selected demographic characteristics. Research on benefits and employee intentions also links support to related outcomes (Hong et al., 2024; Viot & Benraiss-Noailles, 2025). Nevertheless, faculty-only evidence does not establish whether organizational support accounts for well-being across a college's entire workforce or retains an association when interpersonal safety is considered simultaneously.

Workplace psychological safety concerns the perceived interpersonal cost of asking questions, admitting errors, requesting help, and raising concerns. Edmondson (1999) conceptualized it as a shared team belief; this study examines individual perceptions without inferring a team climate. Psychological safety complements organizational support because institutional care and safety in everyday interaction need not coincide. Safer interaction may make assistance more accessible and support autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci et al., 2017). These are proposed mechanisms rather than processes measured in this study.

Reviews demonstrate the relevance of psychological safety while distinguishing outcomes and levels of analysis (Frazier et al., 2017; Edmondson & Bransby, 2023; Dong et al., 2024). Fleming et al. (2024) associated higher psychological safety with less burnout and greater self-efficacy among K–12 educators. Those outcomes differ from Ryff's broader measure of positive functioning. Philippine research also examines workplace stress, safety, and well-being (De Leon, 2025), but evidence remains limited on the joint contribution of POS and WPS among teaching and non-teaching employees in a single local college.

The Philippine local-college context is relevant because local universities and colleges are established and supported by local governments (Republic Act No. 10931, 2017). Employment arrangements also warrant attention. Ferrer and Canape (2025), in interviews with 15 faculty members in locally funded colleges and universities in Bukidnon, identified uncertainty surrounding contracts and finances. Catigbe (2026), studying 43 faculty members in a Philippine local college, reported an association between employment status and intention to remain. These studies address different outcomes and cannot establish a contractual-employment effect on PWB, but they support examining employment conditions when interpreting workforce differences.

The present study addresses three linked gaps: broad eudaimonic functioning cannot be inferred from work attitudes or burnout alone; separate resource studies do not establish the unique associations of POS and WPS in a joint model; and faculty-only findings may not represent non-teaching personnel. POS and WPS were therefore treated as parallel individual-level predictors of composite PWB, with their bivariate relationship also examined. Job demands, resource buffering, and psychological mechanisms were not directly tested.

The following theory-derived hypotheses guided interpretation of the three pairwise associations: H1: POS is positively associated with WPS. H2: POS is positively associated with PWB. H3: WPS is positively associated with PWB. The joint regression additionally examined whether POS and WPS each retained a positive conditional association with PWB. Teaching–non-teaching comparisons were exploratory because the framework does not specify which group should have higher scores. The study sought to describe resource perceptions and well-being across the whole workforce without attributing cross-sectional associations or unadjusted group differences to causal effects.

Methodology

Research Design

A quantitative cross-sectional correlational design was used at a public local college in Cavite, Philippines, during August–September 2026. Correlations and multiple regression examined concurrent associations, and exploratory group comparisons described differences between teaching and non-teaching personnel. The design does not establish temporal order, causal effects, resource buffering, or a shared organizational climate.

Participants and Sampling

The accessible population comprised 121 currently employed personnel: 94 teaching and 27 non-teaching staff. Total enumeration was used, and all eligible personnel were invited to participate. Eligibility required current employment during the study period and voluntary informed consent. No minimum length of service was required because the study focused on current perceptions of the organizational environment. All 121 completed records were retained for analysis.

Research Instruments

POS was assessed using an eight-item short form of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support derived from Eisenberger et al. (1986), with responses from 0 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Negatively worded items had already been reverse-scored in the source dataset; therefore, no additional reversal was applied. Five POS cells displayed as 7 were verified against the original Google Forms records as zeros and corrected to 0 before analysis. Item scores were averaged to form the POS composite. Internal consistency was low (Cronbach's α = .49), which limits the precision of score interpretation. WPS was assessed using Edmondson's (1999) seven-item scale with responses from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Negatively worded items had already been reverse-scored in the source dataset, so no additional reversal was applied. Item scores were averaged to form the WPS composite (α = .71). Scores represent individual perceptions; no team aggregation, within-team agreement assessment, or multilevel climate analysis was performed. PWB was assessed using an 18-item abbreviated Ryff scale covering autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations, purpose in life, and self-acceptance (Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Responses ranged from 1 to 7. Negatively worded items had already been reverse-scored in the source dataset, so no additional reversal was applied. The 18 entered values were averaged to form a composite score, which yielded α = .64. The composite was used because each dimension contained only three items.

Data Gathering Procedure

One member of the research team, who was employed by the Department of Education (DepEd), coordinated participant recruitment and data collection through Google Forms. Standardized instructions accompanied the questionnaire. Institutional authorization was secured before recruitment, and participation was voluntary and based on informed consent. Participants were informed of the study's purpose, procedures, confidentiality safeguards, and their right to decline or withdraw without penalty. Participants entered their responses directly into Google Forms; therefore, no manual transcription of questionnaire responses was performed. The collected responses were compiled into the analytic dataset and manually checked against the original Google Forms records to identify discrepancies and verify corrections. One member of the research team served as the statistician and conducted the statistical analyses. Direct identifiers were excluded from the analytic dataset, and findings were reported in aggregate. The research team password-protected electronic records, and access was restricted to authorized members. The study received academic approval from the program chairperson and research adviser and followed the ethical procedures prescribed in the institution's research manual. No separate research ethics committee approval identifier was issued.

Data Analysis Procedure

Frequencies and percentages described participant characteristics; means and sample standard deviations summarized scale scores; and Cronbach's alpha estimated internal consistency. Pearson correlations assessed the three pairwise associations. Simultaneous multiple regression estimated the conditional associations of POS and WPS with PWB, including coefficients, 95% confidence intervals, model fit, and variance inflation factors. Welch's independent-samples t tests compared teaching and non-teaching personnel, and Hedges' g quantified standardized group differences using the pooled standard deviation with a small-sample correction. An additional multiple linear regression examined whether the teaching–non-teaching difference in PWB remained after accounting for age, length of service, and employment status. Age, tenure, and employment status were

entered as categorical variables. HC3 heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors were used to estimate the adjusted personnel-group coefficient, 95% confidence interval, and p value. Category frequencies, variance inflation factors, and covariate overlap were examined before interpreting the adjusted coefficient. All tests were two-tailed at $\alpha = .05$. Shapiro–Wilk and Breusch–Pagan tests assessed residual normality and homoscedasticity in the POS–WPS predictor model.

A sample-size sensitivity calculation using Fisher's z normal approximation indicated that N = 121 provides approximately 80% power to detect a single two-tailed correlation of $|\rho| \approx .25$ at $\alpha = .05$. This calculation assumes independent observations and valid scoring, does not account for measurement error or multiplicity, and concerns inference beyond the observed workforce rather than the completeness of its enumeration. Smaller population associations may remain undetected. For the six exploratory tests comprising three correlations and three personnel comparisons, a Bonferroni threshold of .05/6 = .0083 was additionally considered.

Results and Discussion

Participant Characteristics

The sample included 94 teaching personnel (77.69%) and 27 non-teaching personnel (22.31%). Teaching personnel were predominantly 20-29 years old (88.30%), whereas non-teaching personnel had a wider age distribution. Women comprised 64.89% of teaching personnel and 66.67% of non-teaching personnel. Most respondents worked through job-order or contract-of-service arrangements (94.68% of teaching and 81.48% of non-teaching personnel). Most teaching personnel had three years of service or less (89.36%), while 40.74% of non-teaching personnel had served for more than 10 years. Personnel classification was therefore intertwined with age, employment arrangement, and tenure. Any observed group difference cannot be attributed to role classification alone.

Table 1. *Selected Characteristics of Teaching and Non-Teaching Personnel (N = 121)*

Characteristic	Teaching, n (%)	Non-teaching, n (%)
Age 20–29 years	83 (88.30)	5 (18.52)
Age 30–49 years	10 (10.64)	14 (51.85)
Age 50 years or older	1 (1.06)	8 (29.63)
Female	61 (64.89)	18 (66.67)
Male	32 (34.04)	8 (29.63)
Prefer not to say	1 (1.06)	1 (3.70)
Job order/contract of service	89 (94.68)	22 (81.48)
Permanent/regular	1 (1.06)	5 (18.52)
Part-time	4 (4.26)	0 (0.00)
Service of 3 years or less	84 (89.36)	8 (29.63)
Service of 4–10 years	4 (4.26)	8 (29.63)
Service exceeding 10 years	6 (6.38)	11 (40.74)

Scale Descriptives and Measurement Quality

The overall means were 3.80 for POS, 3.51 for WPS, and 3.27 for PWB (Table 2). PWB was below the arithmetic response-scale midpoint of 4.00 overall and in both groups (teaching M = 3.17; non-teaching M = 3.64). A midpoint comparison is descriptive; it is not a validated cutoff for low well-being or a clinical classification. This pattern warrants confidential follow-up across the workforce, with particular attention to the lower teaching mean. Its co-occurrence with extensive job-order/contract-of-service employment (94.68% of teaching personnel) identifies an employment context for assessment without demonstrating that contracts caused the observed scores. Internal consistency was low for POS ($\alpha = .49$), acceptable for exploratory use for WPS ($\alpha = .71$), and marginal for PWB ($\alpha = .64$). Low POS reliability and marginal PWB reliability limit measurement precision and may attenuate associations. These measurement limitations should be considered when interpreting the near-zero correlations and regression coefficients.

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics and Internal Consistency for the Analytic Sample (N = 121)*

Measure	Items	Range	All M (SD)	Teaching M (SD)	Non-teaching M (SD)	α
Perceived organizational support	8	0-6	3.80 (0.76)	3.76 (0.80)	3.95 (0.60)	.49
Workplace psychological safety	7	1-5	3.51 (0.61)	3.48 (0.63)	3.61 (0.53)	.71
Psychological well-being	18	1-7	3.27 (0.63)	3.17 (0.56)	3.64 (0.74)	.64

Relationships Among the Study Variables

Table 3. *Pearson Correlations Among Study Variables (N = 121)*

Variable	1	2	3
1. Perceived organizational support	-		
2. Workplace psychological safety	.02	-	
3. Psychological well-being	.08	-.06	-

Note. Two-tailed p values: POS–WPS = .868; POS–PWB = .399; WPS–PWB = .542. No correlation was significant at α = .05.

POS was not significantly associated with WPS in this sample, r = .02, p = .868, and was not significantly associated with PWB, r = .08, p = .399. WPS was likewise not significantly associated with PWB, r = -.06, p = .542. These findings differ from the positive relationships commonly reported in broader organizational research (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Eisenberger et al., 2020; Edmondson & Bransby, 2023) and among educators (Deniz & Kocabaş, 2024; Fleming et al., 2024). This divergence concerns the observed associations in the present dataset, rather than demonstrating a statistical difference between studies. Differences in outcome operationalization, model adjustment, workforce composition, and measurement precision prevent a direct equivalence between the present estimates and earlier favorable findings. Fleming et al. (2024) examined burnout and self-efficacy, whereas the current outcome captures broader eudaimonic functioning. None of the three observed correlations supported the positive association specified in H1, H2, or H3 at α = .05. No significance does not establish an absence of population relationships. The sensitivity estimate of $|\rho| \approx .25$ indicates limited power to detect smaller effects, while measurement error adds uncertainty. Interpret these findings considering the low POS reliability and marginal PWB reliability, and do not use them to reject JD-R or OST or to conclude that support and safety are unimportant.

Prediction of Psychological Well-Being

Table 4. *Multiple Regression Predicting Psychological Well-Being (N = 121)*

Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*	95% CI for B
Constant	3.23	0.44	-	7.34	< .001	[2.36, 4.10]
Perceived organizational support	0.06	0.08	.08	0.85	.395	[-0.09, 0.22]
Workplace psychological safety	-0.06	0.09	-.06	-0.62	.534	[-0.25, 0.13]

Note. R^2 = .01; adjusted R^2 = -.01; $F(2, 118) = 0.55$, $p = .578$. *CI* = confidence interval.

The two-predictor regression model was not statistically significant, F(2, 118) = 0.55, p = .578, with R^2 = .01 (adjusted R^2 = -.01). POS did not significantly contribute to PWB in this sample, B = 0.06, SE = 0.08, β = .08, t = 0.85, p = .395, 95% CI [-0.09, 0.22]. WPS also did not contribute significantly, B = -0.06, SE = 0.09, β = -.06, t = -0.62, p = .534, 95% CI [-0.25, 0.13]. Collinearity was negligible (VIF = 1.00). Residuals did not significantly depart from normality (Shapiro-Wilk W = .98, p = .085), and the Breusch-Pagan test did not indicate heteroscedasticity ($\chi^2(2)$ = 1.52, p = .468). The model provided no evidence of positive conditional associations between POS or WPS and PWB in the reported scores. The low explanatory value may reflect measurement problems, omitted workplace conditions, or weak associations in this context; this analysis cannot distinguish among these possibilities. Job demands and proposed mechanisms were unmeasured, and no group-by-resource interactions were tested. Consequently, the regression does not establish that resource effects differ by personnel classification.

Teaching and Non-Teaching Personnel

Table 5. *Welch's Tests Comparing Teaching and Non-Teaching Personnel*

Measure	Teaching M (SD)	Non-teaching M (SD)	Difference [95% CI]	t (df)	p	Hedges' g
POS	3.76 (0.80)	3.95 (0.60)	−0.19 [−0.48, 0.09]	−1.35 (54.83)	.184	−0.25
WPS	3.48 (0.63)	3.61 (0.53)	−0.14 [−0.38, 0.11]	−1.12 (48.93)	.268	−0.22
PWB	3.17 (0.56)	3.64 (0.74)	−0.48 [−0.79, −0.16]	−3.09 (34.80)	.004	−0.79

Note. Differences are calculated as teaching minus non-teaching. Confidence intervals were calculated using Welch's unequal-variance procedure. Hedges' g was calculated using the pooled standard deviation with a small-sample correction. Negative values indicate lower scores among teaching personnel. Tests were two-tailed.

Welch's tests indicated no significant teaching–non-teaching difference in POS, $t(54.83) = -1.35$, $p = .184$, or WPS, $t(48.93) = -1.12$, $p = .268$. Non-teaching personnel reported significantly higher PWB, $t(34.80) = -3.09$, $p = .004$. The teaching-minus-non-teaching mean difference was −0.48, 95% CI [−0.79, −0.16], with a moderate-to-large standardized difference, Hedges' $g = -0.79$. The PWB comparison remained significant using the Bonferroni-adjusted threshold of .0083. This correction does not address confounding or measurement validity.

Table 6. *Exploratory Covariate-Adjusted Regression Predicting Psychological Well-Being*

Predictor	*B*	Robust SE	95% CI	*p*
Teaching personnel	−0.70	0.21	[−1.11, −0.30]	.001
Age: 30–49 years	0.00	0.21	[−0.42, 0.42]	.995
Age: 50 years or older	−0.26	0.43	[−1.12, 0.60]	.555
Service: 4–10 years	−0.11	0.28	[−0.67, 0.44]	.684
Service: more than 10 years	−0.29	0.37	[−1.03, 0.45]	.438
Permanent/regular	0.04	0.36	[−0.69, 0.76]	.919
Part-time	0.10	0.37	[−0.63, 0.84]	.777

Note. Reference categories were non-teaching personnel, age 20–29 years, three years of service or less, and job order/contract of service. HC3 heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors were used. Sparse categories and limited covariate overlap restrict interpretation of the adjusted personnel-group coefficient.

Table 6 presents the exploratory regression examining the teaching–non-teaching difference in PWB after accounting for age, length of service, and employment status. Teaching personnel had significantly lower adjusted PWB than non-teaching personnel, $B = -0.70$, robust SE = 0.21, 95% CI [−1.11, −0.30], $p = .001$. The adjusted estimate was larger than the unadjusted mean difference of −0.48, indicating that adjustment did not attenuate the observed group disparity. None of the individual age, tenure, or employment-status coefficients was statistically significant. Their wide confidence intervals indicate considerable uncertainty and should not be interpreted as evidence that these characteristics are unrelated to well-being.

Although the adjusted group difference remained significant, the coefficient cannot be interpreted as an independent or causal effect of teaching status. Personnel classification was substantially intertwined with age, tenure, and employment arrangements. Only six employees were permanent/regular, including one teaching employee, while all four part-time employees belonged to the teaching group. Several demographic profiles also had limited representation from one personnel group. Although variance inflation factors did not indicate severe numerical multicollinearity, limited covariate overlap prevented the model from creating fully comparable teaching and non-teaching groups. The adjusted coefficient is therefore best understood as an exploratory conditional association that warrants investigation in larger, more balanced multisite samples.

Limitations and Future Research

The study describes one institution at one time point. Total enumeration covered the accessible workforce but does not remove response bias, common-method bias, or limits on generalization. The small non-teaching group, sparse employment categories, and limited covariate overlap restricted group comparisons. Although the exploratory adjusted regression included age, length of service, and employment status, it could not fully separate personnel classification from workforce composition. Low POS reliability and marginal PWB reliability further limit confidence in score interpretation. Employment insecurity, workload, compensation, and supervisory practices were not directly measured and cannot be presented as demonstrated explanations.

Future research should pilot locally reviewed instrument wording, examine item functioning through cognitive interviews, and assess measurement equivalence using sufficiently large samples. Multisite studies should

measure job demands and employment conditions directly and recruit adequate numbers across occupational, age, tenure, and employment categories. Longitudinal and mixed-method designs could determine whether the PWB disparity persists over time and clarify the work experiences underlying it. These steps would establish whether the observed pattern remains after measurement and compositional differences are more adequately addressed.

Conclusion

This whole-workforce study contributes evidence that employee well-being may differ substantially across occupational groups operating within the same higher education institution. General perceptions of organizational support and psychological safety did not explain meaningful variation in psychological well-being in this sample. Teaching personnel demonstrated lower PWB than non-teaching personnel in both the unadjusted comparison and the exploratory model accounting for age, length of service, and employment status. Because the groups had markedly different demographic and employment profiles and several covariate categories were sparsely represented, the adjusted association should not be interpreted as an isolated or causal effect of teaching work. Instead, it identifies teaching personnel as a priority group for closer institutional assessment.

The findings support a differentiated approach to employee well-being rather than reliance on uniform wellness activities alone. Institutional leaders should conduct confidential, role-specific needs assessments and review teaching workloads, employment arrangements, access to supervisory support, recognition practices, role clarity, and development opportunities. An institutional employee well-being plan should identify responsible offices, implementation timelines, consultation mechanisms, and measurable outcomes. Opportunities for personnel to communicate concerns should be accompanied by visible and appropriate organizational responses. The study therefore provides a practical basis for examining employees' actual working conditions while recognizing that the effectiveness of particular interventions must still be established through subsequent research.

Contributions of Authors

All authors contributed collaboratively to the study's conceptualization, methodology, data collection, data curation, analysis and interpretation, manuscript preparation, critical review, and approval of the final version.

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Conflict of Interests

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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