

Elizabeth Allan

Paying it forward: An exploration of links from Objectively and Subjectively Precarious Work to Wellbeing and Social Engagement

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Abstract

Research around subjectively precarious work has largely focused on work-related outcomes for the sake of improving employee productivity and organisational commitment. While objectively precarious work conditions, such as low earnings, have been studied for their social consequences, subjective precariousness is comparatively under-researched. In the present study it was theorised that precarious work structures may have potential links to social outcomes that extend beyond the workplace. The study explored the subjective experience of work-related precariousness and how it interacted with earnings and perceived organisational support (POS) and linked with organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), wellbeing and social engagement. The study found that the subjective experience of work-related precariousness a) predicted OCB, wellbeing and reciprocal trust (social engagement) b) fully mediated the link between POS and organisation-oriented OCB and partially mediated the link between POS and wellbeing and c) moderated links from earnings to organisation-oriented OCB and wellbeing and from POS to individual-oriented OCB and trust. Therefore the subjective experience of work-related precariousness was found to be a potentially pivotal variable through which the effects of precarious work on workers wellbeing and social engagement could be further explored in future research.

Chapter 1 - Critical Literature Review

Work is widely touted as the path to prosperity, yet by 2019 7.1% of the world's working population was still experiencing extreme poverty globally (United Nations, 2020). Furthermore, there have been international reports of a 'squeezed middle class' as the rewards of economic growth are not being fairly distributed (Perry, 2019) prosperity is declining (Curtis et al., 2020) and middle incomes are stagnating (Thewissen et al., 2015). New Zealand faces its own working poverty and middle-class squeeze as more and more households find themselves living off proportionally low incomes from work when compared to the national median income (Perry 2019; Rashbrooke, 2015). Of all working households, 7% face material hardship (Plum et al., 2019) and an estimated 40% of children in poverty are from homes with at least one working member. Thus, since 1982, the number of households earning less than 40% of the contemporary median household income has risen from just 4% to 11% (Perry, 2019) demonstrating a swell of households on low incomes relative to the general living standards of the populace.

This 'squeeze' is not perpetuated by low incomes alone, as middle-New Zealanders identify job insecurity as a pressing issue (Curtis et al. 2020). Job insecurity or precarious work has been increasing through de-unionization, financialization, globalization and the digital revolution (Kalleberg and Vallas, 2018). As permanent work declines, and job supply is low, workers have been forced to accept contracts that are insecure, unstable and uncertain, limiting their freedom and ability to plan for their futures (International Labour Organization, 2012; Pembroke, 2019). In a 2013 report, the New Zealand Council of Trade Unions estimated that around 30% of the New Zealand workforce, some 650,000 people, were in insecure or precarious work (New

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Zealand Council of Trade Unions, 2013). This figure has not since been updated and we may not know the full extent of precarious employment in New Zealand today. However, the current COVID-19 pandemic and subsequent lockdowns give cause for concern that precarious work and poverty may increase in the wake of a hampered economy. During the first lockdown alone (in March/April 2020), 232,000 households had either lost more than a third of their income or all of their earned income and a further 447,000 households saw an income reduction of less than a third (Frischknecht, 2020).

It has been argued that both poverty and precarious work need to be viewed as social rather than individual problems (International Labour Organization, 2012; Rashbrooke, 2013). With a significant portion of New Zealanders working in poorly paid and precarious jobs, there is reason to consider the social and health implications of precarity for the workers who endure it, their organisations and the communities in which they are situated. This study looks at three criterion variables, deemed to reflect key aspects of health and engagement in everyday wider society. Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is a measure of helpful behaviours and social engagement within the workplace, that go beyond the formal job description. Wellbeing is a measure for the presence of positive emotions and energy. Social engagement is taken as a measure of community participation and social attitudes. Specifically, the thesis explores connections from earnings (income) and perceived organisational support (POS) to OCB, wellbeing, and social engagement, as mediated or moderated by the subjective experience of work-related precariousness.

The possibility that earnings, POS and subjectively precarious work may link to OCB, wellbeing and social engagement is rooted in theories around freedom and social exchange. For example,

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freedom has been conceptualised as both the opportunity to choose and the capacity to choose between two or more viable alternatives (Chua et al., 2020). Proponents of Isiah Berlin's theory of two liberties, who propose that there is both negative liberty (freedom from) and positive liberty (freedom to), argue that the under-resourced do not always have the capacity to choose (Bowring, 2015; Christman, 2005; Dimova-Cookson, 2020). While the issue of freedom is generally discussed in relation to livelihoods (Chua et al., 2020, Dimova-Cookson, 2020), perhaps earnings and subjective work security also facilitate freedoms of choice in the domain of OCB, social engagement and wellbeing. In this regard, the decision to actively support and participate in one's organisation and community relies, in part, on acquiring the resources to do so.

Earnings, POS and secure work (non-precarious work) may not only give workers the means to engage but also a reason to do so. Psychological theory provides that reason. Social exchange theory for example proposes that as parties interact they generate social obligations toward one another as defined by social norms and rules of exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Shore et al., 2006). When these rules of exchange are adhered to by all parties, trusting, loyal and mutual commitments are formed (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

One such rule is the rule of reciprocity or repayment in kind (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger et al., 2001). Such commitments would logically support social engagement. A reciprocal exchange is one without explicit bargaining but rather is founded on unspoken norms and expectations of how one ought to behave. Research and academic speculation to date suggests that reciprocity may be a quasi-universal human norm, with the degree to which it is

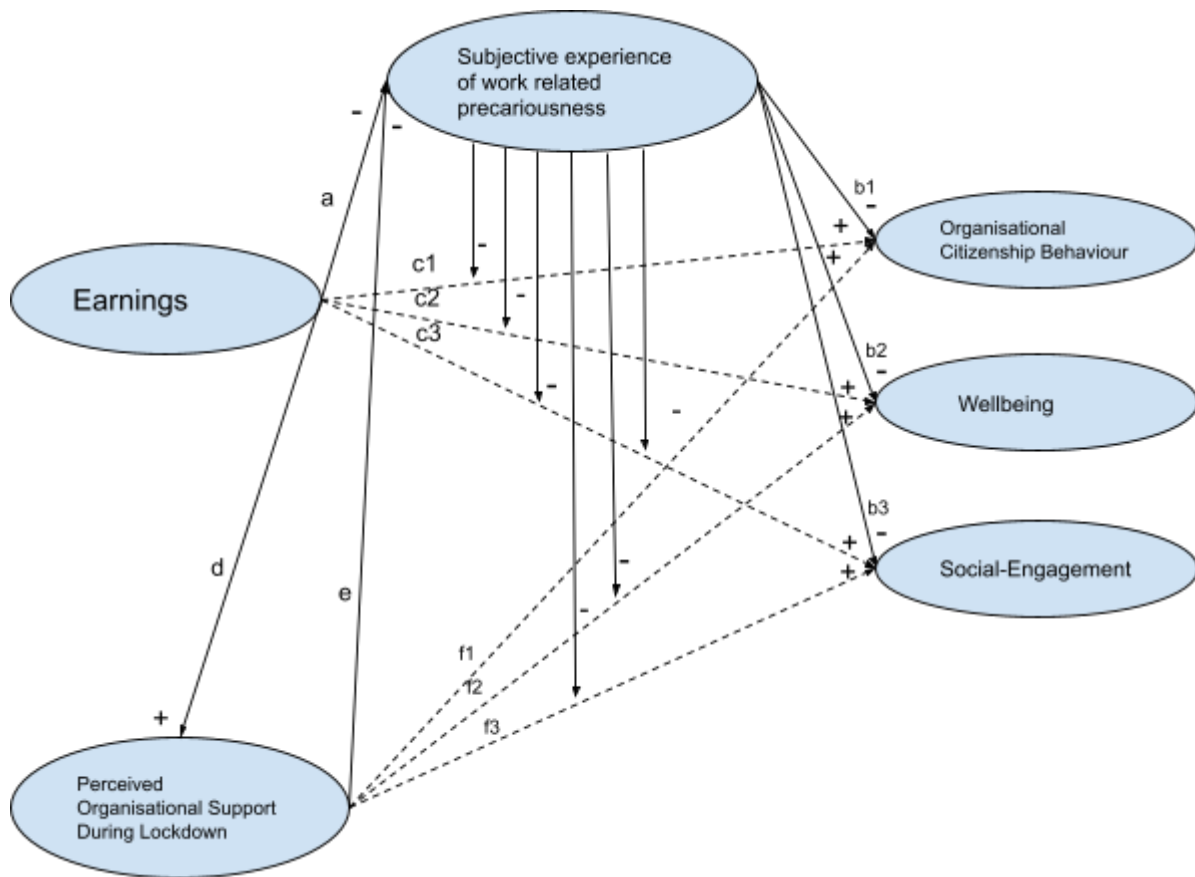
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endorsed varying across cultures and individuals (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Social exchange theory would suggest that any perceived effort by an organisation to support their employees would generate an obligation amongst employees to support the organisation in return (Eisenberger et al., 2001). This study explores whether such an interaction may occur not only within the workplace but by extension wider society. In other words, do workers reciprocate any perceived support and security given them by their employing organisation in society through making social contributions to society?

Figure 1 depicts a model that was developed to explore links between the work-related resources of earnings and POS to the subjective experience of work-related precariousness, and the outcome variables of OCB, wellbeing and social engagement. This study, and the model, has three interrelated aims. A first aim from Figure 1 is to explore ways in which earnings are associated with POS, the subjective experience of work-related precariousness, OCB, wellbeing, and social engagement. A second aim from Figure 1 in recognition of the ongoing economic impact of the Covid-19 pandemic, is to explore how POS during lockdown interacts with the subjective experience of work-related precariousness, OCB, wellbeing and social engagement. A third and final aim from Figure 1 is to explore how the subjective experience of work-related precariousness may interact with OCB, wellbeing and social engagement and/or mediate links from earnings and POS.

Figure 1

Model of Mediation and Moderation Interactions



The Subjective Experience of Work-Related Precariousness, Earnings and Perceived Organisational Support

From Figure 1, *Earnings* and the *subjective experience of work-related precariousness* function as measures for objective and subjective precariousness. Precarious work is generally considered as employment that is unstable, uncertain and insecure (Kalleberg & Vallas, 2018). Work-related precariousness has been identified as both the substantial insecure conditions under which

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employees work (objective) and the insecurity employees feel (subjective). Therefore Figure 1 differentiates between objective and subjective precariousness.

Objectively precarious conditions may include low wages, poor protection from termination, lack of access to social protections associated with full-time standard employment, and limited access for workers to exercise their rights at work (International Labour Organization, 2012). Such conditions are often imposed on employees through the implementation of insecure contracts (International Labour Organization, 2012). Contracts may be limited in duration, such as fixed-term or seasonal work, or require flexible hours such as zero-hour contracts (International Labour Organization, 2012; Pembroke, 2019). Furthermore, contracts with obscure employment relationships such as ‘bogus’ self-employment or sub-contracting deprive workers of entitlements like holiday pay or minimal wages (International Labour Organization, 2012; Pembroke, 2019). The pervasiveness of digital devices has given rise to the ‘on demand’ economy where firms use digital platforms as their organisational structure (International Labour Organisation, 2021; Kalleberg & Vallas, 2018). The use of terms of service agreements rather than employment contracts characterise the relationship as something other than employment, redefining many workers as independent contractors within a ‘bogus’ self-employment system (International Labour Organisation, 2021; Kalleberg & Vallas, 2018).

Figure 1 includes earnings as one objective measure of precarious working conditions (International Labour Organization, 2012; Rubery et al., 2018). *Earnings* are the first antecedent variable in the model and refer to income quantified through multiple measures such as hourly wages, salary, the number of hours worked, weekly take-home income, and personal and

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household annual income. As insecure work contracts circumvent employment regulations, it is possible that a portion of lower earners may be subject to such contracts (International Labour Organization, 2012; Rubery et al., 2018). Therefore earnings may not only be a self-evident measure of precarious work conditions but an indicator of greater and more far-reaching precarity. Conversely, while research gives reason to assume that lower earners experience greater insecurity, the construct itself does not measure the experience of insecurity. This gap brings us to the mediating and moderating variable shown in Figure 1, the subjective experience of work-related precariousness.

Not everyone in precarious employment experiences precarity to the same degree. Institutional and social variables outside of the workplace may act to modify the impact of precarious work on the worker, potentially amplifying or cushioning the effects of precarious employment (Campbell and Price, 2016). Wider social conditions such as household structures, social networks, access to welfare or immigration or citizenship status may also be precarious (Campbell and Price, 2016; Clement et al., 2009). The precariousness of a part-time job at a supermarket would likely not be experienced by a secondary school student, who is otherwise supported by their parents, the way it would be experienced by many working adults. Therefore, despite objectively precarious employment characteristics, precarity for the individual is experienced subject to their wider social context (Campbell and Price, 2016). In identifying the *precarious worker* - the employee who is enduring the consequences of precarious work (Benach and Muntaner 2007; Campbell and Price, 2016) a subjective measure may be required.

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For this reason, Figure 1 includes the subjective experience of work-related precariousness. This subjectively experienced precariousness may be viewed as the difference between the job security one feels they have and the level of security they would prefer to have or believe they need (Benach & Muntaner, 2007; Seubert et al., 2019). While the objective measure of earnings asks workers how much income they earn, this subjective measure asks workers if they believe they earn enough to meet their needs. The subjective experience of work-related precariousness may be expanded from work that is contractually insecure to work that is unfulfilling or uncertain in aspects of work relationships and job content (Seubert et al., 2019). In their construction of a measure for the subjective experience of work-related precariousness, Seubert et al. (2019) propose that work-related precariousness may be experienced financially, legally, socially, and in status and job meaningfulness. This study asks if lower earnings predict the subjective experience of work-related precariousness which would indicate that lower wage workers feel greater general insecurity. Therefore, Figure 1 shows a potential negative link between earnings and the subjective experience of work-related precariousness.

An additional antecedent shown in Figure 1 is *Perceived Organisational Support (POS)*. The COVID-19 virus has presented itself as a new threat to the world of work as the ongoing fight against the pandemic has seen jobs lost, wages cut and workplaces abandoned (Frischknecht, 2020). In New Zealand many employees became remote workers for the first time in their career (Frischknecht, 2020). The country followed a global trend as the pandemic accelerated the expansion of digital platforms (International Labour Organisation, 2021). However, not all industries were able to adapt and a large number of workers either lost their jobs or suffered pay reductions (Frischknecht, 2020). It was judged that ignoring the impact of Covid-19 would be

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imprudent and a further measure of perceived organisational support during lockdown was introduced into the model shown in Figure 1.

POS refers to an employee's general beliefs regarding the extent to which their organisation is committed to them and values their contributions and wellbeing (Krishnan & Mary, 2012; Worley et al., 2009). This study explores specifically *POS* at a time of high uncertainty around life and work during New Zealand's nationwide lockdown. Figure 1 shows *POS* during lockdown functioning on two levels. Firstly, it is potentially a secondary mediating variable for the link between earnings and forms of social engagement defined above (OCB, wellbeing and social engagement). The model shows a positive link between earnings and perceived organisational support. The study will explore whether higher earners felt more appreciated and supported by their employers during the lockdown period than their lower-wage counterparts.

Secondly, *POS* is shown in Figure 1 as a second antecedent variable. As with earnings, *POS* is shown in the model to have a positive link with OCB, wellbeing and social engagement. This link is mediated and/or moderated by the subjective experience of work-related precariousness which is negatively linked to *POS*. This study explores whether *POS* during lockdown links to OCB, wellbeing and social engagement and whether such links are mediated or moderated by the subjective experience of work-related precariousness.

Thus far, three constructs from Figure 1 have been introduced to measure objective and subjective facets of hardship and insecurity. In summary, these constructs are earnings, *POS* during lockdown and the subjective experience of work-related precariousness. Three potential

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links are depicted in Figure 1, a positive link between earnings and POS, a negative link between earnings and the subjective experience of work related precariousness, and a negative link between POS and the subjective experience of work-related precariousness.

CRITERION VARIABLES

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The first dependent variable depicted in Figure 1 is *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)*. OCB is a type of discretionary work behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation but falls outside of one's job description and formal contract (Alizadeh et al., 2012; Xerri & Brunetto, 2013). OCBs can be either (a) helping behaviours that benefit specific co-workers, e.g. a teammate in need; or (b) behaviours that demonstrate organisational commitment and benefit the organisation as a whole, e.g. attending non-obligatory work functions (Alizadeh et al., 2012, Williams and Anderson, 1991). These two types of OCB are termed in the literature respectively as (a) individual-oriented and (b) organisation-oriented. The construct of OCB in Figure 1 covers both individual and organisation-oriented behaviours.

The model in Figure 1 also shows potential antecedents to OCB from (a) perceived organisational support (during lockdown), (b) the subjective experience of work-related precariousness and (c) earnings.

(a) Perceived organisational support. Research has found POS to predict positive employee responses including organisational citizenship behaviour (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Pohl et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2012). In a study from a large mail-processing facility in the U.S., Eisenberger

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et al. (2001) found that POS increased employees' felt obligation to care about their organisation's welfare. In China, Wong et al. (2012) found that POS predicted OCB and trust amongst workers in a variety of positions across three electronics factories. And Pohl et al. (2013) found POS to be a greater predictor of organisation-oriented behaviours than individual-oriented behaviours in a study of nurses from hospitals throughout Belgium. Hence there are empirical grounds to expect a potential link between POS and OCB (Figure 1).

Social exchange theory offers a potential explanation of these observed links between POS and OCB. Employees who believe that their organisation values their contributions and is concerned about their wellbeing will feel obligated to reciprocally care about the welfare of their organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2001). This reciprocity between individual and organisation may explain why perceived organisational support has been found to be a stronger predictor of organisation-oriented behaviours than individual-oriented behaviours. (Pohl et al., 2013). In line with social exchange theory, workers, therefore, may target their behaviour to directly benefit the organisation as a form of reciprocal exchange (Pohl et al., 2013; Redman & Snape, 2006). The social exchange theory provides reason to anticipate a similar positive link between POS and OCB to what has been found in previous studies (Figure 1).

While a link between POS and OCB has been observed in more economically stable times, this study explores whether the same link exists within a crisis scenario. With the enforcement of lockdowns, there were changes to the way workplaces could function which threatened the existence of some jobs entirely. As workers were subjugated to this uncertainty by distant and external forces, protection and security offered by their organisation may logically and

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psychologically be felt and appreciated to a greater degree. This study, therefore, explores if the link between POS and OCB may be more salient during times of high uncertainty such as the Covid-19 pandemic. Figure 1, therefore, includes POS during lockdown as a potential statistical predictor of OCB. Specifically, a positive link between POS and OCB is predicted in Figure 1, within the context of a 6-week level 4 and 3 lockdown.

(b) The subjective experience of work-related precariousness. The obverse of perceived organisational support is lack of support, for example, if an employer fails to provide secure work conditions during a pandemic. In contrast to POS, the absence of material support may create feelings of work insecurity. According to Figure 1, any resulting subjective experiences of work-related precariousness may predict lower levels of OCB. Employees who feel that their organisation is not providing them with help and protection during a pandemic, or any other form of crisis, may logically feel less obligation to expend extra resources on helpful behaviours as a form of social exchange.

In addition to social exchange theory, another theoretical basis for a negative link between the subjective experience of work-related precariousness and OCB, as shown in Figure 1, is a process termed Hindrance Effect. According to the Hindrance Effect Theory, hindrance stressors arise as work-related demands that evoke negative affective reactions (Heaney et al., 1994; Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010). Such stressors may compete for mental bandwidth, distracting employees from tasks and causing them to withdraw in order to cope (Meuris and Leana, 2015; Piccoli et al., 2021). Perceived job insecurity - uncertainty around the future of one's job - has been found to operate as a hindrance stressor that reduces OCB in an Italian manufacturing

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company (Piccoli et al., 2021) and in a German electronic wholesale company (Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010). Similarly to work insecurity, the subjective experience of work-related precariousness may also operate as a hindrance stressor, causing workers to withdraw and not expend resources on organisational citizenship behaviour. This prediction is shown in Figure 1 by the negative link between the subjective experience of work-related precariousness and OCB.

(c) Earnings. One direct way that an employer can manifest support for a worker is by paying reasonable wages. Figure 1 shows a positive link between wage and OCB and also a mediation pathway through POS. A New Zealand study by Haar (2019), which observed the effects of the New Zealand living wage found a positive link between the living wage and OCB. Haar (2019) attributed this link to a social exchange process and explained that the payout of living wages may be interpreted by lower-wage employees as recognition of their workforce efforts. Therefore workers may respond through principles of social exchange rather than economic exchange. Earnings are generally viewed as part of an economic exchange in which, by contract, wages are paid in return for work (Zafirovski, 2005). OCBs are viewed as falling outside of economic exchange as their inclusion in work practice may receive no further monetary reward, nor would their omission be likely punishable (Alizadeh et al., 2012). The present study, however, aims to see if earnings serve as more than just an economic exchange, but rather a socio-economic exchange that promotes OCB even at higher income levels.

Additionally, lower wages lead to material deprivation and social deprivation which may also operate as hindrance stressors (Meuris & Leana, 2015). As Meuris and Leana (2015) argue, workers cannot take off the metaphorical ‘backpack’ of material and social deprivation when

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they arrive at their workplace. The worker will likely continue to be preoccupied with the stress of lack and bills to pay while at work. Theoretically, these stressors compete for mental resources making it difficult to focus on tasks (Gennetian & Shafir, 2015). This study explores whether the potential hindrance stressor of low earnings is, therefore, negatively associated with OCB. In summary, both Social Exchange Theory and Hindrance Effect Theory offer theoretical bases for exploration into a link between earnings and OCB. The prediction of a positive link is depicted in Figure 1.

Wellbeing

A second criterion variable shown in Figure 1 is *Wellbeing*. The term wellbeing has been associated by different researchers with a broad range of constructs (Roemer & Harris, 2018; Headey & Wooden, 2004). For example, while some studies focus on psychological distress others measure positive emotions or happiness (Headey & Wooden, 2004; Bech et al. 2003). This study will focus specifically on the presence of positive emotions. Wellbeing is considered a construct of general good mood, energy and engagement in interest (Bech et al. 2003). Figure 1 shows potential antecedents to wellbeing from (a) earnings, (b) the subjective experience of work-related precariousness and (c) perceived organisational support (during lockdown).

(a) Earnings. Research into the direct link between earnings and wellbeing has found variation in the interaction across different economic strata. Studies that have compared socio-economic groups have found that the poor report lower levels of wellbeing than those who live free of poverty indicating an overall positive link between income and wellbeing (Lever, 2004; Waldegrave & Cameron 2010). However, the link between income and wellbeing is strongest

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amongst the poor (Lever, 2004) and those who are at risk of poverty (Simona-Moussa, 2020) resulting in a curvilinear relationship between income and wellbeing which weakens at higher income levels, (Diener et al; 1993). Therefore, increments of earnings may make more of a difference at lower income levels than at higher income levels where there are diminishing marginal returns. This study aims to observe a range of incomes from high to low, but expects to predominate around low to middle incomes. Therefore, Figure 1 predicts a positive link between earnings and wellbeing.

(b) *The subjective experience of work-related precariousness.* If low income, as an objectively precarious working condition, predicts poor wellbeing then so too may the subjective experience of work-related precariousness. In addition to low income, the precarious working condition of job insecurity has also been linked to low wellbeing (Burchell, 2011; Haar and Brougham, 2019) including wellbeing as happiness (Stiglbauer & Batinic, 2015). Prolonged perceived job insecurity may hinder wellbeing even more than unemployment does as workers are kept in a continual state of stress and are unable to adapt (Burchell, 2011). While studies have looked at the impact of these specific working conditions, there remains a gap regarding subjectively experienced work precariousness. However, the research around income and job insecurity points to the subjective experience of work-related precariousness as a potential predictor of low wellbeing. Accordingly, Figure 1 shows a negative link from the subjective experience of work-related precariousness to wellbeing.

Additionally the subjective experience of work-related precariousness may mediate or moderate links from earnings and POS to wellbeing. Higher earnings or POS could lead to a greater sense

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of security (low precariousness) which in turn facilitates wellbeing (mediation). On the other hand, subjective precariousness may mitigate the positive effects earnings or POS on wellbeing. Therefore, Figure 1 depicts the subjective experience of work-related precariousness as a potential mediating and moderating variable for links from earnings and POS to wellbeing.

(c) Perceived organisational support. Studies have found POS to be a predictor of employee wellbeing (Bajaj & Krishnan, 2016; Roemer & Harris, 2018). Weekly changes in perceived organisational support have even been found to predict fluctuations in wellbeing (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2016). Two theories regarding job-related resources would predict a link from perceived organisational support to wellbeing: Job-Demands Resource Theory and the Conservation of Resource Theory.

Job demands-resources theory proposes the job demands and job resources facilitate different processes and interact in two ways (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Roemer & Harris, 2018). Firstly, job demands predict negative health outcomes but the negative effects of job demands can be cushioned by job resources. Secondly, job resources predict motivational processes which can be enhanced by job demands. Therefore, workers who feel that they have received support while facing job demands may experience greater wellbeing as a result of the interaction (Bakker & Demerouti; Roemer & Harris, 2018). A study by Bakker et al. (2007) provides an example of this as supervisor support was able to buffer the negative effects of student misbehaviour (as a job demand) for teachers. Furthermore, supervisor support was more salient, relevant and appreciated when job demands were high.

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More dynamically, Conservation of resource theory suggests that resources progressively accumulate and protect individuals from further resource loss, which in turn increasingly over time facilitates dealing with stress (Hobfoll & Schumm, 2002; Roemer & Harris, 2018). For example, regarding their own study of human service counsellors, Wright and Hobfoll (2004), discuss how in order to deal with the stress of emotional exhaustion, workers may display withdrawal behaviour through tardiness or absenteeism in an attempt to conserve energy. Burnout occurred when workers perceived that they did not have a sufficient reserve of physical, social or emotional resources. In both theories POS works as a socioemotional resource instrumental in alleviating stress. Specifically, in terms of Figure 1, higher levels of POS may buffer the negative effects of lockdown, actively help workers cope with stress and subsequently promote subjective wellbeing. Therefore Figure 1 predicts that POS during lockdown will be positively linked to wellbeing.

Social Engagement

The final criterion variable featured in Figure 1 is *Social Engagement*. Social engagement covers a range of behaviours and attitudes often conceptualised within social cohesion, social capital and civic engagement. Attitudes and behaviours encapsulated in social engagement include trust, reciprocity and community, social and political participation. The objective of this study, to explore the potential social implications of precarious work, was spurred on by past research that has connected poverty to a range of adverse social outcomes. Poverty has been linked to social distrust (Gallego, 2016), declining political engagement (Schraff, 2019), corruption (Van Rijckeghem & Weder, 1997) and violent crime (Hsieh & Pugh, 1993; Kennedy et al., 1998). This

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study does not look at each of these social outcomes, but rather at social engagement which, when absent, has been theorised to be a root cause or precursor of negative social outcomes.

The model in Figure 1 shows three potential direct antecedents to social engagement (a) earnings, (b) the subjective experience of work-related precariousness and (c) perceived organisational support (during lockdown).

(a) *Earnings*. Figure 1 shows a direct positive link between earnings and social engagement. The links shown in the model are underpinned by theories and research into freedom, trust and withdrawal. The theory of two liberties gives reason to expect some disparity in social engagement between precarious and non-precarious workers (Bowring, 2015; Christman, 2005; Dimova-Cookson, 2020). Those with greater incomes may be better resourced to join clubs, volunteer, or join social gatherings and therefore have more opportunities to engage. Stable work may also provide workers with time and foresight, further enabling them to build a community around themselves as they are able to plan their day, week and future (Pembroke, 2019). One conceptualisation of poverty by Townsend (1979) goes even further than connecting poverty to low social engagement. Townsend framed low social engagement as a hallmark of poverty, a form of deprivation, in that the poor are those who are so under-resourced that they are unable to fully participate in society. However, while freedom, or lack thereof, may explain some variation in social engagement, it does not extend to constructs such as trust which are so vital to social cohesion and subsequently, social engagement.

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Erosion of social trust has been linked to poverty and inequality. A state level study from the U.S. by Uslaner and Brown (2005) found links between income inequality and trust. On the individual level, a survey of Dutch citizens by Gallego (2016) found that perceptions of inequality linked to low generalised trust amongst the socially disadvantaged. And in another study of approximately 40,000 households in the U.K., Ferragina et al. (2017) found that income was directly linked to trust. According to Uslaner & Brown (2005), there are two primary psychological mechanisms that link material deprivation to low trust. Firstly, high levels of inequality may decrease optimism for the future. Highly trusting people may hold the worldview that the world is a good place, it will get better and one can make it better, and therefore experience not only optimism but a sense of control (Uslaner & Brown, 2005). However, those on lower earnings may adopt a more pessimistic outlook that lacks hope and perceived control and is wary of others. Secondly, people of different economic backgrounds are less likely than those of the same economic strata to have a sense of shared fate. Therefore, high levels of inequality may reduce the trust different groups have in one another further reducing social cohesion, a function of social engagement (Gallego, 2016; Uslaner & Brown, 2005). Hence there are empirical and theoretical grounds for a positive link between earnings and social engagement (trust) as shown in Figure 1.

Research into poverty and political participation offers yet another perspective of how material hardship, via low earnings, may reduce social engagement. Material hardship has been theorised to both increase and decrease voter turnout in elections (Rosenstone, 1982). *Mobilisation* theory suggests that people under economic strain will blame the government and organise themselves to shift political power back in their favour. However, *withdrawal* theory argues that economic

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strain is stressful and leads people to focus on their personal struggles rather than external matters such as politics. Research seems to point more toward *withdrawal* theory. Rosenstone, (1982) found that from 1948 to 1980 voter turnout at U.S. elections decreased as short-term unemployment and widespread financial hardship increased. In a more recent study of full-time employees in Switzerland, Schraff (2019) found that low-wage work was linked to low political trust and disengagement in elections. This social finding echoes that of workplace behaviours where workers withdraw in order to cope with work-related stressors and potentially indicates the flow-on effect this study hopes to explore. For example, do low earnings predict withdrawn workers and in turn withdrawn citizens? Research into both trust and political engagement support a possible direct positive link between earnings and social engagement as shown in Figure 1.

(b) *The subjective experience of work-related precariousness.* If earnings, as an objective measure or precarious work, are a potential antecedent for social engagement, then so too may be the subjective experience of work-related precariousness. It has already been established that objectively precarious workers may face disadvantages in engaging in society (Ferragina et al., 2017; Pembroke, 2019). The subjective experience of work-related precariousness may therefore mediate a link between earnings and social engagement if low earnings leads to perceived precariousness which then leads to low social engagement. On the other hand, more generally felt precariousness may mitigate a positive link between earnings and social engagement (moderation). The present study aims to expand knowledge regarding the potential social ramifications of precarious work by exploring potential links between subjectively felt precariousness and social engagement. Therefore, Figure 1 shows a negative link between the

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subjective experience of work-related precariousness and social engagement and a potential mediating or moderating effect.

(c) Perceived organisational support during lockdown. Figure 1 also shows a positive link between POS during lockdown and social engagement. Studies around POS have focussed on work-related consequences. However, if it can be argued that workers bring life stressors with them into the workplace then perhaps the reverse is true. At present, perceived organisational support has been positively connected to trust within the workplace (Wong et al., 2012). And, as established, POS may be a strong predictor of OCB through social exchange (Pohl et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2012). This study explores whether this link from POS to trust and engagement extends outside of the workplace. Many of the daily social interactions workers experience will take place at work. And work itself is so crucial to livelihoods. Therefore, organisations may play a substantial role in representing not only organisational but societal support in the lives of their employees. Any existing link between POS and social engagement may be particularly salient in a time of crisis, such as a lockdown, when workplaces have a key role to play in maintaining workers social connections outside of the home as well as shaping worker perceptions regarding the good will of people during crisis. This study explores a potential link between POS and social engagement (Figure 1).

In summary, three criterion variables are depicted in Figure 1, OCB, wellbeing and social engagement. Both earnings and POS are predicted to positively link directly to each of the criterion variables. In addition, POS is depicted with a second possible as a mediating variable for earnings to each of the criterion variables. Additionally, the subjective experience of

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work-related precariousness is depicted as having two possible linking functions. Firstly, it may be a mediating variable through which earnings and POS link to each of the criterion variables. Secondly, it is a moderating variable which interacts with earnings and POS and changes the nature of their link to the criterion variables.

Chapter 2 - Methods

Participants

The sample consisted of $N = 157$ adult workers who had been employed in New Zealand for at least 6 months at the time of the survey. All participants were in either full-time (30 hours or more) or part-time employment (less than 30 hours). This was a non-random, convenience sample: Participants were recruited through informal networking, predominantly via social media, and therefore came from a range of different work backgrounds. More than three quarters of participants (78.2%) were female. The age of participants ranged from 18 to over 60 but over half (59.5%) of participants were 35 years or younger. These disparities in gender and age were most likely a reflection of the informal social channels through which participants were recruited.

Active participation in the survey fluctuated with some participants selecting to leave certain items unanswered (or unintentionally skipping them) while others stopped participating entirely. A significant decline in responses occurred around the first quarter of the survey, with as little as 106 participants answering all OCB items. At this point, participation stabilized and responses ranged between 106 and 118 across measures.

Procedure

A survey was developed through Qualtrics and in consultation with Massey University staff and pilot testers. Primary concerns were around understandability and cultural relevance. All of the

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existing measures used were developed outside of New Zealand and some adjustments were made to ensure that different communities in New Zealand were not unintentionally excluded. This was particularly the case with the measure of social engagement which did not capture the culturally specific ways New Zealanders participate in their communities. Therefore, some additional items were added in recognition of New Zealand's multicultural, and specifically Maori community and setting. After consultation, the survey and planned research procedure were submitted to the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC) to receive ethics approval.

Once ethics approval was received, the survey was completed by pilot testers. Through pilot testing, it was established that separate items needed to be available for hourly wage earners and salary earners. This way all participants could answer without the excess fatigue of, for example, figuring out one's hourly rate when they are paid a yearly salary. The survey was entirely internet based and a key point raised by pilot testers was the need for a survey that was easily accessed via mobile phone. Therefore, the survey was formatted with some consideration to readability and accessibility on portable devices. Additionally some minor edits were made to the subjective precariousness measure for better comprehension.

After consultation and pilot-testing, the survey was published and went live on July 27 to August 27 2020. Participants were able to access the survey through a web link shared through social media. Initially, participants were asked demographic questions which screened out any participants that did not meet the demographic criteria. All responses to the survey were kept

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anonymous, but participants who wished to receive an overview of the research findings were able to provide contact details which were kept separate from the survey data.

Measures

To assess *Earnings* participants were asked about their wages or salary, the average number of hours they worked a week, the average amount of weekly take-home income, their personal annual income after tax, and their household annual income after tax.

Subjective Experience of Work-Related Precariousness was measured using the Subjective Experience of Work-Related Precariousness scale that was concurrently being developed by Seubert et al. (2019). The measure was used in collaboration with its Austrian authors as part of its ongoing development. The original German version of the measure had previously undergone two validation studies by its authors (Seubert et al., 2019). As the COVID-19 pandemic had disrupted initial plans for an English-version validation study, this study was the first time an English version of the measure had been used. An English version was provided by the authors, already translated/back translated by a certified translator, but some minor moderations were made following suggestions by pilot testers.

Seubert et al. (2019), identified five dimensions across which employees may experience work precarity. The *reproductive-material dimension* contains items regarding how financially secure participants feel. As an example: *My income is too low to make a living*. The *social-communicative dimension* contains items regarding workers perceptions around their own

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sense of belonging and social integration in their workplace. As an example: *My colleagues don't see me as an equal (in the workplace)*. The *legal-institutional (participation) dimension* contains items relating to workers' knowledge and assurance of their legal protections as well as their voice and agency at work. For example: *My voice is not represented in workplace matters*. The *status and recognition dimension* contains items relating to how respected and appreciated workers feel in the workplace and society. For example: *I am less respected for my work by my family*. The *meaningful-subject-related dimension* contains items referring to fulfilling and engaging workers consider their job to be. For example: *I often see no meaning in my work*.

Seubert et al. (2019) provided both a 4-point and a 5-point Likert scale for the current researcher to choose. The 4-point scale was selected to allow for clearer formatting on the Qualtrics platform and maintain consistency with the wellbeing measure that followed. The scale ranged between *1-strongly disagree* and *4-strongly agree*. Items were negatively worded with *strongly-agree* answers demonstrating higher levels of one's subjective experience of work-related precariousness. Items were written in the following format: *My voice is not represented in workplace matters*.

Perceived Organisational Support was measured using a shortened version of the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The 16 items, taken from the original 36 item questionnaire, cover a range of ways that employees may feel supported by their organisation. Amongst workers in the U.S. the measure has been found to have high construct validity (Shore & Tetrick, 1991) and a review by Hellman et al., (2006) of 48

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studies which used the measure, found that the measure had a mean reliability coefficient of .88. However the measure has not been used or tested in the context of lockdown in New Zealand.

The items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Strongly Disagree to 7-Strongly Agree. The items were written in the following format: *'The organisation values my contribution to its well-being,' 'If the organisation could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would (reversed)*. Participants were asked to reflect on the previous COVID-19 lockdown and answer these items based on their experience during that select time.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour was measured using the Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale developed by Lee and Allen (2002) which assesses work-related behaviours across two dimensions: *individual or OCB-I* (how one relates to their co-workers) and *organisational or OCB-O* (how one relates to their organisation). In a study by Dunlop and Lee (2003) of Western Australian fast-food chain workers, the coefficient alphas were 0.83 for OCB-I and 0.77 for OCB-O.

The 16 items were measured using a 7-point rating scale from *'1-never'* to *'7-always'*. Participants were asked to consider the preceding month at work when answering the items. Items were written in the following format: *How often would you say you- Help others who have been absent? Keep up with developments in the organisation?*

Wellbeing was measured by the WHO (Five) Well-Being Index (WHO, 1998), a unidimensional measure that included five items asking about one's general mood, energy and interests over the

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preceding two weeks. The WHO-5 is one of the most widely used measures for subjective psychological wellbeing. It has been found to have high clinimetric validity (able to be used in clinical diagnoses) and successful application across a range of study fields (Topp et al., 2015). The items used a 6-point Likert scale ranging from ‘5-All the time’ and ‘0-At no time.’ Items were written in the following format: *I have felt cheerful and in good spirits* (over the preceding two weeks).

Social Engagement was measured using the Social Capital Questionnaire, a measure adapted by Obeid et al., (2014) and extracted from the European Social Survey (Harrison et al., 2011). The 24 items utilized various close-ended response options including dichotomous ‘yes/no’ scales and 10-point rating scales. The questionnaire assesses social capital across five dimensions: *political participation, social participation, volunteering and reciprocity, trust, and support*. Following consultation (described in *Procedure*), some additional items within the *social participation dimension* were added to include participation in marae, iwi and hapu. It was important that the survey did not inadvertently silence participants by failing to acknowledge a variety of cultural practises and spaces of social and community engagement. Some items within the political participation dimension were also adjusted to reflect New Zealand local and national elections.

Chapter 3 - Results

Data analysis consisted of three main stages - data reduction, correlation and regression analysis, which included testing for both mediation and moderation.

Data Reduction

The primary method of data reduction was factor analysis. None of the measures used had been tried or tested in the context of a global pandemic which may have added uncertainty to the meanings that terms like job security may have had for people at the time of the survey (which was designed during the pandemic). Furthermore, The English version of the subjective experience of work-related precariousness scale had not been tested before and the social capital questionnaire was untried and untested in New Zealand. For these reasons, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was chosen over confirmatory factor analysis.

Factorability was checked and verified using Keiser-Meyer-Olkin test (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. The data was reduced by Principal Axis Factoring which estimated underlying constructs by grouping highly correlated items together. This method was chosen over Principal Components Analysis which would only transform measured variables into a set of linear components that should not be interpreted as unmeasured variables (Field, 2018).

Direct Oblimin was chosen for rotation to allow factors to correlate. In order to preserve statistical power, missing cases were excluded by pairwise deletion during the EFA. Loadings below 0.4 were suppressed. Coefficients of 0.4 were considered substantial (Field, 2018) and this threshold reduced cross-loadings in the analysis. Cases that did not load, cross-loaded or loaded

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onto an unexpected factor were excluded and the analysis was re-run. Cronbach's Alpha was run to test the internal consistency of each factor in each EFA. Any items that suppressed Alpha were removed and the analysis was re-run. Once a final clear and interpretable solution was found, a mean score per item per factor was created, using listwise deletion. In any EFA with different scale values within the same measure, or factor, factor scores were retained for use in subsequent analysis instead of mean score per item per factor. Scale scores were reversed where necessary to ensure that a high score always meant a positive.

Work Precariousness. Applying the above protocol resulted in the factor solution presented in Table 1. Consistent with the original five-factor solution in Austria (Seubert et al., 2019), there were five factors *Meaningful-Subject-Related*, *Reproductive-Material*, and *Status and Recognition*, *Social-Communicative*, and *Legal-Institutional*. The solution was clear and explained a substantive 69.073 percent amount of the total variance. Across all factors, Cronbach's Alpha was above 0.6. Alpha's above 0.7 would have been preferable, but 0.6 is considered barely acceptable for exploratory measures of psychological constructs (Field, 2018, pp. 823). Correlations between items in each factor were all above 0.4 which satisfied the conventional minimal 0.3 cut-off point.

With only two loadings, and a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.629, the Legal-Institutional factor was certainly the weakest, however, items did correlate at above 0.4 and the 'factor' was kept tentatively.

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One item (my work is less appreciated by my colleagues) loaded unexpectedly on the social-communicative factor rather than the status and recognition factor, but it was retained as this loading made sense.

Table 1

Factor Solution - Subjective Experience of Work-Related Precariousness Measure

	Factor				
	Meaningful-Subject-Related	Reproductive-Material	Status and Recognition	Social-Communicative	Legal-Institutional
I experience no fulfilment in my work.	.893				
I often see no meaning in my work.	.775				
I can identify with the purpose of my work only to a limited extent.	.689				
I engage less at work.	.577				
I can't afford much / I'm not very well off.		.869			
My income is too low to make a living.		.796			
I usually don't have any wages left by the end of the month.		.663			
I often think about how I'll get by financially in the future		.542			
I am less respected for my work by my friends.			-.845		
I am less respected for my work by society.			-.638		
I am less respected for my work by my family.			-.603		
I am not integrated well into social circles at work.				.730	
My work is less appreciated by my colleagues.				.510	
I have fewer opportunities to socialize with my colleagues.				.490	
I am not well-informed about workplace health and safety regulations (e.g. education about risks).					.678

My voice is not represented in workplace matters.					.509
Initial Eigenvalues	4.975	1.986	1.535	1.433	1.124
% of Variance Explained	31.092	12.411	9.592	8.955	7.023
Cronbach's Alpha	.855	.813	.732	.629	.626

Note. Loadings less than 0.4 have been suppressed.

Perceived Organisational Support (POS). As shown in Table 2, all 16 items from the perceived organisational support measure loaded onto one factor. The test was designed to be unidimensional so this was to be expected. A Cronbach's Alpha of .96 marginally surpassed a conventional upper limit of .95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). This limit may indicate redundancies amongst items or even that the test length is too long. Item content would suggest the latter more than the former. Indeed, other studies have reported very higher Alphas for this measure so this result, though not ideal, is not unusual (Hellman et al., 2006). A marginally high Alpha may also be due to the circumstances under which participants were asked to measure their organisation's support (see Discussion). For this measure only, participants were asked to reflect on their experience during the Covid-19 lockdown. The nature of these uncertain times may have prompted more polarised responses. The solution explained 62.965 percent of the variance.

Table 2

Factors - Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

	Factor
	Perceived Organisational Support
My organisation really cared about my well-being.	.888
My organisation took pride in my accomplishments at work.	.882
The organization shows very little concern for me (R).	.864

Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice (R).	.862
My organisation cared about my general satisfaction at work.	.840
My organisation cared about my opinions.	.831
The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me (R).	.814
The organization would ignore any complaint from me (R).	.810
My organisation strongly considered my goals and values	.767
The organization disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me (R).	.760
My organisation tried to make my job as interesting as possible.	.718
If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me (R).	.705
Help was available from my organisation when I had a problem.	.699
My organisation valued my contribution to its well-being.	.653
My organisation was willing to help me when I needed a special favour.	.651
If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so (R).	.645
Initial eigenvalue	10.074
% of Variance Explained	62.964
Cronbach's Alpha	.960

Note. Loadings less than 0.4 have been suppressed.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Table 3 shows two factors that fitted into the appropriate factors *Individual-Orientated* and *Organisation-Orientated* organizational citizenship behaviour.. Some items loaded onto a third factor, however the items did not align to a clear

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construct so I selected to remove the factor entirely. The final solution explained 61.078 percent of the variance and both factors had a strong Alpha over .800.

Table 3

Factor Solution - Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Measure

	Factor	
	Organization Orientated	Individual Orientated
Show pride when representing the organization in public.	.914	
Take action to protect the organization from potential problems	.785	
Express loyalty toward the organization.	.781	
Defend the organisation when other employees criticize it	.745	
Demonstrate concern about the image of the organisation.	.624	
Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems		.901
Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.		.690
Assist others with their duties		.672
Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.		.614
Help others who have been absent.		.571
Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the workgroup.		.448
Initial Eigenvalue	4.805	1.917
% of Variance Explained	43.681	17.397
Cronbach's Alpha	.880	.815

Note. Loadings less than 0.4 have been suppressed.

Wellbeing. All five items of the wellbeing measure loaded onto one factor as shown in Table 4. The measure was originally uni-dimensional so obtaining a single factor in the EFA was not surprising. Cronbach’s Alpha was below .9 indicating that the included items were not redundant, but cohesive (Field, 2018; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The solution explained 63.045 percent of the total variance with Cronbach’s Alpha = .853

Table 4

Factor Solution - Wellbeing Measure

	Factor Wellbeing
I have felt cheerful and in good spirits	.853
I woke up feeling fresh and rested.	.755
My daily life has been filled with things that interest me.	.749
I have felt calm and relaxed.	.723
I have felt active and vigorous.	.581
Initial Eigenvalue	3.152
% of Variance Explained	63.045
Cronbach’s Alpha	.853

Note. Loadings less than 0.4 have been suppressed.

Social Engagement. The social engagement questionnaire asked a variety of questions using different measurement formats. As shown in Table 5, the solution accounted for 77.891 percent of the total variance and produced five strong factors each with an Alpha value above .7. The factors covered a variety of expected and coherent constructs within community engagement: Religious participation, institutional trust, voter participation, reciprocal trust and social engagement.

Table 5*Factor Solution - Social Engagement Measure*

	Factor				
	Religious Participation	Institutional Trust	Voter Participation	Reciprocal Trust	Social Engagement
Apart from when you are at religious services, how often, if at all, do you pray?	.931				
Apart from special occasions such as weddings and funerals, about how often do you attend religious services nowadays?	.886				
Do you consider yourself as belonging to a particular religion or denomination?	.867				
Regardless of whether you belong to a particular religion, how religious would you say you are?	.835				
How much do you personally trust - Politicians?		.949			
How much do you personally trust - Political parties?		.862			
How much do you personally trust - Parliament?		.748			
How much do you personally trust - The legal system?		.558			
Did you vote in the last parliamentary (national) election?			.871		
Did you vote in your last mayoral election?			.822		
Would you say that most of the time people try to be helpful or that they are mostly looking out for themselves?				.723	
Do you think that most people would try to take advantage of you if they got the chance or would they try to be fair?				.715	
Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people?				.604	

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Compared to other people of your age, how often would you say you take part in social activities?					- .859
How often do you meet socially with friends, relatives or work colleagues?					-.778
Initial Eigenvalues	3.869	3.116	1.774	1.688	1.237
% of Variance Explained	25.792	20.772	11.825	11.256	8.246
Cronbach's Alpha	.847	.851	.833	.729	.773

Note. Loadings less than 0.4 have been suppressed.

Earnings. As shown in Table 6 the number of responses across the *Earnings* items were varied with many participants selecting to not answer certain questions. This variation was anticipated and was incorporated into the decision regarding which data-reduced items to retain for analysis.

Table 6

Frequency of Responses to Earnings-Related Items

<i>Item</i>	If you earn a salary, what is your annual salary for your main job?	If you are paid by the hour, what is your normal hourly rate in your main job? (\$/hour)	On average how much money do you take home each week from your main job?	On average how much money do you take home each week from all paid jobs?	What is your estimated household annual income after tax deductions?	What is your estimated personal annual income after tax deductions from all paid jobs?	What are the average hours that you usually work per week (including overtime) for all paid jobs?	
<i>N</i>	<i>Valid</i>	<i>51</i>	<i>67</i>	<i>94</i>	<i>105</i>	<i>109</i>	<i>109</i>	<i>116</i>
	<i>Missing</i>	<i>106</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>72</i>	<i>52</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>41</i>

From Table 6 The most promising (frequently answered) items pertaining to income were:

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On average, how much money do you take home a week from all paid jobs? (67%)

What is your personal annual income after tax deductions from all paid jobs? (69%)

What is your estimated household annual income after tax deductions? (74%)

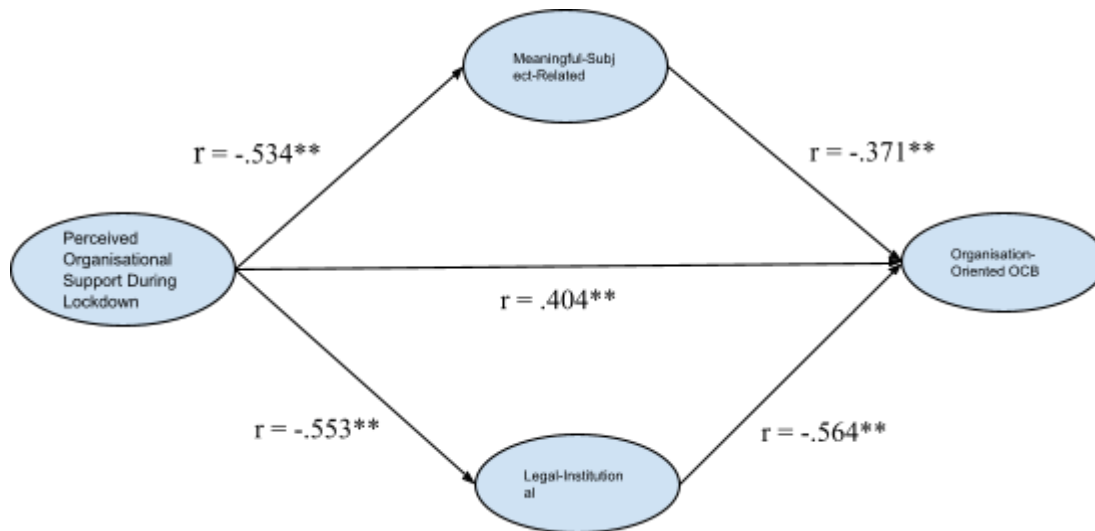
Each of three items surpassed the set sample size goal of 100 required to detect a medium effect in a multivariate data analysis (Field, 2018) and were therefore retained for subsequent analysis.

Correlation

A correlation analysis was run with each of the constructs depicted in Figure 1 (Chapter 1) with each construct split into the dimensions found through Exploratory Factor Analysis (above). A full correlation matrix for all variables measured in Chapter 2, including demographics, is provided in Appendix A. In Figures 2, 3, and 4, only variables displaying statistically significant correlations were retained for subsequent regression analyses. For ease of interpretation and practicality, given the large number of permutations, the correlational links have separated into one criterion at a time.

Figure 2

Variables Correlating Significantly with Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

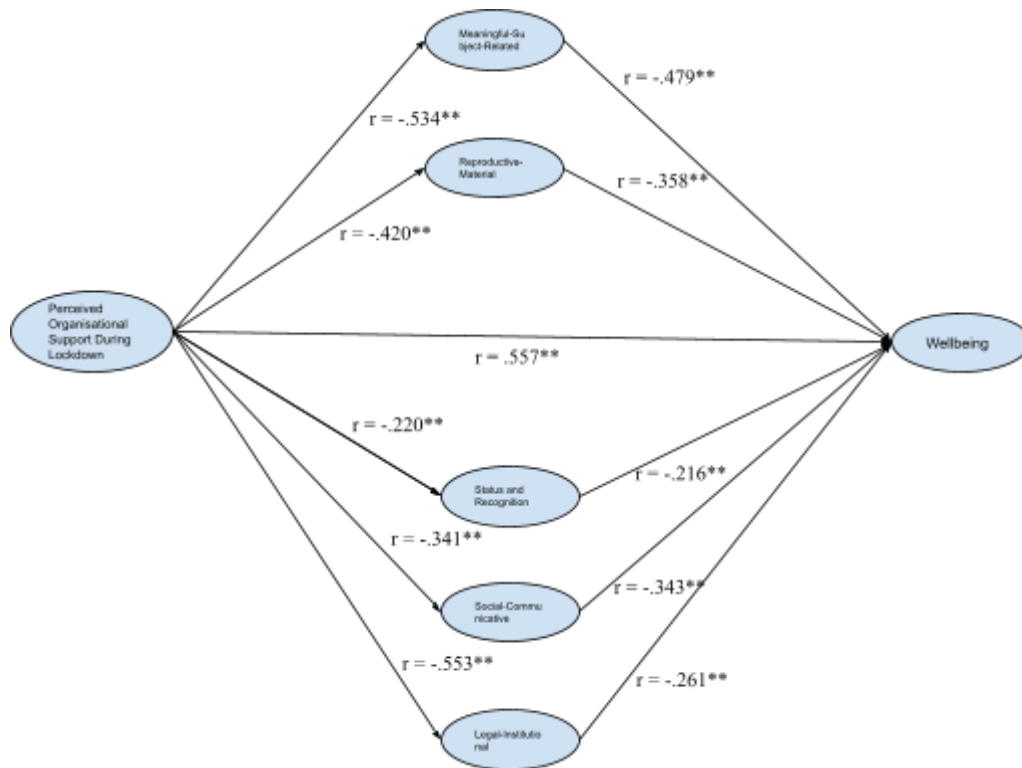


Note. ******Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). *****Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

With organisation-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB-O) as the criterion variable, as shown in Figure 2, only the antecedent variable POS ($r = .404, p < .001$), was a significant predictor variable. In Figure 2 there were also two potential mediators from the factors found of the subjective experience of work-related precariousness. POS correlated with the meaningful-subject-related precariousness ($r = -.534, p < .001$) and the latter to OCB-O ($r = -.371, p < .001$). POS also correlated with legal-institutional precariousness ($r = -.553, p < .001$) which itself correlated with OCB-O ($r = -.564, p < .001$).

Figure 3

Variable Correlating Significantly with Wellbeing



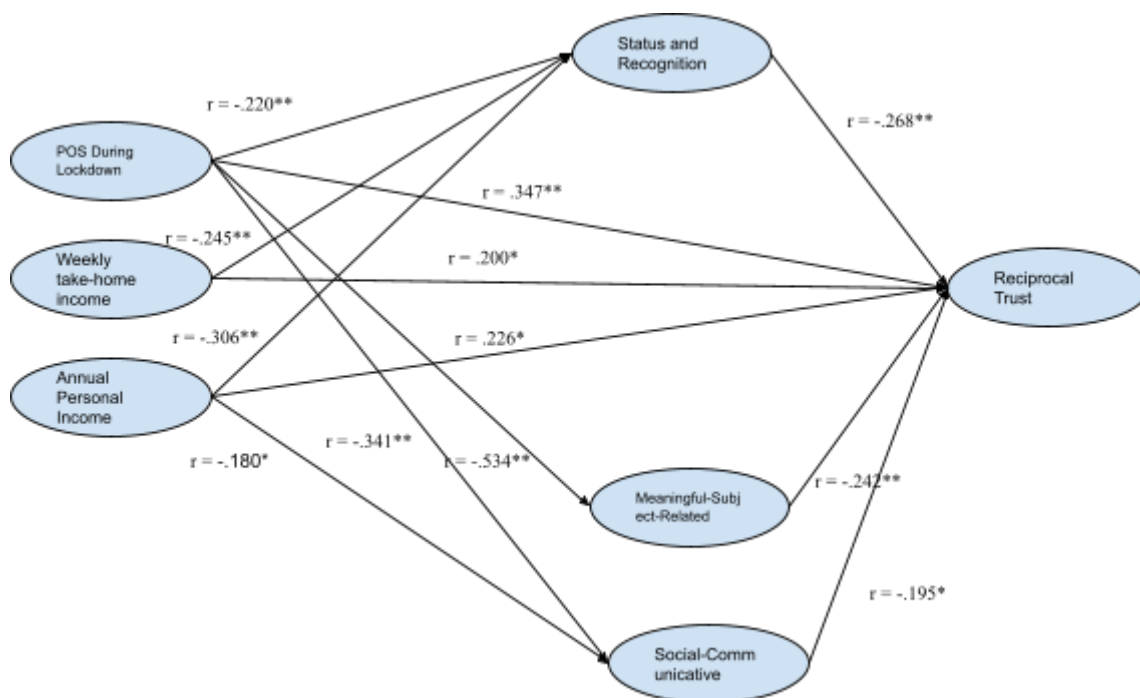
Note. ******Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). ***** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

With wellbeing as the criterion, as shown in Figure 3, only POS was significantly predictive ($r = .557, p < .001$). However, in Figure 3 there were more potential mediators as POS correlated with all five factors found in the subjective experience of work-related precariousness, and each factor correlated with wellbeing. Potential pathways shown in Figure 3 were from POS to meaningful-subject-related precariousness to wellbeing ($r = -.534, p < .001$), from POS to reproductive-material precariousness to wellbeing ($r = -.420, p < .001$), from POS to status and recognition precariousness to wellbeing ($r = -.220, p = .007$), from POS to social-communicative precariousness to wellbeing ($r = -.343, p < .001$) and on to

wellbeing ($r = -.341, p < .001$) and from POS to legal-institutional precariousness ($r = -.553, p < .001$) to wellbeing.

Figure 4

Variables Correlating Significantly with Reciprocal Trust.



Note. ******Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). *****Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

When reciprocal trust, as a factor of social engagement, was the criterion, as shown in Figure 4, there were six potential mediation pathways. POS ($r = .347, p = .001$), weekly take-home income ($r = .200, p = .046$), and personal annual income ($r = .226, p = .025$) were significantly predictive

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of reciprocal trust. Potential mediation pathways from POS went first through meaningful-subject-related precariousness which correlated with reciprocal trust ($r = -.242, p = .013$); second, to status and recognition and the latter to the reciprocal trust ($r = -.268, p = .007$); and third to social-communicative precariousness and the latter to reciprocal trust ($r = -.195, p = .039$). Weekly take-home income had a potential pathway through status and recognition precariousness ($r = -.245, p = .005$) to reciprocal trust. And personal annual income had links to the status and recognition dimension ($r = -.306, p = .001$) and the social communicative dimension ($r = -.180, p = .032$).

Mediation

Mediation analyses were carried out using the PROCESS tool on SPSS. Mediation occurred when the relationship between the antecedent and criterion was explained by their relationship to a third variable, the mediator (Field, 2018). If the total effect of the antecedent variable on the criterion variable decreased when a third variable (the potential mediator) was included in the model, the decrease was interpreted as indicating mediation either full or partial. If the decrease was total, full mediation was inferred, but if the drop was partial but still statistically significant then partial mediation was inferred (Field, 2018). The significance of the mediation was tested through bootstrapped confidence intervals based on 5000 samples. Results were considered significant when the 95 percent confidence intervals, for the indirect effect of the antecedent on the criterion, did not include 0 (Field, 2018). If the 95 percent confidence intervals included 0, then the mediation effect was deemed non-significant (NS). Full mediation analysis output can be found in Appendix B.

Predictors of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (organisation-oriented)

From Figure 2, two analyses were run with OCB-O as the criterion variable. In both analyses, POS was the antecedent variable. The meaningful-subject-related and legal-institutional factors of the subjective experience of work-related precariousness were the potential mediators, chosen because they both correlated with the antecedent and criterion variable as shown in Figure 2. Of the two analyses, only the legal-institutional factor produced significant regression. Table 1 reports (a) antecedent-criterion link without the mediator, (b) with the mediator, and (c) significance of the mediation.

Table 7*POS, Legal-Institutional Precariousness and OCB-O (n=98)*

	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Total Effect of POS on OCB-O	.407	.094	4.332	.000
Direct Effect of POS on OCB-O	.157	.099	1.586	.116
	<i>b</i>	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Indirect effect of POS on OCB-O through Legal-Institutional Precariousness	.251	.070	.122	.394

Note. Confidence Interval of 95. Bootstrap sample number of 5000.

From Table 7, legal-institutional precariousness produced a significant mediating effect. While (a) the total effect of POS was significant ($b = .407, p < .001$), (b) the direct effect was NS ($b = .157, p = .116$) Therefore, the inclusion of the mediating variable decreased the effect size of POS on OCB-O and rendered the effect NS, indicating full-mediation. As the indirect effect (c) was also significant ($b = 0.251, 95\% \text{BCa CI } [0.122, 0.394]$) it was concluded that there was full mediation of POS during Lockdown to OCB-O by the Subjective Experience of Work-Related

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Precariousness (legal-institutional). However, as the sample size was slightly less than $n = 100$ ($n = 98$), power was marginal and this finding was, therefore, reported tentatively.

Predictors of Wellbeing

Of the five potential mediating variables from Figure 4 only the meaningful-subject-related dimension of the subjective experience of work-related precariousness produced a small, but significant mediation effect. As shown in Table 8, there was a decrease in effect size from (a) the total effect ($b = .383, p < .001$) to (b) the direct effect ($b = .291, p < .001$) when meaningful-subject-related precariousness was included in the model. There was a significant (c) indirect effect of POS on wellbeing through the subjective experience of work-related precariousness ($b = .093, 95\% \text{BCa CI } [0.026, 0.169]$). Therefore, it was concluded that there was partial mediation of POS During Lockdown to Wellbeing by the Subjective Experience of Work-Related Precariousness (meaningful-subject-related).

Table 8

POS, Meaningful-Subject-Related Precariousness and Wellbeing (n = 120).

	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Total Effect of POS on Wellbeing	.383	.054	7.111	.000
Direct Effect of POS on Wellbeing	.291	.067	4.307	.000
	<i>b</i>	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Indirect effect of POS on Wellbeing through Meaningful-Subject-Related Precariousness	.092	.036	.026	.169

Note. Confidence Interval of 95. Bootstrap sample number of 5000.

Predictors of Social Engagement (reciprocal trust)

None of the six potential mediators produced any significant findings. It was concluded that there was no mediation of Perceived Organisational Support During Lockdown to Reciprocal Trust by the Subjective Experience of Work-Related Precariousness or Earnings to Reciprocal Trust by the Subjective Experience of Work-Related Precariousness.

Figure 5

Model of Surviving Mediations

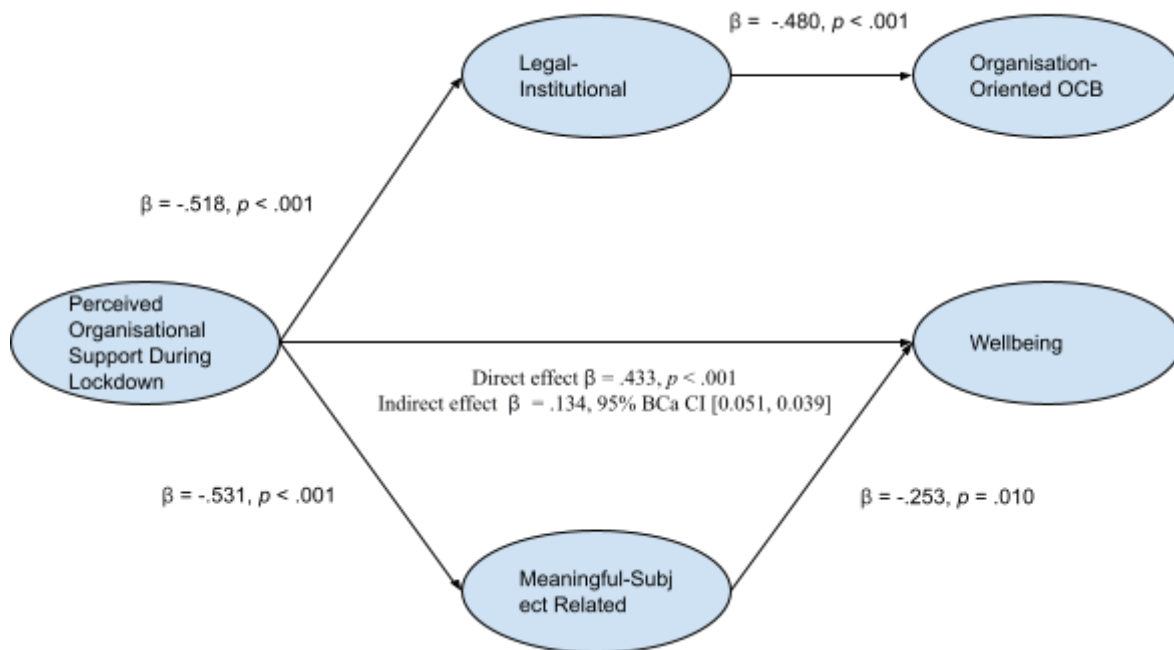


Figure 5 shows the surviving mediation effects supported by the analyses. Scales varied across measures making direct comparisons difficult, therefore the standardised Beta coefficients are reported in Figure 5 where all variables have equal standard deviations so that effects are comparable. The beta weights reported in Figure 5 were all derived from the same mediation analysis for each respective criterion (above) The effects depicted can be found in the full SPSS output in Appendix B.

Moderation

Moderation analyses on all potential linkages identified in Figure 1 were carried out using the PROCESS tool in SPSS. The item scales used for each measure began at 1 and it was, therefore, implausible that they could have a 0 score. The antecedents and potential moderating variables were centered so that b parameters represented the regression effect of a predictor when the other predictor was at its mean score, not when it was at 0. The heteroscedasticity-consistent inference was conducted using the Davidson-Mackinnon (HC3) method. Moderation occurred when the combined effect of the antecedent and potential moderator on the criterion was significant. Full moderation outputs can be found in Appendix C.

Though there were no significant direct links from earnings to OCB or from earnings to wellbeing, moderation can still occur even without evidence of a direct link from the independent or potential moderator to the dependent variables. Therefore, moderation analyses were run with both earnings and perceived organisational support as antecedent variables, and each dimension of work-related precariousness as potential moderators to probe for any alterations to (buffering of) the link from the antecedent variables (earnings, POS) to criterion variables (OCB, wellbeing and social engagement).

To aid interpretability, graphs were produced which depicted the interaction slopes when the moderator was low and when the moderator was high. In order to create two categories, scores for each potential moderator, meaningful-subject related, reproductive material, social-communicative, status and recognition and legal-institutional precariousness were split

into two groups along the median, with 0 indicating a score below the median and 1 indicating a score above the median.

Predictors of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

From Table 9, when OCB-O was the criterion variable only the combined effect of POS and social-communicative precariousness was significant ($b = -.355, p = .001$). Figure 6 shows the slopes of the relationship between POS and OCB-O when subjective precariousness (social-communicative) was low (secure) and when it was high (insecure). Generally, organisational citizenship behaviours increased as POS also increased, but POS was especially salient as a predictor of OCB-O for participants who felt relatively secure on the social-communicative factor. As n was marginally below 100, some power was lost, so findings were reported tentatively.

Table 9

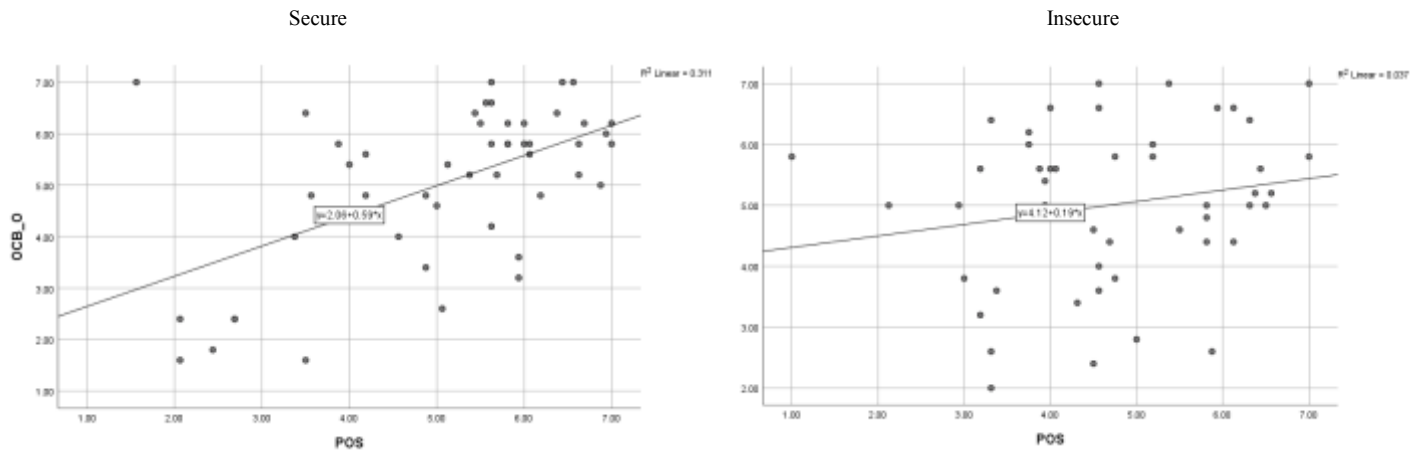
POS, Social-Communicative Precariousness and OCB-O (n = 97)

	<i>b</i>	<i>Se (HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	4.945	.145	34.152	.000
Perceived Organisational Support (centred)	.444	.131	3.401	.001
Social-Communicative Precariousness (centred)	-.184	.270	.681	.498
Interaction	.355	.099	-3.589	.001

Note. Confidence Interval of 95. Bootstrap sample number of 5000.

Figure 6

POS and Social-Communicative Precariousness on OCB-O (n = 97)



Note. Median split scores¹

When individual-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB-I) was the criterion variable two significant moderations occurred with earnings (personal annual income). Table 10 shows the combined effect of personal annual income and status and recognition precariousness. There was no significant main effect from personal annual income to OCB-I. There was, however, a combined negative effect of personal annual income and status and recognition precariousness ($b = -.232, p = .002$). From Figure 7, higher wages linked with less OCB-I and this link dropped more sharply among workers who were comparatively insecure (status and recognition). However, the left graph (secure) contains 71.3% of the total data for the status and recognition factor making the comparison between graphs unequal and difficult to interpret. This is due to the use of a median value as the cut-off point for the lower value data set (secure). 33% of all data was the same value as the median score and this substantial portion of the total data

was included in the left graph. Therefore, the right graph (insecure) of Figure 7, which only

¹ To create comparable graphs of secure and insecure workers, subjective precariousness data was split along the median. In Figures 6 to 10 all graphs labelled ‘secure (left) included data from 0 to the median score value. All graphs labelled ‘insecure’ included data scores above the median value. Consequently, ‘secure’ graphs display more than 50% of the data because they contain all scores of the same value as the median which was generally a substantial portion of all total scores and surpassed the median score.

included scores above the median, had considerably less data (less than 30% percent of the total data) and there were some outliers. Hence the findings for this variable are not readily interpretable (see Discussion).

Table 10

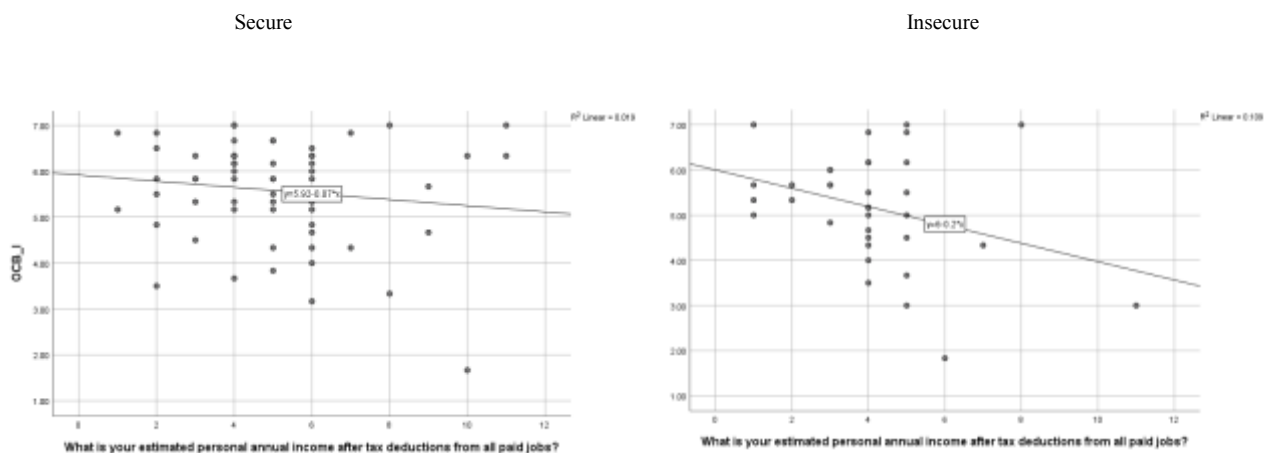
Personal Annual Income, Status and Recognition Precariousness and OCB-I (n = 97)

	<i>b</i>	<i>Se (HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	5.365	.129	41.667	.000
Personal Annual Income (centred)	-.140	.080	-1.762	.081
Status and Recognition Precariousness (centred)	-.425	.257	-1.660	.100
Interaction	-.232	.074	-3.150	.002

Note. Confidence Interval of 95. Bootstrap sample number of 5000.

Figure 7

Personal Annual Income and Status and Recognition Precariousness on OCB-I (n = 97)



Note. Median split scores.

Similarly, the combined effect of personal annual income and legal-institutional precariousness was also statistically significant ($b = -.272, p = .022$), but difficult to interpret (Table 11 and Figure 8). From Figure 8 OCB-I decreased as personal annual income increased and this effect was more pronounced amongst the comparatively insecure (legal-institutional). However, 70.3% of the total data is shown in the left graph (secure) which contains the median score and all scores of the same value. Therefore, the right graph (insecure) has less than 30% of the total data and is difficult to interpret.

Table 11

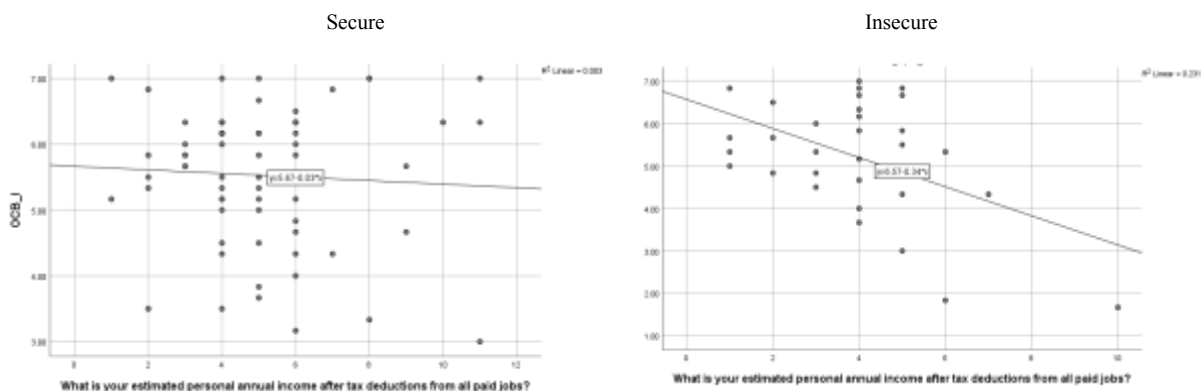
Personal Annual Income and Status and Recognition Precariousness on OCB-I (n = 97)

	<i>b</i>	<i>Se (HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	5.360	.123	43.704	.000
Personal Annual Income (centred)	-.143	.070	-2.030	.045
Legal-Institutional Precariousness (centred)	-.614	.214	-2.866	.005
Interaction	-.272	.117	-2.337	.022

Note. Confidence Interval of 95. Bootstrap sample number of 5000.

Figure 8

Personal Annual Income and Legal-Institutional Precariousness on OCB-I(n = 97)



Note. Median split scores. The right graph has been cropped by SPSS to 10 (out of 12) markers.

Wellbeing as criterion

From Table 12, when wellbeing was the criterion variable only the combined effect of personal annual income and the legal-institutional dimension of the subjective experience of work-related precariousness was significant ($b = .181, p = .013$). There was no significant main effect from personal annual income to wellbeing and Figure 9 shows only a slight negative regression slope when workers were comparatively secure. However, when insecure, wellbeing tended to increase as personal annual income increased. As with previous analyses involving legal-institutional precariousness, there were fewer scores when insecurity was high due to participant drop-off. Therefore results were reported tentatively.

Table 12

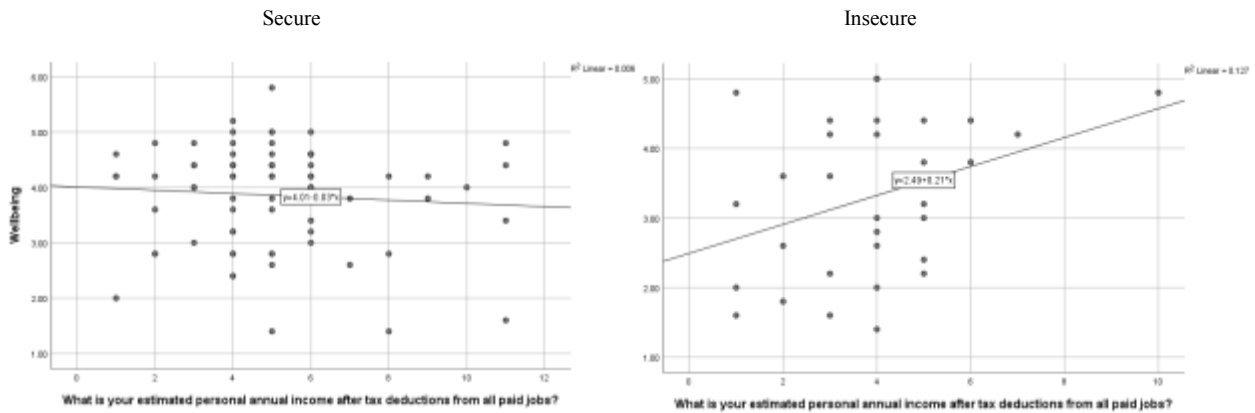
Personal Annual Income, Legal Institutional Precariousness and Wellbeing (n=107)

	<i>b</i>	<i>Se (HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.2574	.091	40.914	.000
Personal Annual Income (centered)	.028	.046	.603	.548
Legal-Institutional Precariousness (centered)	-.477	.141	-3.373	.001
Interaction	.181	.072	2.523	.013

Note. Confidence Interval of 95. Bootstrap sample number of 5000.

Figure 9

Personal Annual Income and Legal-Institutional Precariousness on Wellbeing (n = 107)



Note. Median split scores. The right graph has been cropped by SPSS to 10 (out of 12) markers.

Moderation with Social-Engagement as the Criterion.

From Table 13, when the reciprocal trust dimension of social-engagement was the criterion variable, only the combined effect of perceived organisational support and the reproductive-material dimension of the subjective experience of work-related precariousness was significant ($b = .213$, $p = .014$). From Figure 10, reciprocal trust tended to increase with perceived organisational support when workers were both comparatively secure and insecure. Amongst workers who were comparatively insecure the increase in reciprocal trust was more pronounced. As the sample size was small, $n < 100$, these results are reported tentatively.

Table 13

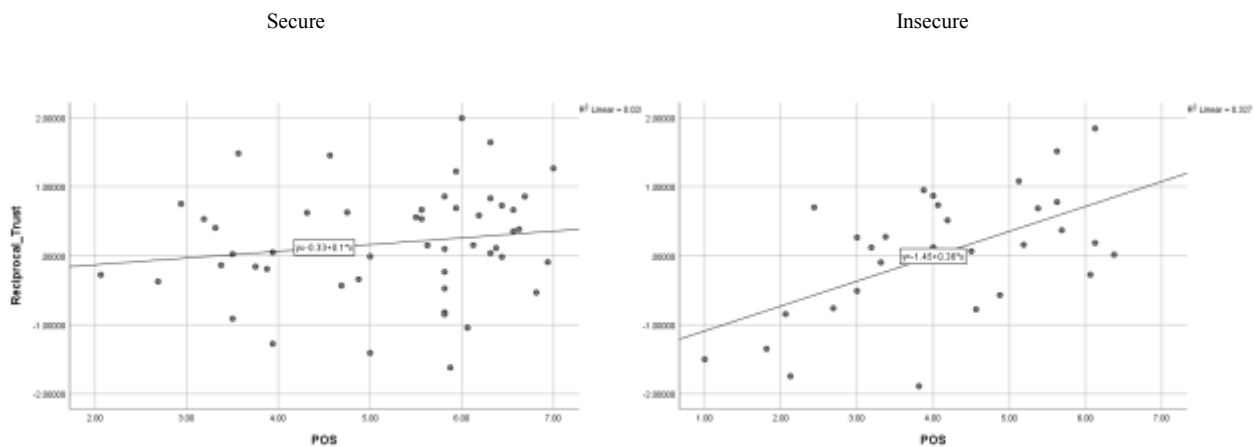
POS, Reproductive-Material Precariousness and Reciprocal Trust (n = 81)

	<i>b</i>	<i>Se (HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	.212	.095	2.238	.028
Perceived Organisational Support (centred)	.163	.065	2.532	.013
Reproductive-Material Precariousness (centred)	.050	.167	.301	.764
Interaction	.213	.085	2.503	.014

Note. Confidence Interval of 95. Bootstrap sample number of 5000.

Figure 10

POS and Reproductive-Material Precariousness on Reciprocal Trust (n = 81)

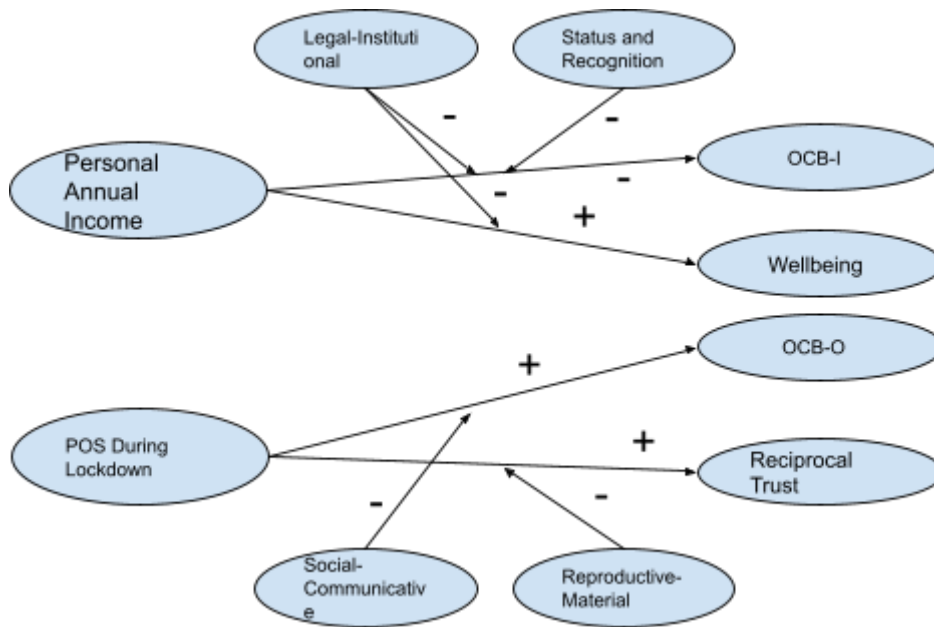


Note. Median split scores. The left graph has been cropped by SPSS to start at 2.00 instead of 1.00.

Figure 11 shows the surviving moderation pathways from the analyses.

Figure 11

Model of Moderation Effects



Chapter 4 - Discussion

Summary of findings

This study had the objective of exploring links from earnings, POS and the subjective experience of work-related precariousness, to OCB, wellbeing and social engagement. POS and the subjective experience of work-related precariousness directly linked to all three criterion variables (OCB, wellbeing and reciprocal trust as social engagement). The subjective experience of work-related precariousness also a) fully mediated the link between POS and OCB-O and partially mediated the link between POS and wellbeing and b) moderated links from earnings to OCB-I and trust and from POS to OCB-O and reciprocal trust. Overall the subjective experience of work-related precariousness was found to be pivotal as an antecedent, mediator and moderator.

Links to theory

Social exchange theory

The findings of this study provide some support for social exchange theory. Both POS and the subjective experience of work-related precariousness predicted OCB and in particular OCB-O. This finding was consistent with previous research which has found POS to be a greater predictor of organisation-oriented behaviours over individual-oriented behaviours (Pohl et al., 2013) and aligned with the theory that workers reciprocate organisational support by in turn supporting the organisation in its objectives. While POS has been studied as an antecedent for OCB quite extensively, the present study observes the relationship in the unique setting of the

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global COVID-19 pandemic. One finding that was inconsistent with previous research was that POS did not predict individual-oriented OCB-I at all. A possible explanation for this could be the changed nature of the world of work in the wake of the pandemic. With many employees working remotely, or under socially-distanced conditions, the means in which they may assist co-workers could have been limited.

Another addition to present literature on social exchange theory is the subjective experience of work-related precariousness as a negative predictor of OCB. It was initially theorised that workers who felt that their organisation did not provide them with certainty and security would feel less obligated to expend resources on OCB. The findings of this study supported this theory. This may indicate negative reciprocal exchange with workers repaying perceived indifference toward them with indifference toward their organisation and coworkers. Furthermore, the legal-institutional dimension of subjective precariousness fully mediated the relationship between POS and OCB-O. This indicates that workers who feel supported by their organisation also believe that they are proficient in organisational procedure and have a voice in work-place matters and this may encourage OCB-O. Further research is needed to understand the nature of this relationship but the present finding suggests a close relationship between feeling that one has legal and institutional protections at their workplace and that one is supported by their organisation.

While it was also theorised that earnings may be treated as a form of social-exchange, potentially mediated by POS, the present study did not find evidence of this. It may also be worth noting that reproductive-material precariousness did not predict OCB either. Therefore, neither the

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objective measure of income nor the subjective measure of material insecurity were linked to OCB. This finding isn't consistent with Haar's (2019) research which found that living wages predicted OCB, but neither is it inconsistent with theories around social and economic exchange (Zafirovski, 2005). Haar's research indicated that the adoption of a living wage could be perceived by workers as an act of support, and therefore promote a reciprocal response. This study, on the other hand, observed a range of incomes from high to low. This could indicate that wages are generally treated more as part of an economic exchange, thus not necessarily promoting obligations beyond one's work contract. It may also be of note that the circumstances under which the study was conducted were not ordinary. With many organisations taking a financial blow due to lockdowns and closed borders, it is possible that many workers may have managed their own expectations regarding wages and did not view lower wages as a lack of concern from their organisation, though this possibility is, of course, entirely speculative.

What was particularly unexpected was the negative effect of earnings on OCB-I when moderated by both status and recognition and legal-institutional precariousness. This relationship is not understood through the theories explored in Chapter 1. It is possible that higher earners are in competitive environments or highly specialised roles that make helping others difficult. If such work-environments are also very insecure and, therefore, potentially stressful this may exacerbate the difficulty in helping others. Again, it must be noted that the study was conducted in the wake of COVID-19 which pushed many workers into remote work. It is possible that higher paid workers were amongst those most likely to take up a home office and be separated from colleagues.

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Trust and Social Engagement

Expanding from social exchange theory, the present study aligns with current literature around the relationship between earnings and trust. Previous studies have connected poverty and income inequality to lower levels of trust which, theoretically, reduces social cohesion (Gallego, 2016; Kawachi et al., 1999). The findings of this research add to present literature by uncovering potential links between precarious work and low reciprocal trust. Reciprocal trust, was characterised by a person's general belief that people would be fair toward them and wouldn't take advantage of them. The findings suggest that those who felt insecure in their work situation were more likely to feel that others would take advantage of them.

Furthermore, POS during lockdown also predicted reciprocal trust, expanding on previous findings which have linked POS to organisational trust. The relationship between POS and reciprocal trust was also stronger amongst workers who felt materially insecure. This suggests that when workers faced insecurity any increase in support was substantial in improving belief that people would treat them fairly. The link between POS and reciprocal trust may have been particularly salient due to the COVID-19 pandemic when workers potentially relied more than usual on support from their organisations. While these findings are reported tentatively, they provide some initial evidence that work-related experience may be linked to workers' perceptions of society.

Job-Demands Resource Theory, Conservation of Resource Theory and Hindrance Stressor Effect

In addition to social exchange theory, the findings of this study may offer some support for theories around job resources. POS predicted wellbeing which is consistent with previous

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research (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2016; Bajaj & Krishnan, 2016; Roemer & Harris, 2018) and offers some support for Job-demands Resource Theory and Conservation of Resource Theory. Job-demands resource theory proposes that job resources buffer the negative effects of job demands and that job demands enhance the motivational processes of job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). Therefore in accordance with this theory, POS would function as a resource that protects workers from stress and enhances wellbeing. The Conservation of Resource Theory proposes that the acquisition of resources helps facilitate dealing with stress and subsequently guards against loss of wellbeing (Hobfoll & Schumm, 2002). While the present study is exploratory and does not assume causation, the positive link between POS and wellbeing presents additional evidence that POS is a resource that may facilitate wellbeing. Furthermore, the partial mediation of meaningful-subject-related precariousness suggests that POS may lead to greater meaningfulness in work which in turn may increase wellbeing. This may align with the job-demands resource theory if POS is fostering motivation for work amongst employees.

While POS may function as a job resource, it was also theorised that earnings and the subjective experience of work-related precariousness may operate as stressors. Previous literature suggested that material deprivation and job insecurity operated as a hindrance stressors which could distract workers from tasks and lead them to withdraw in order to cope with stress (Meuris & Leana, 2015; Piccoli et al., 2021; Staufenbiel & Konig, 2010). The present study expands on previous literature by identifying the subjective experience of work-related precariousness as a potential hindrance stressor. In this study, precariousness predicted low OCB and low wellbeing potentially indicating both stress and withdrawal.

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One interesting finding was the interaction between earnings and legal institutional precariousness on wellbeing. There was no direct link between earnings and wellbeing, however amongst workers who felt legally-institutionally insecure, any increase in earnings improved wellbeing. Higher earnings may have, therefore, been better appreciated amongst workers who felt otherwise insecure and may have mitigated some of the negative effects of that insecurity. In this sense, while having no direct link with wellbeing, earnings may have operated as a resource that buffered the negative effect of legal-institutional insecurity.

Limitations and Reflections

There were some limitations in the instruments used. In hindsight, the organisational citizenship behaviour scale was potentially limited by the changing nature of work during the COVID-19 pandemic. During lockdown, many employees worked remotely or under socially distanced conditions and some changes to work may have endured post lockdown. It is possible then, that workers may not have been able to display OCB to the same degree or of the same manner as they would have under more regular circumstances. For example, workers may not have been able to attend functions or share personal property and this may have been more a reflection of circumstance than personal attitude. This was not considered when the survey was developed. If the study were to be done again, more thought and attention could be given to the ways in which the pandemic may have adapted work-environments and subsequently the ways in which employees could engage one another and their organisation.

Similarly to OCB, while one of the constructs measured was POS during lockdown, the POS measure did not include items that would be specific to a pandemic and nationwide lockdown.

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Therefore, the measure may not be fully adequate in measuring the various ways that organisational support may be shown under such a unique setting nor would it necessarily reflect the concerns of employees at that time.

Additionally, there are limitations in the method of surveying participants for POS during lockdown approximately three to four months after the lockdown had ended. Findings are based on retrospection and not how workers felt at the time of the study. Furthermore, there are limits in correlating the POS scores, which required participants to think retrospectively, to scores of other variables which required participants to reflect on the present. This may be especially so in regards to the wellbeing measure which is based on the previous two weeks. Previous studies have found that the effect of POS on wellbeing may be very immediate (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2016) which shows weekly changes in POS linking to weekly changes in wellbeing. Therefore, linking POS during lockdown to wellbeing outside of lockdown may be in error and the same could be said for each of the criterion variables. If the study were to be done again, it would be advantageous to publish the survey in closer proximity to the lockdown period. However, at the very least the POS measure reflects how participants retrospectively felt about the organisational support they received during lockdown and this retrospection correlated with OCB, wellbeing, reciprocal trust and the subjective experience of work-related precariousness.

Regarding the Social Capital Questionnaire, the large number and range of items may have been overwhelming for participants which could account for some of the drop-off which resulted in a small sample of only $n = 81$ in the final regression analysis. A more targeted measure for trust

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may have been more useful for exploring the relationship between work-related experiences and trust. In saying this, the study was exploratory and it was unknown which aspects of social engagement would correlate with the measure of precariousness and organisational support. Therefore, while all findings must be reported tentatively they are the result of a widely cast net, from which avenues for further exploration have been found. If a similar study were to be done again, a more targeted measure for trust may produce a more reliable finding and reduce fatigue and participant drop-off.

Regarding the subjective experience of work-related precariousness measure, concurrently under development, two factors, social communicative and legal-institutional had comparably lower internal consistency and both maintained only two of their respective items each (from EFA). Furthermore, there was a cross-loading of one item from the intended status and recognition factor to the resulting social-communicative factor. Presently, the strongest factors were the meaningful-subject-related and reproductive material factors, though none of the final factors comprised all five of their intended items. In further development of the measure, some revision is needed to develop more internally cohesive dimensions.

Participant drop-off was a challenge in this study. Despite 179 participants initially engaging in the survey, 157 of which passed screening tests, the sample dropped below $n=100$ for most regression analyses. Reasons for not answering all questions may include uncertainty, discomfort, fatigue or complications with technology. Potential ways to mitigate this would be to collect a greater sample and develop a shorter, more targeted survey. A larger sample would have also presented more opportunities in analysing earnings. With little over 100 participants

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completing the items on earnings, there was insufficient data for the split item of hourly wages and yearly salaries which may have made an interesting comparison study. A sample of more than 200 might have resulted in $n=100$ for both wages and salaries and therefore provided sufficient data for a more thorough probe into the dynamics of earnings as a predictor of the criterion variables.

Finally, the median split method used to separate secure and insecure workers for visual interpretation was limited in that one data set (of two) included not only the median, but all scores of the same value. To an extent, this is a reflection of the population size differences between comparatively secure and insecure workers with fewer workers reporting that they felt insecure. However, the difference in data set size may have skewed the relationship between the respective antecedent and criterion variables amongst comparatively insecure workers. This complication may have been exacerbated by the small sample size and the few item loadings on some factors of the subjective experience of work-related precariousness which limited the diversity of scores. If the study were to be done again, a larger sample size and a more valid and reliable measure of subjective precariousness may improve interpretability of moderations.

Implications and conclusions

The present study was an exploratory one with the objective of uncovering potential links between precarious work, objective and subjective, and OCB, wellbeing and social engagement. The hope for this study was that it would serve as an indicator of these potential links for further research endeavors. There were two findings that warrant further investigation. Firstly, the subjective experience of work-related precariousness measure may serve as a useful measure for

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identifying the precarious worker - the worker who is suffering the effects of precarious work. Such workers may otherwise be missed by objective measures that are unable to capture the full nuance of their legal, social and employment situation. On the other hand, objective measures may identify workers as precarious even when their legal and social circumstances are protecting them from the negative effects of precarious work. This was highlighted in the present study as the subjective experience of work-related precariousness was a greater predictor of social and health outcomes than earnings were.

Secondly, the study uncovered a potential flow on effect of work experiences into community life. Links from POS and the subjective experience of work-related precariousness to wellbeing and reciprocal trust indicate that work experiences may affect how people perceive their life and society in general. Previous research into work-related experiences has focused largely if not exclusively on work-related outcomes. And while researchers from various disciplines have studied in depth the relationship between objective material hardship and social outcomes, the experiences of support or insecurity that workers encounter on a daily basis appear to have received less attention. This study demonstrates, however, the need for work-structures to be analysed not merely for their efficiency and profitability but for their potential psychological and social impact. It is hoped, therefore, that future research into precarity can merge work psychology and social psychology to explore in more depth the effects of precarious work on the worker and the community in which they are situated.

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Appendix A

Table of Bivariate Correlations

Table A1

Bivariate Correlations

Correlations

		POS	Meaningful Subject Related	Reproductive Material	Status and Recognition	Social Communicative	Legal Institutional	OCB_O	OCB_I	Wellbeing	Religious Participation	Institutional Trust	Reciprocal Trust	Vote Participation	Social Participation
Weekly take-home income	Pearson Correlation	.108	-.064	-.517*	-.245*	-.152	-.170	.013	-.034	.052	.202	-.082	.200	.066	-.110
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.136	.256	.000	.005	.061	.040	.454	.371	.299	.043	.246	.046	.290	.176
	N	106	107	106	107	105	107	86	95	105	73	73	72	73	73
Personal Annual Income	Pearson Correlation	.152	-.150	-.499*	-.306*	-.180	-.201*	-.006	-.160	.108	.193	.054	.226	.017	.048
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.059	.060	.000	.001	.032	.018	.479	.058	.134	.048	.321	.025	.443	.340
	N	108	109	108	109	107	109	89	97	107	76	76	76	76	76
Household Annual Income	Pearson Correlation	.171*	-.171*	-.421*	-.174	-.086	-.063	-.069	-.139	.124	.048	-.047	.101	.039	-.016
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.038	.038	.000	.035	.189	.256	.260	.087	.101	.344	.344	.195	.371	.447
	N	108	109	108	109	107	109	89	97	107	74	74	74	74	74
POS	Pearson Correlation		-.534*	-.420*	-.220*	-.341*	-.553*	-.404*	-.086	.557*	.146	.079	.347*	-.018	-.268*
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000	.000	.007	.000	.000	.000	.189	.000	.097	.241	.001	.436	.008
	N		122	121	122	120	122	98	107	120	81	81	81	81	81
Meaningful Subject Related	Pearson Correlation			.350*	.413*	.345*	.439*	-.371*	-.077	-.479*	-.132	-.118	-.242*	-.138	.296*
	Sig. (1-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.205	.000	.116	.142	.013	.106	.003
	N			135	135	134	136	106	116	132	84	84	84	84	84
Reproductive Material	Pearson Correlation				.269*	.309*	.183	-.015	.093	-.358*	-.249*	.065	-.162	-.111	.074
	Sig. (1-tailed)				.001	.000	.016	.438	.162	.000	.011	.278	.071	.157	.251
	N				134	135	137	106	115	131	84	84	84	84	84
Status and Recognition	Pearson Correlation					.256*	.205*	-.052	-.156*	-.216*	-.005	-.115	-.268*	-.123	.156
	Sig. (1-tailed)					.001	.009	.298	.048	.007	.483	.150	.007	.132	.079
	N					133	135	105	115	131	84	84	84	84	84
Social Communicative	Pearson Correlation						.304*	-.111	-.071	-.343*	-.014	-.203	-.195*	-.097	.327*
	Sig. (1-tailed)						.000	.130	.225	.000	.449	.034	.039	.193	.001
	N						136	105	115	130	82	82	82	82	82
Legal Institutional	Pearson Correlation							-.564*	-.231*	-.261*	-.042	-.104	-.145	.105	.154
	Sig. (1-tailed)							.000	.006	.001	.353	.174	.094	.172	
	N							106	116	132	84	84	84	84	84

Note. **Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Appendix B
Output of Significant Mediations

Table B1

Mediation Output POS, Legal-Institutional Precariousness and OCB-O(n=98)

Model Summary - Legal-Institutional Precariousness (Outcome Variable)							
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
	.518	.269	.312	27.575	1.000	96.000	.000
Model							
	<i>b</i>	β	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	3.106		.243	12.807	.000	2.625	3.588
POS	-.239	-.518	.046	-5.251	.000	-.329	-.149
Model							
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
	.576	.332	1.373	28.116	2.000	95.000	.000
Model							
	<i>b</i>	β	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	6.295		.979	6.429	.000	4.351	8.239

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POS	.1565	.156	.129	1.217	.227	-.099	.412
Legal-Institutional	-1.048	.480	.215	-4.866	.000	-1.476	-.621
<hr/>							
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
	.404	.164	1.702	11.303	1.000	96.000	.001
<hr/>							
Model							
	<i>b</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	3.039		.671	4.532	.000	1.708	4.371
POS	.407	.404	.121	3.362	.001	.167	.647
<hr/>							

Table B2*Total, Direct and Indirect Effects - POS, Legal-Institutional Precariousness and OCB-O*

Total Effect								
<i>b</i>	β	<i>se</i> (HC3)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	<i>c_ps</i>	<i>c_cs</i>
.407	.404	.121	3.362	.001	.167	.648	.287	.404
Direct Effect								
<i>b</i>	β	<i>se</i> (HC3)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	<i>c_ps</i>	<i>c_cs</i>
.157		.129	1.217	.227	-.099	.412	.110	.156
Indirect Effect								
	<i>b</i>	<i>BootSE</i>	<i>BootLLCI</i>	<i>BootULCI</i>				
legal-institutional	.251	.070	.1210	.399				
Standardised Indirect Effect								
	β	<i>BootSE</i>	<i>BootLLCI</i>	<i>BootULCI</i>				
legal-institutional	.249	.068	.123	.393				

Table B3*Mediation Output - POS, Meaningful-Subject-Related Precariousness and Wellbeing (n=120)*

Model Summary - Meaningful-Subject-Related Precariousness (Outcome Variable)							
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
	.531	.282	.346	49.496	1.000	118.000	.000
Model							
	<i>b</i>	β	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	3.153		.183	17.217	.000	2.790	3.516
POS	-.245	-.531	.035	-7.035	.000	-.314	-.176
Model Summary - Wellbeing (Outcome Variable)							
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
	.597	.356	.695	32.059	2.000	117.000	.000
Model							
	<i>b</i>	β	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	3.062		.556	5.504	.000	1.961	4.164
POS	.291	.423	.067	4.307	.000	.157	.424
Meaningful-Subject	-.378	.253	.144	-2.629	.010	-.662	-.093

Model Summary -Total Effect Wellbeing (Outcome Variable)

<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
.557	.310	.738	50.564	1.000	118.00	.000

Model

	<i>b</i>	β	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	1.872		.291	6.435	.000	1.296	2.448
POS	.383	.557	.054	7.111	.000	.276	.490

Table B4

Total, Direct and Indirect Effects - POS, Meaningful-Subject-Related Precariousness and Wellbeing

Total Effect								
<i>b</i>	β	<i>se</i> (HC3)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	<i>c_ps</i>	<i>c_cs</i>
.383	.557	.054	7.111	.000	.276	.490	.372	.557
Direct Effect								
<i>b</i>		<i>se</i> (HC3)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	<i>c_ps</i>	<i>c_cs</i>
.291		.067	4.307	.000	.157	.424	.282	.423
Indirect Effect								
	<i>b</i>	<i>BootSE</i>			<i>BootLLCI</i>		<i>BootULCI</i>	
meaningful-subject-related	.092	.036			.026		.168	
Standardised Indirect Effect								
	β	<i>BootSE</i>			<i>BootLLCI</i>		<i>BootULCI</i>	
meaningful-subject-related	.134	.051			.039		.238	

Appendix C
Output of Significant Moderations

Table C1

Moderation Output - POS, Social-Communicative Precariousness, OCB-O

Model Summary						
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>
	.460	.211	1.636	6.297	3.000	93.000
						<i>p</i>
						.001
Model						
	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	4.945	.145	34.152	.000	4.658	5.233
POS	.444	.131	3.401	.001	.185	.704
Social-Communicative	.184	.270	.681	.498	-.353	.721
Interaction	-.355	.099	-3.589	.001	-.552	-.159
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator						
social-communicative	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
-.504	.623	.162	3.852	.000	302	.945
.000	.444	.131	3.401	.001	.185	.185

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.504 .265 .114 2.333 .022 .040 .491

Table C2

Moderation Output - Personal Annual Income, Status and Recognition Precariousness, OCB-I
(*n*=97)

Model Summary							
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
	.342	.117	1.231	3.790	3.000	93.000	.013
Model							
	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
Constant	5.365	.129	41.667	.000	5.109	5.620	
Personal Annual Income	-.140	.079	-1.762	.081	-.298	.018	
Status and Recognition	-.425	.256	-1.660	.100	-.934	.083	
Interaction	-.232	.074	-3.150	.002	-.378	-.086	
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator							
Status and Recognition	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
-.530	-.017	.064	-.270	.788	-.144	.110	
.000	-.140	.079	-1.762	.081	-.298	.018	
.530	-.263	.108	-2.440	.017	-.476	-.049	

Table C3*Moderation Output - Personal Annual Income, Legal-Institutional Precariousness, OCB-I**(n=97)*

Model Summary							
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
	.408	.167	1.161	3.390	3.000	93.000	.021
Model							
	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
Constant	5.360	.123	43.704	.000	5.117	5.604	
Personal Annual Income	-.143	.070	-2.030	.045	-.282	-.003	
Legal-Institutional	-.614	.214	-2.866	.005	-1.039	-.188	
Interaction	-.272	.117	-2.336	-.041	-.504	-.041	
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator							
Legal-Institutional	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
-.637	.031	.091	.335	.739	-.151	.212	
.000	-.143	.070	-2.030	.045	-.282	-.003	
.637	-.316	.112	-2.822	.006	-.538	-.094	

Table C4*Moderation Output - Personal Annual Income, Legal-Institutional Precariousness, Wellbeing**(n=107)*

Model Summary							
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
	.409	.167	.870	8.867	3.000	103.000	.000
Model							
	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
Constant	3.743	.091	40.914	.000	3.561	3.924	
Personal Annual Income	.028	.046	.603	.548	-.063	.118	
Legal-Institutional	-.477	.141	-3.373	.001	-.757	-.197	
Interaction	.181	.072	2.523	.013	.039	.324	
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator							
Legal-Institutional	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
-.601	-.081	.062	-1.314	.192	-.204	.041	
.000	.028	.046	.603	.548	-.063	.118	
.601	.136	.064	2.132	.035	.010	.263	

Table C5*Moderation Output - POS, Reproductive-Material Precariousness, Reciprocal Trust (n=81)*

Model Summary							
	<i>R</i>	<i>R-sq</i>	<i>MSE</i>	<i>F(HC3)</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
	.434	.188	.582	7.590	3.000	77.000	.000
Model							
	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
Constant	.212	.095	2.238	.028	.023	.401	
POS	.163	.064	2.532	.013	.035	.292	
Reproductive-Material	.050	.167	.301	.764	-.281	.382	
Interaction	.213	.085	2.503	.014	.044	.383	
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator							
Reproductive-Material	<i>b</i>	<i>se(HC3)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>	
-.659	.023	.088	.256	.799	-.153	.199	
.000	.163	.064	2.532	.013	.035	.292	
.659	.304	.083	3.682	.000	.139	.468	

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