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Psychosocial Risks Experienced by International Students in the Security Industry of New Zealand.

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the
Master of Business Studies (specialisation in HRM)

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Abstract

Many international students in New Zealand are employed under non-standard work arrangements as part-time/casual security guards in the security industry. The literature on the experiences of international students indicates that they often work irregular schedules, are paid minimum wages and benefits, and tend to be exploited by employers due to their limited knowledge about employment rights. Similarly, the literature concerning work in the security industry worldwide suggests that security guards generally work under unsafe and hazardous working conditions and are provided with limited equipment and training, which tends to have negative repercussions for their psychosocial wellbeing. However, there is sparse literature at both the national and global level discussing the experiences of international students working as security guards in the security industry. Thus, the present research was designed to qualitatively explore the experiences of international students engaged in non-standard work arrangements in the security industry of New Zealand and investigate their psychosocial wellbeing. Seven international students working as casual security guards within the broader Auckland region were interviewed. Three main overarching themes were identified in the analysis. Theme 1 highlighted ‘accessibility issues’ identified as workers’ inaccessibility to adequate provisions such as Personal Protective Equipment (PPE), kitchen and toilet facilities, sufficient training, adequate income and benefits, regular working hours, and knowledge about employment rights; all of which had negative consequences for their wellbeing. Relatedly, theme 2 ‘threats to psychosocial wellbeing’ presented a picture of the vulnerability of international student security guards in the industry by illuminating their exposure to physical and psychosocial harm, such as physical abuse and racial harassment, during their work. Additional stressors due to this group’s extended engagement with both studies and part-time work were also explored. In theme 3, the ‘unprofessional practices’ of both international students and employers (subcontractors) in relation to New Zealand employment law were

outlined. Here, sub-themes of exploitation and self-exploitation were further investigated. Overall these findings emphasised the need for vigorous policy initiatives focussed on improving the working standards of the security industry and wellbeing of international students working as security guards, through collaborative efforts on the part of the regulatory agencies, main- contractors and subcontractors.

Keywords: international students, security guards, non-standard work arrangements

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List of Acronyms

COA: Certificate of Approval

OHS: Occupational Health and Safety

PPE: Personal Protective Equipment

SINZ: Security Industry of New Zealand

NZ: New Zealand

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Research Overview

A striking feature of New Zealand's security industry is that it employs many international students on a part-time basis. While there is no official data available concerning the total number of international students in the security industry, the Security Institute of New Zealand¹ (2017) has pointed at the international student population's large representation in the mandatory training programs for a permanent security license. In general, international students tend to be employed in more precarious work arrangements and work under hazardous work conditions (Anderson et al., 2012). Additionally, research on the security industry globally suggests that workers may be exposed to a number of psychosocial risks including uncertain work schedules, inadequate Personal Protective Equipment (PPE; Sefalafala and Webster, 2013), long and asocial shift hours (Begani, Begani, So'on & Pokasui, 2013), inadequate training (Nalla, Paek & Lim, 2017), physical abuse and harassment (Leino, 2013).

Psychosocial risks are the perceived demands of work schedules and functions, organisational culture and environment and social contexts of individuals which, when exceed their capability to manage them effectively, might interact with their physical and psychological wellbeing negatively (Leka, Cox & Zwetsloot, 2008). Due to the nature of the non-standard work arrangements as well as the risks inherent in security work, it is likely that international students working as part-time security guards in the industry are exposed to a number of interacting psychosocial risks that have negative repercussions for their wellbeing. However, there is no/limited research exploring the experiences of this group of workers, signifying a crucial gap in our knowledge because there is a need to protect the working rights

¹ A privately governed body focused on professionally and academically developing the security personnel and promoting working standards within the Security Industry of NZ (Security Institute of New Zealand, 2019).

of security guards in the rapidly growing industry of New, Zealand (Defsec Media Limited, 2017).

In this thesis, I capitalised on my position both as an international student and a part-time security guard and explored the experiences of international students engaged in non-standard work within the security industry of Auckland, New Zealand. I also explored the personal circumstances of international students, wherever relevant, to understand how this might influence their overall wellbeing.

This section begins with a background to the security industry (1.2), both national and international, and briefly discusses non-standard work and its implications for the security guards. It also briefly describes the vulnerability of international students to several psychosocial risks and exploitation in the host country along with implications for their overall wellbeing. Next, the research gap is explicitly outlined in section 1.3, emphasising the rationale for this study. Lastly, section 1.4 provides an overview of the thesis structure.

1.2. Background to the Security Industry

In recent years, the demand for security services in New Zealand has been excessively increased due to the increasing rate of crimes and the growing concern for safety and security among the general public (Kennedy, 2008). According to New Zealand Security Magazine published by Defsec Media Limited (2018) – an independent publisher in New Zealand specialises in security, fire protection and border management industries – the total worth of the security industry of New Zealand in the year 2017 was estimated at \$1.4 billion which was almost 0.7 per cent of National Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Additionally, its average annual contribution to GDP of New Zealand from 2012 to 2017 was observed at 1.9 per cent while the total GDP growth during the same period stood at 3.1 per cent annually suggesting a contribution at significantly higher levels. Interestingly, jobs in this industry have grown at the

rate of 1.3 per cent annually since 2012 and are forecasted to outperform the national employment growth rate of 1.9 per cent as it is expected to reach 3 per cent in the next five years (Defsec Media Limited, 2018). Furthermore, of the total 17,044 security staff inducted in the NZ security Industry in 2017, 6,898 were security officers. These security officers perform multiple roles from controlling the crowd to guarding the private property and can now be seen in almost every shopping mall, educational institute, transport facility, construction site and mass gatherings (Ahmad & Mazlan, 2012; Dupont, 2014; Howie & Campbell, 2017; Howie, 2014; Wakefield, 2003).

Despite the social importance of security guards and equally the sense of professionalism required by them, there are many reasons to believe that the security industry has not been given its share of due diligence by both the government and the security companies, which has resulted in inhospitable working conditions for the security guards (Bradley, 2016, 2017; Howie, 2014). Indeed, limited government regulations concerning the wellbeing of security guards and the resulting inhospitable working conditions remains a much more pervasive problem within the industry globally (Begani et al., 2013; Bradley, 2016; Klopfer, 2016; Nalla et al., 2017; Howie, 2014; Van Steden & Sarre, 2007). First, the nature of work is non-standard due to longer working hours, temporary and disguised employment relationships (Sefalafala & Webster, 2013), and shift work (Begani et al., 2013) to name a few. Second, Nalla et al. (2017) identified that the concept of a living wage has yet to be adopted by security companies as the guards were being compensated with minimum wage and limited benefits, i.e. sick leave, annual leave and holiday pay at the bare minimum. Third, in contrast to the importance of essential skills that must be possessed by security guards, Iain (2017) reported that they only undergo a one-day mandatory training program to obtain a permanent security license from the Private Security Personnel and Licensing authority (PSPLA). PSPLA is administered by the Ministry of Justice New Zealand (2019a) and issues licences and

certificates of approval for the private security industry. Last and relatedly, security guards' primary duty is to observe and report, although they are allowed to use reasonable force only when attacked first. However, a lack of self-defence training thwarts their ability to decide and exercise reasonable use of force to manage conflict situations (Leino, Selin, Summala & Virtanen, 2011). One prominent example of the cost of inadequate training was a recent incident in which an Auckland security guard was punched in the head and died immediately in the city's largest supermarket as he approached a suspicious teen without taking precautionary measures (Hurley, 2018).

Due to restrictions around visa conditions capping work at a maximum of 20 hours per week for all full-time international students – except part-time, Masters by Research and Doctoral students who are allowed to work full-time (Immigration New Zealand, 2019a) – many international students are hired on part-time contracts, tend to work under unsafe working conditions (Campbell, Boese & Tham, 2016; Nyland et al., 2009), are compensated at minimum wage, and are not entitled to benefits, i.e. sick leave, annual leave, training courses, and protection against unfavourable circumstances (Bi, Beech, Knox & Lees, 2016; Ferguson & Danckert, 2015; Kwadzo, 2014; Laberge, Ledoux and Thuilier, 2012). Across the service sector in New Zealand, subcontractors mostly hire international students on temporary part-time work agreements that make them more vulnerable to job insecurity (Campbell et al., 2016; United Voice, 2013).

Interestingly, international students usually work asocial shifts (night shifts and weekend shifts) that fall outside the standard working hours, and at sites that are more prone to violence and Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) risks such as hazardous manufacturing units and construction sites (Anderson, Lamare and Hannif, 2011; Anderson, Jamieson & Naidu, 2012; Campbell et al., 2016; Nyland et al., 2009). Additionally, Pocock, Prosser and Bridge (2004) discovered that in some instances, international students were also coerced to

work more than the approved legal limit and paid much less than legal minimum wage for those extra hours. Further, their refusal to take on extra hours of work may result in their names being removed from the rosters or allocation of tougher or more undesirable shifts (Campbell et al. 2016).

1.3. Research Gap

Based on my personal experience with the security industry of New Zealand, hereafter referred to as SINZ, most of the international students working as security guards are part-timers and employed through subcontractors. These subcontractors operate under limited working standards and a regulations regime defined by a lack of compliance with employment policies, entitlements and protections as administered by Employment New Zealand (2019a). This lack of regard for employment laws has significantly increased the vulnerability of international students within the SINZ and has engendered harmful implications for their physical and psychosocial wellbeing. Similarly, the lack of conformity from both subcontractors and international students to employment policies has also given rise to exploitative practices and has compromised the ethical standards of the SINZ.

To the best of my knowledge, I did not find any research, in either the New Zealand or international context, specifically discussing experiences of a student, i.e. local or international or a migrant worker, within the security industry. In light of the exponential growth of this industry both nationally (Bradley, 2016, 2017; Defsec Media Limited, 2018) and globally (Van steden & Sarre, 2007), this scarcity of studies around experiences of international students in the security industry is an issue that warrants urgent research attention. Further investigation of this research gap is required in order to develop a sustainable workforce while safeguarding the rights of security guards (Howie & Campbell, 2017; Howie, 2014). Therefore, the specific research objective of this study was to further our understanding of working arrangements,

health and safety issues and exploitative practices within the SINZ as well as personal circumstances of international students that might be influencing their experiences.

Not only do international students working within in the New Zealand security industry have to contend with the aforementioned risks, but their engagement with both studies and work may result in difficulties balancing their schedules and these students may endure several physical and psychological risks such as emotional distress, anxiety, role conflict, sleep disturbance and energy depletion, as evident in the literature (Kwadzo, 2014; Laberge et al., 2012). Furthermore, being away from home, family, and their friends and in a place where they have limited social contacts may further aggravate their current situation leading to homesickness and helplessness, as reported by Paltridge, Mayson and Schapper (2012) and Neill, Mulholland, Ross and Leckey (2004). As indicated by the research on psychosocial risks, many non-work factors can interact with an individual's work life to further compound their experience of psychosocial risks (Leka, Cox & Zwetsloot, 2008). Thus, although this study was primarily focussed on understanding the experiences of international students with the SINZ, it also explored personal engagements of international students, where relevant.

1.4. Thesis Outline

The Introduction chapter provided a background into international students' work experiences and the security industry more broadly, while explicitly highlighting the important research gap in the literature as well. In chapter two, an extensive body of literature is reviewed in relation to non-standard work in the NZ security industry and the vulnerability of international students, while outlining the various implications for their psychosocial wellbeing. This chapter also further details the research gap in this field and emphasises the significance of the present study. Chapter three provides an overview of the methodology, discussing how the qualitative based interview research design, social constructivist paradigm,

interpretivist approach and thematic analysis procedure was best suited to address the research question. Chapter four analyses and discusses the study findings in relation to the literature. Finally, chapter five discusses the theoretical contributions and practical implications of the findings, while highlighting key areas for future research.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1. Introduction to Literature Review

Guided by the research question, the literature review has explored three main areas, i.e. international students' work experiences, non-standard work arrangements in general, and work in the security industry, to provide a background of the experiences of international students with non-standard work arrangements in the SINZ. Accordingly, section 2.2 discusses the challenges faced by international students and their vulnerability to several psychosocial risks in the host country along with implications for their overall wellbeing. It further describes the vulnerability of international students to exploitation due to their involvement with non-standard work arrangements. Next, section 2.3 discusses work and environment of the security industry worldwide in relation to non-standard work and highlights when it becomes precarious and poses psychosocial risks to workers. Finally, section 2.4 presents the implications for the physical and psychosocial wellbeing of workers engaged in non-standard work arrangements, followed by summary of literature and overview of research gaps in section 2.5.

2.2. Experiences of International Students

In recent years, many research papers have been published triggered by the increasing number of international students around the globe to determine their experiences with both the part-time work and studies (Alghamdi & Otte, 2016; Anderson et al., 2011; Anderson et al., 2012; Kwadzo, 2014; Marginson, 2012; Reiley, 2013). Butcher and Mcgrath (2004) commented that the increasing number of international students in New Zealand (NZ) has contributed significantly to the education sector and benefitted universities and colleges in obvious ways to sustain their businesses. Hipkins (2018) stated that the education sector has become the fourth largest export industry in NZ, supported 49,631 jobs and contributed \$5.1 billion to the economy in 2017. According to Butcher and McGrath (2004), the main reason

for some international students to come to NZ was the relative ease to obtain admission and student visas, while for other students, attaining a degree in an English-speaking country, understanding NZ social values, and socializing with locals were common expectations.

In many studies, one consistent finding was that international students undergo extreme stressful experiences and uncertainty during their early days (Babacan et al., 2010; Nyland et al., 2009; Paltridge et al., 2012). According to Kwazado (2014), and Butcher and McGrath (2004), these stressful experiences were due to homesickness, social exclusion, financial challenges, and the conflict between the demands of studies and part-time work. Laberge et al., (2012) postulated that nature of their part-time work, working arrangements and the number of hours students work per week were strong determinants of their wellbeing and academic performance. The authors maintained that when students work more hours and perform duties at nights or during weekends that impede their ability to socialise, they are more likely to experience increased levels of anxiety and fatigue and declined academic performance (Laberge et al., 2012).

However, it has also been identified that students' part-time job engagement, in general, can lead to positive outcomes, including personal and professional development, and emotional growth. Gingras and Terril (2006; as cited in Laberge et al. 2012) indicated that students perceive part-time paid employment positively as it leads to financial independence and inculcates a sense of responsibility in them. Roy (2008; as cited in Laberge et al. 2012) further argued that part-time employment offers an opportunity for students to improve their practical skills and form professional networks and relationships. On the other hand, Derous and Ryan (2008) discovered that only those students working part-time inside the campus/university reported positive effects of work on academic performance, completion of a degree and overall wellbeing.

Kwadzo (2014) also conducted an interesting study using face-to-face in-depth interviews and photo-elicitation techniques to collect the data from twenty international students, i.e. nine female and 11 male students from North-eastern Public University in the United States who were also engaged in part-time work. Each participant of the study was given a disposable camera before the interview session to take at least ten pictures of study and work-related incidents that they deem significant. The findings of this study suggest that student's satisfaction was associated with the nature of part-time employment. For instance, employment that enhanced professional skills such as a graduate assistantship or customer care were more rewarding to the students whereas those engaged in physically demanding jobs (i.e., cleaning, driving, or kitchen hand) were less satisfied and reported poor professional skills (Kawadzo, 2014; Nyland, Forbes-Mewett & Marginson, 2010).

Thus, for international students, the outcomes of working while studying on their professional skills and wellbeing depends on the nature of the job, which can be categorised into 'skilled/good jobs' and 'odd jobs' (Roy, 2008; as cited in Laberge et al. 2012). Despite the fact that a security guard's job is a relatively low-status job (Sefalafala & Webster, 2013), its positive effects on my professional skills, i.e. confidence in dealing with conflicting situations, improved communication skills and understanding of NZ culture has outweighed the adverse outcomes of stress and fatigue. However, this may not be the case for all international students, as a number of other risk factors are likely to cumulatively impact their experiences.

2.2.1. The vulnerability of international students.

The vulnerability of international students and its consequences for their wellbeing have been outlined in many studies (Alghamdi et al., 2016; Anderson et al., 2012; Nyland et al., 2009; Roshid & Chowdhury, 2013; United Voice, 2013) which have also disclosed the violation of immigration rules and regulations by both employees and employers, in addition

to the violation of labour laws. Campbell et al. (2016) recruited twenty international students (seven male and thirteen female students) studying in Australian Universities and working in food services such as cafés, restaurants and bars to analyse their wages and conditions of employment. The study discovered that majority of the participants were engaged in ‘undeclared jobs’ enabling them to work more than approved Australian legal limit, (i.e. 20 hours per week during the semester and full-time in semester breaks). Williams and Renooy (2013, p.11) differentiate undeclared from declared work, noting that undeclared work is legal “but not declared to the authorities for tax, social security or labour law purposes”.

Moreover, all the participants in the study by Campbell et al. (2016) were international students engaged in waged jobs and not entitled to paid holidays and sick leave. These students were also underpaid for illegal hours and paid in cash undeclared to tax authorities (Campbell et al. 2016). This breach of tax and visa regulations can result in penalties and deportation charges against employers and students, respectively. On the other hand, these violations provided the employers with increased power as they could intimidate the students by revealing it to the immigration department when asked for an increase in wages and better working conditions (Ferguson & Danckert, 2015; Yuan, Cain & Spoonley, 2014). This perceived power imbalance between students and subcontractors is also evident in the SINZ which typically arises because of subcontractors’ tendency to coerce and punish students and students’ willingness to overwork, thus resulting in exploitation and self-exploitation, respectively.

Nyland et al. (2010) revealed that many international students in NZ and Australia performed non-professional jobs such as housekeepers, cleaners, or petrol pump attendants under unpleasant working conditions and paid at or below the minimum wage level. Indeed, a survey of 1400 international students studying and working in Sydney, conducted by Clibborn (2015) found that 60 per cent of students were paid less than the legal minimum wage of \$17.29/hour, with some being paid as little as less than \$10/hour. Campbell et al. (2016) also

reported similar findings under the themes of ‘underpayment’ and ‘non-payment’ of wages. In the instances of underpayments, students’ pay-slips only included the payment for those hours worked within the legal limit (20 hours per week or 40 hours fortnightly) whereas the compensatory rates for weekend and night shifts were excluded. Campbell et al. (2016) also reported that for any extra hours worked, students were paid below the minimum wage often in the form of cash. Non-payment of wages also occurred in the form of ‘training’ or ‘trial’ periods where students had to work for some hours or even days before getting paid for their work (Clibborn, 2015).

In order to determine the wages and working conditions of international students, United Voice (2013) surveyed a total of 380 retail cleaners working in the shopping malls of Australia, out of which 41 were international students. The report highlighted that international students – due to lack of knowledge of their employment rights, visa restrictions and financial obligations – were being exploited by the cleaning contractors. For instance, these students were pressured by their supervisors to work more in lesser time, paid only minim wages, and in some cases also asked to work more than 20 hours per week for which they were never paid, and their failure to comply often resulted in abusive and discriminatory behaviours (Anderson et al. 2012; Stringer, 2016; United Voice, 2013). Similarly, a startling revelation was made by Clibborn (2015) and Ferguson and Danckert (2015) about the employment of International students with the franchise network of 7-eleven in Australia. The authors unearthed two particulars ‘scams,’ i.e. ‘half-pay scam’ where the students were compensated with half pay in return of their services and ‘cash-back scam’ which required them to return an agreed amount to their employer after being paid at the legal rate. Further findings uncovered that students were blackmailed to continue working with the same employer and return extra money to secure their help in obtaining resident visas (Bi et al., 2016; Ferguson & Danckert, 2015).

These scams and exploitative behaviour of employers have also been observed in NZ, for instance (Laxon, 2016; Sharpe, 2019) and the recent changes in post-graduate working rights of international students were initiated for this reason. According to Immigration New Zealand (2018a), post-graduate working rights of international students have been declared “open” which means they are no longer required to secure a job offer from an employer to apply for a work visa. They will be given three years’ post-graduate work visa which solely depends upon the level of qualification gained in NZ, with the two years employer-assisted work visa being revoked. While proposing these changes, Immigration Minister Iain Lees-Galloway categorically stated that some “fraudulent and unethical” employers and education providers are selling the false dreams, misquoting and under-stating the post-study working rights to the students so they could keep on working for them in return for their assistance with resident visa (Tan, 2018). The Minister further stated that this exploitation of workers has resulted in the decline of the general skill level of New Zealanders because the majority of the immigrants who have been granted residence do not fall into “skilled migrant” category of Immigration New Zealand (Tan, 2018).

Beyond the issues of undeclared jobs, underpayment, and non-payment, there are also many additional psychosocial factors that contribute excessively to the vulnerability of students. These factors, as described by Paltridge et al. (2012), are categorized into social, political, cultural and economic, and are outlined in the following section (section 2.2.2).

2.2.2. Psychosocial factors surrounding international students.

Psychosocial factors are a multidimensional construct and generally consist of a combination of personal, professional, social, economic and environmental factors that influence an individual physically, psychologically or socially (Suzuki & Takei, 2013). Suzuki and Takei (2013) argued that the influences of psychosocial factors vary from person to person

and significantly contribute to their mental and physical health either positively or negatively depending upon the nature of demands and challenges they are exposed to. These perceived demands and challenges in the surrounding psychosocial environment of individuals when exceed their capability to manage them effectively, transform into psychosocial risks (Johnstone, Quinlan & McNamara, 2011). Some of the psychosocial risks, arising from the psychosocial factors, can take a form of excessive workloads at work, inadequate working conditions, lack of role clarity, lack of social support, harassment and bullying and financial crises (Macdonald, Driscoll, Stuckey & Oakman, 2012). Psychosocial risks impinge on an individuals' ability to cope, and prolonged exposure to these risks can result in numerous mental health and physical health problems such as stress, anxiety, burnout, depression, heart disease and musculoskeletal disorders (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Johnstone et al., 2011; Quinlan, 2015).

To this end, psychosocial risks affect overall psychosocial wellbeing of individuals as they strive to balance their demands and challenges with their resources (Dodge, Daly, Huyton and Sanders, 2012). As defined by Dodge et al. (2012 p.9), psychosocial wellbeing is “when individuals have the psychological, social and physical resources they need to meet a particular psychological, social and/or physical challenge”. Kloep, Hendry and Saunders (2009) argue that whenever an individual is exposed to a challenge, their psychosocial wellbeing lurks into a state of imbalance as an individual manages their resources to deal with a challenge.

In the context of this study, there are two broad types of psychosocial factors influencing the psychosocial wellbeing of international students working as security guards. The first type of psychosocial factors is due to their status of international student in the host country and exists independent of their engagement in a part-time work. These factors have been identified as political, social, cultural and economic by Paltridge et al. (2012) and have the potential for instigating excessive demands and challenges to international students. The

second type of psychosocial factors resulting from their engagement in part-time work with the SINZ and can be described as work-related arrangements and stressors (Leka, Cox & Zwetsloot, 2008). Arising from the vulnerability of security guards in the security industry and constraints in coping with situations of escalating conflict (Karacan et al., 2011; Leino, 2013), work-related psychosocial factors transform into risks in most of the situations (Leka, Cox & Zwetsloot, 2008) and affect their psychosocial wellbeing adversely. The first categorisation of psychosocial factors is outlined below, whereas work-related psychosocial factors are discussed, where relevant, throughout the remainder of this literature review (in sections 2.2-2.4).

2.2.2.1. Psychosocial factors: political, social, cultural, and economic.

From a political dimension, international students experience reduced rights similar to that of temporary migrants in the host countries. This group is also generally seen as politically insignificant and have hardly any involvement in decision making processes, including in the formulation of those policies that expressively affect them (Paltridge et al., 2012). However, in NZ, the opinions of international students are sought and welcomed before introducing any change in the immigration policies (Immigration New Zealand, 2018b). For example, in the recent post-graduate visa changes described above in section 2.2.1, Immigration New Zealand launched the consultation drive in the form of a survey that encouraged all the stakeholders to provide their opinions regarding the proposed changes, along with a document that explained in detail both the current and proposed immigration policies, and also the most likely impact of these. The final changes came into effect on November 26, 2018 (Immigration New Zealand, 2018b).

Secondly, the social dimension contributes significantly to the psychosocial risks experienced by international students. When they land in another country for an education, they

leave their family, friends and the larger community behind for which they have been a member of and enjoying relationships for decades (Forbes-Mewett & Nyland, 2008). Further, in the host country, as noted by Babacan et al. (2010), dramatic changes in language, culture, environment, and religion along with financial and time constraints may considerably inhibit their ability to form relationships with locals. Apart from these challenges, locals may also avoid forming relationships with international students because of their temporary status, thereby leading to social exclusion and alienation (Alghamdi & Otte, 2016; Butcher & McGrath, 2004). Alghamdi and Otte (2016) and Butcher and McGrath (2004) identified that most difficulties that students experience are off-campus which they encounter while searching for appropriate accommodation and employment and may include exploitation by landlords and ill-treatment by locals.

Relatedly, the cultural aspect of international students' vulnerability depends upon their cultural differences with the host country. As indicated by Australian Education International, (AEI, 2014; as cited in Campbell et al., 2016), most international students in Australia for higher education and Vocational Education and Training courses are from Asian backgrounds: China followed by India. Moreover, according to Immigration New Zealand (2019b), the same pattern of International students, i.e. Chinese and Indian students, has also been observed in New Zealand from 2008 to 2019. According to Alghamdi and Otte (2016) differences in worldviews between locals and international students tend to instigate ethnic and racial discrimination toward international students by locals. However, Chapdelaine and Alexitch (2004) found that this ill-treatment tends to be only directed toward non-western students such as those from the Middle East, Africa and Asia, whereas those from western cultures, e.g. European countries, America and Canada reported less discrimination and psychological risks. Chapdelaine and Alexitch (2004) also discovered that locals' perception of the international student's home country also influenced the treatment and degree of discrimination.

Finally, Babacan et al. (2010) discussed the economic challenges of international students under the theme of 'financial vulnerability' engendered by the deficiencies in immigration regulations. According to Babacan et al. (2010), one such regulation requires international students in Australia to show funds sufficient to cover the tuition fees, living costs and repatriation expenses during their stay in the host country to the immigration department. This process has been critiqued by Butcher and McGrath (2004) for being performed rather ineffectively by the Immigration department, which cross-checks the funds only at the time of visa processing. Once processed, the funds can be withdrawn from that account and, in some cases, returned to the person/sponsor from whom they were borrowed in the first place. Hence, some students are left with insufficient financial resources to fund themselves and forced to work more than the approved legal limit (Butcher & McGrath, 2004). Marginson (2012) reported that the Australian immigration department's requirement for this fund was too low to be realistic; thus, it is challenging for the students to rely upon the funds. However, in NZ, this regulation is applied differently for students from China, India, Philippines and Sri Lanka, in particular. These international students must transfer funds to NZ through a Funds Transfer Scheme (FTS) managed by ANZ Bank before their arrival to ensure they have safe and secure access to these funds during their stay. As maintained by Immigration New Zealand (n.d.), the minimum amount to be transferred is \$15,000 for each year of study, which is in addition to tuition fees and deemed necessary to meet their living expenses. In order to limit overspending of funds, international students can only withdraw up to \$1250 per month (Immigration New Zealand, n.d.). Though the total number of international students from other countries is relatively lower as compared to the countries mentioned above, its non-applicability for the former might be a contributing factor to the vulnerability of different groups of international students. The vulnerability of students who come without funds increases when they borrow the funds' amount from relatives or banks to show it to Immigration New Zealand and return

the funds after approval of visa. Hence, they come with no funds in hand and overworked to meet their expenses.

These four dimensions, i.e. political, cultural, social and economic can be considered more central to the overall experiences of international students and contributes to their vulnerability by instigating several psychosocial risks such as reduced working rights, ethnic and racial discrimination, difficulty in forming relationships and networks and managing expenses. This review now examines other aspects of psychosocial risk inherent in the security industry and non-standard work more generally.

2.3. Security Industry and Non-Standard Work

Security guards perform various tasks which largely depend upon the context and the nature of the workplace. Essential tasks include observing and monitoring the general public in amusement parks, shopping malls and metro stations (van Steden & Sarre, 2007), guarding private property and construction sites against theft and vandalism (Dupont, 2014), customer care which involves information sharing and maintaining the record of lost and found property, and de-escalating and isolating volatile situations including first aid, firefighting, building evacuation, and calling the ambulance/police (Wakefield, 2003). The large variety of these roles, along with the expectation to stay physically and mentally healthy (Teixeira, Greco, Teixeira, Godinho & Ferreira, 2016) – which is a basic premise of this vigilance profession – exposes workers to both physical and psychological strains. A strain is a construct of both the physical and mental demands of workers in a particular workplace (Rabi et al. 2010). Strain increases with increase in job demands and generally triggers by increased levels of stress, anxiety and nervousness. It associates negatively with work-related outcomes, i.e., job satisfaction and commitment and worker's psychological wellbeing (Rabi et al. 2010).

Despite the security industry's staggering growth, the extant research has only focussed on the consequences of security guards' work such as physical and psychological wellbeing and job satisfaction, whereas organisational, social and environmental aspects of this industry that contribute to various psychosocial risks (Ahmad & Mazlan, 2012; Dupont, 2014; Howie & Campbell, 2017; Sefalafala & Webster, 2013; Saleem, Jamil & Khalid, 2017) were not researched. As noted earlier in section 2.2, workplace psychosocial risks are the characteristics of work schedules and functions and organisational environment that can cause physical and psychological harms to workers (Leka et al., 2008). There is also considerable evidence that this industry is extremely deregulated worldwide with limited resources and inadequate standard operating procedures to guide the professional development, training, compensation and benefits structure of this industry (Bradley, 2016, 2017; Bradley & Sedgwick, 2009; Howie, 2014; Nalla et al., 2017; Van Steden & Sarre, 2007). This lack of regulation vis-à-vis liberalization of markets has plagued this industry with a poor working environment that is inhospitable for personal and professional development and detrimental to health and wellbeing (Bradley, 2016; Howie, 2014). These deficiencies can be attributed to three inter-related trends worldwide which include: (i) employers' desire to reduce labour and administrative costs, (ii) decline in the power of labour unions to protect and regulate the labours, and (iii) the increasing number of immigrants who are willing to sell their labour under atypical employment agreements and unpleasant working conditions (Warhurst, Carre, Findlay & Tilly, 2012, as cited in Sefalafala and Webster, 2013).

Such working arrangements – termed 'non-standard work' – are less regulated, and tend to be more temporary and flexible in comparison to standard employment relations (Standing, 2011) where workers may have a greater say over their hours or days of work to fulfil their personal commitments (Pacheco et al., 2016), and have more training and development opportunities (Bosmans, Hardonk, De Cuyper, & Vanroelen, 2016). It should be acknowledged

that usage of the term ‘non-standard work’ is diverse and varies from one continent to another. For instance, in NZ and Australia, it is referred to as ‘casual employment’ (Burgess, Connell & Rasmussen, 2005) while the terms ‘temporary’ and ‘part-time’ employment are used synonymously in European countries, and ‘contingent employment’ in both the USA and Canada (De Cuyper, De Witte & Isaksson, 2017).

Though there is no universally accepted definition of non-standard work, there seems to be a consensus over the employment features to determine the type of work. De Cuyper et al. (2008) suggest that standard employment features include continuous and regular employment, full-time, excessive statutory benefits, and a designated place to work.

On the contrary, non-standard working arrangements are classified as temporary, part-time, irregular, shift work, seasonal work, job sharing, shorter hours of work, fixed-term contracts, telework, and contractual with restricted employment benefits and limited protection against unfair dismissals (Burgess et al., 2005; Hannif & Lamm, 2005; Tucker, 2002;). Additionally, according to the findings of New Zealand Council of Trade Unions (NZCTU, 2013), non-standard workers in NZ are engaged in insecure employment agreements such as casual, seasonal, part-time, short-term and fixed-term contracts, work irregular hours per week and often paid minimum wages. The report NZCTU (2013) also highlighted that these workers have no entitlement to employment benefits – such as sick leave and annual leave – less access to training and development opportunities, and lack of union protection against unfair dismissals and prior notices of redundancy. In summary, in Australia and NZ, any employment with reduced benefits and protections is defined as casual or non-standard employment (Burgess et al., 2005; Campbell, 2004).

2.3.1. When does non-standard work become precarious?

Precarious employment reflects tactics used by employers to transfer the risks of employment to others, such as employees or sub-contractors and can be defined as employment that is characterized by:

Uncertainty as to the duration of employment, multiple possible employers or a disguised or ambiguous employment relationship, a lack of access to social protection and benefits usually associated with employment, low pay, and substantial legal and practical obstacles to joining a trade union and bargaining collectively. (NZCTU, 2013, p. 12)

Studies have shown the inadequacy of various governments in regulating non-standard work worldwide (De Cuyper et al., 2017; De Cuyper et al., 2008), especially in the security industry (Bradley, 2016; Howie & Campbell, 2017; Nalla et al., 2017) which is the primary interest of this study. Additionally, the lack of research in exploring the job contents, work schedules and functions, environment and cultural aspects of the security industry worldwide to inform the policy measures has given rise to its precariousness- unsafe working environment. Benach et al. (2014) assert that precarious employment is a subset of non-standard work and could exist in any form that is detrimental to an employee's mental wellbeing. To avoid the tendency of merely categorizing any work as precarious, Tucker (2002) and Quinlan (2012) have time and again reinforced that only the employment conditions, work arrangements, and their possible repercussions for employees should be used as criteria to analyse the extent of precariousness.

Tucker's (2002) framework consists of five indicators, i.e. certainty of employment, degree of employment control, level of income, level of benefits and degree of union protection against which precariousness of given employment could be assessed. These indicators are also related to other general indicators of precarious employment such as employment insecurity,

low and variable pay (Quinlan, 2012; Standing, 2011), lack of union protection, gender inequality, and less access to non-wage benefits (Cranford, Vosko and Zukewich, 2003). Tucker's (2002) framework links the fundamental characteristics of work with the relevant indicator of precariousness. For instance, lack of autonomy at work and part-time employment contract should correspond to a degree of employment control and certainty of employment respectively.

While agreeing with these scholars (i.e. Quinlan, 2012; Sargeant & Tucker, 2009; Tucker, 2002) that precarious employment does not always evolve from non-standard work and should be treated differently, the New Zealand Council of Trade Unions (NZCTU, 2013) claimed that their outcomes and indicators are highly related to and inseparable from each other and possess harmful consequences for the physical and psychological health of employees. This is because the characteristics of both non-standard and precarious employment are mostly similar; therefore, their consequences for the workers are also related to each other. In summary, longer working hours is one of the characteristics of non-standard work and in the security industry, the requirement of standing and patrolling during work gives rise to precarity. This characteristic of non-standard work in the security industry also maps onto the workplace psychosocial risk of work schedule (Leka et al., 2008) and has negative repercussions for workers' psychosocial wellbeing.

According to the British Trades Union Congress's Commission on Vulnerable Workers (2007; as cited in NZCTU, 2013), precarious work arrangements have detrimental effects on the wellbeing of vulnerable workers. These workers were classified as agency workers, recent immigrants, young workers and informal workers (NZCTU, 2013). The status of international students working in the SINZ can be considered similar to both groups of vulnerable workers: agency workers and recent immigrants, which predict the degree of their exploitation at the hands of employers in the SINZ. Bosmans et al. (2016) argue that temporary work represents

an exceptional case of non-standard and precarious work due to its sub-contractual nature, which increases the vulnerability of workers and affects their overall wellbeing. In these agreements, workers are hired by a sub-contractor/third party and work for another employer who require these workers to perform the services that fall outside their main business domain (De Cuyper et al., 2008). The downside of such employment agreements is that the worker does not have long term commitment with both the agency and main contractor and are thus treated as outsiders and have less access to standard employment benefits and development opportunities (De Cuyper et al., 2017). This suggests that international students who are also recent immigrants and work as the agency workers undergo precarious conditions, and perhaps endure similar – if not worse – psychological and physical challenges.

2.4. Implications for The Overall Wellbeing of Security Guards

Security guards' engagement with non-standard work in the security industry contains many implications for their social, economic, personal and professional wellbeing. Oginska-Bulik (2005) documented that the majority of the security guards experience more stress in comparison to most other professions. The work of Ahmad and Mazlan (2012) reported the positive association between workplace stress, mood disturbance and psychological disorders. Further, according to Bohle, Quinlan, Kennedy and Williamson (2004) the length of duration an individual remain in such stressful arrangements is the most significant factor in determining the wellbeing of workers. Quinlan (2015) suggests that exposure to extended periods of stress under precarious employment could translate into poor physical and mental health and inhibit a worker's ability to access better career opportunities. In this review, Tucker's (2002) framework of indicators of precariousness is used to examine the potential implications for the wellbeing of security guards.

2.4.1. Income and benefits.

Workers in non-standard work are usually compensated with lower wages (Dixon, 2011; Pacheco et al., 2016), i.e. either at or below the minimum wage which is insufficient to cover the cost of living (Tucker, 2002). Relatedly, the level of benefits reflects limited or non-entitlement of standard employment benefits such as paid annual and sick leave, and access to training and flexible working schedules to these workers (Dixon, 2011; Standing, 2011). This difference was also observed by New Zealand Survey of Working Life (SOWL) in both its iterations, i.e. SOWL (2008) and SOWL (2011, as cited in Pacheco et al. 2016). Such discrepancies in income and benefits were caused by fewer and irregular working hours, lower wage rate, and sub-contractual employment relationships (De Cuyper et al., 2017). In the research pertaining to security industry worldwide, the nature of employment contracts of the security guards was ambiguous in many studies that only refer to “private security guards” (Dupont, 2014; Karacan, 2011) or simply “security guards” (Nalla et al., 2017; Ahmad & Mazlan, 2012), reflecting a significant gap in the extant research concerning the type of employment agreements of security guards. As noted in section 2.3, third-party or subcontracting employment arrangements can create further precarity for workers (De Cuyper et al., 2017), therefore this is an issue that warrants consideration in research.

Sefalafala and Webster (2013) used the International Labour Organization’s (ILO) indicators of decent work, collected the data from various types of registered, unregistered, self-employed and in-house security guards, and then triangulated these with 24 in-depth qualitative interviews focussed on worker experiences with the security industry in South Africa. The authors reported that both registered and unregistered security guards were drawing minimum wages insufficient to cover their cost of living and this had a damaging impact on the overall quality of their family and social life (Sefalafala & Webster, 2013). Furthermore, studies conducted overseas also suggest the differences in wage and benefits between

temporary and permanent employees. For instance, General Accounting Office (2000, as cited in NZCTU, 2013) reported that in the USA, temporary workers were compensated with low wages and were not entitled to paid leave, retirement benefits and employer's sponsored health and life insurance. Indeed, workers on low level of wages and benefits undertake multiple jobs or work longer hours to financially support themselves, hence they are left with limited time for social and family gatherings, exercise, and leisure activities which consequently endanger their physical health and psychological wellbeing (McClintock, Taylor & Warren, 2004; McNamara, Bohle & Quinlan, 2011). In this way, it becomes evident that a variety of workplace psychosocial hazards including 'work schedule', 'career development' and 'home-work interface' (Leka et al., 2008) are interacting to create psychosocial risk for these workers.

2.4.2. Lack of career and development opportunities.

Lack of career and development opportunities in non-standard work is not covered in Tucker's (2002) indicators of precariousness but has implications for the professional wellbeing of employees. Employers tend to perceive that casual/ temporary/ part-time workers were not as committed to the organization nor going to stay for long; therefore employer-funded training is generally provided to permanent and full-time employees (Dixon, 2011; Draca & Green 2004; Pacheco et al., 2016). Moreover, career development opportunities are worse for agency workers or sub-contractors as they are often perceived as outsiders, part-timers and temporary workers (Bosmans et al., 2016; Draca & Green 2004). According to a study by Karacan (2011) which collected data from 106 private security guards in Turkey, more than 30% of workers were dissatisfied with the opportunities for promotion in their respective organizations, and nearly 60% expressed discontentment with pay and benefits packages. Furthermore, the lack of financial and non-financial compensation to casual and temporary workers and lack of social support at the workplace can instigate a sense of hopelessness,

betrayal, loss of identity and often perceived as potent psychosocial stressors (Lewchuk, Clarke & Wolff, 2008; Quinlan, 2015).

In the context of NZ, the NZCTU (2013) advocated that fewer training opportunities for temporary workers are the primary reason for the skilled workers' reduction because workers cannot afford training while being paid at minimal levels, hence they remain at the same level of employment for their whole life. To this end, in order to improve the skill-level of security staff and employment opportunities, the New Zealand Security Association (2018a) has outsourced its training functions to Stratcom Security in April 2018. For now, they will be responsible for imparting government accredited training consisting of National certificate of security, mandatory training for Certificate of Approval (COA) and first aid training to security staff. However, New Zealand Security Association (2018a) do not specify whether this government accredited training will be given to all the security staff, e.g., even temporary/part-time workers, or just restricted to the full-time permanent staff. Interestingly, New Zealand Security Association (2018b) has also enlisted potential career paths for security staff in the security industry ranging from entry level to Managerial level and highlighted the qualification, experience and responsibilities required at each particular level. However, the practice of sourcing only qualified personnel or getting the existing staff qualified up to the required level has rarely been exercised by the security companies (Bradley, 2016). In a recent interview to Defsec Media Limited (2018), Gary Morrison – CEO of New Zealand Security Association– expressed the same concern that currently there are only 12 per cent of security personnel who have a New Zealand Qualification Assessment (NZQA) qualification; however, this percentage is growing as the industry had only 3 per cent New Zealand Qualification Assessment (NZQA) qualified staff three years ago. Morrison further noted that New Zealand Security Association is taking initiatives such as the apprenticeship program for the security technicians which will significantly increase the qualified staff to 25 per cent in the next two years (Defsec Media

Limited, 2018). Again, Morrison did not mention whether this program is focussed on all full-time permanent staff or all workers in the SINZ.

2.4.3. Degree of employment control.

This dimension refers to low level of employee's control regarding the working arrangements and conditions and deciding the number of working days or hours (NZCTU, 2013; Tucker, 2002) which can result in psychological symptoms such as powerlessness, depression, anxiety and dissatisfaction with overall life (Lewchuk et al., 2008; Bohle et al., 2004; Benach et al. 2014). Shift work is the most commonly reported disruptive feature of non-standard employment and those performing such work have often cited low-level of control in planning their working schedules (Nea et al., 2018). Begani et al. (2013) proposed that shift work, especially night shifts, disrupts the natural sleeping pattern or normal circadian rhythm, leading to sleep disturbances, compromised mental and physical health, and stomach disorders. The authors (Begani et al., 2013) studied the relationship between shift work and security guards' wellbeing and discovered that such working patterns are also associated with eating disorders, psychological stress, disturbed social activities, sleep disturbances and overall dissatisfaction with employment.

Additionally, the most detrimental health effects of shift work were found to be cardiovascular diseases (Knutsson & Boggild, 2010) and increased risk of occupational injuries (Yanar et al., 2018). With regard to international students, Nyland et al. (2009) discovered that these workers were subject to high-work related injuries and tended to be susceptible to substance abuse since they do not get enough time to sleep and exercise due to disturbed routines.

The degree of employee control in non-standard work has also been associated with the uneven work-life balance of employees that could translate into perturbed social life and

strained family relations (McNamara et al., 2011). As noted in section 2.4.1, the situation is more adverse for employees working asocial night shifts and during weekends as they are more likely to miss family events, social gatherings and leisure activities (De Cuyper et al., 2008). Working hours and timings are very important in determining the work-life balance and the subsequent impact on the employee's psychological health and wellbeing (NZCTU, 2013). Indeed, it demonstrated that lack of 'control' in managing the 'work schedule' and 'home-work interface' (Leka et al., 2008) are causing detrimental effects to workers' psychosocial wellbeing.

2.4.4. Certainty of employment and degree of protection.

The certainty of ongoing employment in relation to non-standard work refers to the insecurity of employment which is often temporary or part-time, provides irregular earnings, and can be terminated at any time without prior notice by the employers (Tucker, 2002). Likewise, the degree of protection under such arrangements reflects an absence of regulatory and union protection in case of unfair dismissals, harassment, discrimination and inappropriate working conditions. Several studies have determined that employees in insecure employment, such as casual or temporary workers, are more likely to develop psychological problems, suffer physical injuries (Benach et al., 2014; De Cuyper et al., 2008), occupational disease and musculoskeletal disorders (Ferrie, Shipley, Stansfeld and Marmot, 2002). Ferrie et al. (2002) further advanced that temporary workers are more vulnerable to experience psychosocial risks as they work in poor working conditions, which the authors further theorized as the more inadequate the quality and working conditions of employment, the more destitute the health and wellbeing of an employee. This is because temporary workers work in less stable working conditions, receive less OHS training, and are often provided with inadequate PPE (Benach et al. 2014; Yanar et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2014;).

In private security arrangements, OHS risks are varied in nature and largely depend on the nature of the working site. For instance, the primary responsibility of security personnel positioned in department stores is to be aware of theft (Dupont, 2014), where they can be exposed to violent incidents including physical assault, harassment, intimidation, and manslaughter (Kennedy, 2008). Brodeur (2010) asserted that security guards sometimes engage in fire-fighting activities, manage hazardous material, and guard construction sites, which may prove life-threatening for them. Moreover, Nalla et al. (2017) indicated that almost one-quarter of security guards were unaware of the hazards at work and suffer from the fear of violence. These findings are similar to the findings of New Zealand's Independent Taskforce on Workplace Health and Safety (2013) which identified that casual, temporary and seasonal workers are more likely to suffer a physical injury, conceal it from the employers, and be more reluctant to voice a concern over poor working conditions fearing the negative outcome of being redundant.

Benach et al. (2014) discovered that lack of protection among temporary workers leads to the experiences similar to those who are unemployed, as they feel insecurity, fear discontinuity of employment and inability to produce a stable income. This inability to produce sufficient income and lack of protection prevents them from affording better accommodation, quality food, and access to better health care (Lewchuk et al., 2008; McNamara et al., 2011). Additionally, these individuals together with their families may also suffer from malnutrition due to their inability to afford the right quantity and quality of the food which may eventually force one of the family members to seek work to share the financial burden (Nalla et al., 2017). Summarising it, the psychosocial hazards of 'job insecurity', 'poor pay', 'poor environmental conditions', 'inadequate equipment availability' and 'lack of social support' (Leka et al., 2008) interact with each other and cause psychosocial risks to the wellbeing of the workers.

The psychosocial risks in the security industry, as discussed above, comprised of uncertainty related to job and work schedules, lack of career development opportunities, income and benefits, lack of protection, inadequate OHS practices, harassment and intimidation. However, international students working as security guards were found untrained and often have inadequate resources to match the excessive demands of their psychosocial environment, which can create negative repercussions for their psychosocial wellbeing.

2.5. Summary of Literature and Overview of Research Gaps

A critical review of the extant literature determined only few studies discussing the regulatory and statutory environment of the security industry in the NZ context (Bradley, 2016, 2017), and the majority of global studies tend to focus predominantly on the organizational and environmental factors influencing job satisfaction of security guards (Nalla et al., 2017), key dimensions of security industry (Dupont, 2014), growth of security industry worldwide (Van Steden & Sarre, 2007), work-related violence (Leino, 2013), wellbeing (Howie, 2014), workability (Rodrigues et al., 2016), mental health (Ahmad & Mazlan, 2012) and limitations of security guards (Safalafala & Webster, 2013). To date, none of the existing research examines international student experiences of working in the security industry, particularly in the NZ context. can be studied in relation to those of international students.

Although existing studies of international students working in other service sector jobs – such as the food industry (Australia; Campbell et al., 2016), retail cleaning industry (Australia; United Voice, 2013), university, hospitality and professional industry (Australia; Nyland et al. 2009), hospitality, agriculture and service industry (New Zealand; Anderson et al., 2012) and agriculture, hospitality, service, construction industry (New Zealand; Yuan et al., 2014) – inform our understanding of this cohort's work experiences, factors unique to the security industry warrant further investigation of this issue. These factors are related to unique

work and environment of the SINZ and comprised of security training, working alone, PPE, longer hours standing jobs, volatile situations, physical abuse, harassment, safety and security of a working site and public and social support. Therefore, the present research is aimed at addressing this crucial gap with the primary objective of understanding the experiences of international students with the SINZ. The following overall research question guided this research:

What are the experiences of international students engaged in non-standard work arrangements in the security industry of New Zealand and the implications for their wellbeing?

Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1. Introduction to Methodology

The purpose of this study was to qualitatively examine the experiences of international students engaged in non-standard work within the SINZ, along with the implications for their wellbeing. As noted in the literature review chapter, current research on the overall work arrangements, environment and conditions of SINZ in relation to its influence on the experiences of international students is sparse, and due to the growth in this industry (NZSA, 2018), this is an issue that warrants urgent research consideration. Thus, the present research was designed to explore the following research question: What are the experiences of international students engaged in non-standard work arrangements in the security industry of New Zealand and the implications for their wellbeing? I employed a qualitative, interview-based research design as this aligned with my worldview and allowed me to address my research question while encouraging me to explore the personal and social circumstances of participants. This chapter will first provide a background to the research paradigm (section 3.2) and research design while outlining the methods used for data collection (3.3) and analytical techniques applied (3.4). A brief consideration on ethical issues is also noted (3.5).

3.2. Research Paradigm

I conducted this study under the research paradigm of ‘social constructivism’ which seeks to understand the experiences of people in their natural setting through a qualitative research design (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, Neuman, 2013). Patel (2012) maintains that social reality cannot be understood entirely in a setting where the researcher is detached from the subjects because every reality was value-laden, subjective, and constructed through meaningful interaction between both researcher and subjects. In this study, the assumed social reality consisted of participants’ detailed description of their experiences

with the SINZ and the interpretation of participant experiences and its implications for their psychosocial wellbeing. This social reality was constructed through active engagement between the researcher and the participants to grasp, understand and interpret the meanings of the participants lived experiences.

Being an international student working in the SINZ, I shared a similar position with the participants, so we engaged in a subjective discussion to construct a reality. Further, Galbin (2014) posits that every human being was nurtured under some environment encompassing specific culture, traditions and historical background, and making sense of individuals' experiences from outside of that environment could lead to a distorted reality. In this regard, an interesting element of my study was that all the recruited participants originated from South-East Asia and were full-time international students and part-time workers in NZ; sharing a similar background with me, so I was able to examine how this specific class of migrant workers experienced the working context of the host country. Creswell and Creswell (2017) highlight the significance of 'reflexivity'- the researcher's acknowledgement of how his or her personal characteristics and background has shaped an interaction with the participants. Due to my 'insider' position (Creswell & Creswell, 2017) as an international student working in the SINZ, the concept of 'reflexivity' was pivotal in the conduct of the study as well as the analysis and interpretation of findings, and discussions around this are interwoven throughout this chapter, where relevant. I used my current position only to approach and recruit the participants in the study, whereas an attempt to influence the findings consistent with my expectations was at large avoided.

An interpretivist approach underpinned this study as I interpreted participant perspectives as the researcher, and meaning was attributed to participant experiences through the emergence of analytical themes. According to this approach, the interpretation of individuals' experiences can never be free of assumptions and presuppositions (Bryman &

Bryman, 2015), and is particularly relevant given my own similar background to the participants as well as my ‘insider’ position (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). In my interpretivist analysis, I played an active role by getting closer to the participants’ lived experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2017) in order to understand how particular events and circumstances influenced their sense of understanding these experiences. In the process of interpretation, my unique ‘insider’ position allowed me to understand as well as interpret the perspectives of the research participants within the context of SINZ. This interactive process involving sensemaking and interpretation of participants’ experiences is called “hermeneutics” (Neuman, 2013). Bryman and Bell (2015) refer to this interactive process as “a double interpretation” where the researcher is interpreting the participants’ interpretation of their experiences.

I also attempted to establish whether the shared experiences and interpretations were consistent with the research literature and considered how these interpretations answered the main research focus of this study, noting new ideas where relevant. For instance, participants’ extended engagement with their studies due to recent restrictions of NZQA (as detailed in the section 4.3.3) was not encompassed in the literature review, and these ideas only surfaced when I explored participants’ personal circumstances during the interviews.

3.3. Research Design

In qualitative research, the researcher explores, understands, and develops personal meaning to the experiences of people regarding specific situations and constructs a range of ideas and categories under which these experiences can be interpreted and explained (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). In this study, I focussed on a unique type of worker: international students working as security guards in NZ, and I have sought to interpret and explain their experiences through gathering data via a qualitative semi-structured interview design.

3.3.1. Semi-structured interviews.

An open-ended semi-structured interview method was employed because a thorough investigation of the social or personal phenomenon was needed to understand in detail the experiences of the participants with a non-standard work in the SINZ. This is a relatively flexible approach to data collection that allowed me to probe unanticipated and relevant issues further as they emerged during the interview process, while using a list of pre-determined topics and less-structured open-ended questions (Ryan, Coughlan and Cronin, 2009). A qualitative interview design was consistent with my research paradigm of social constructivism, and chosen over other methods such as focus groups since conducting focus groups was impracticable in this context as work and study schedules of all the participants were different from each other. Further, focus groups do not provide as much anonymity for participants—particularly given the interview explored potential exploitative and illegal practices (Coffelt, 2017)—thus, interview design was best suited to address the nature of the topic. The wording of the questions was also flexible to offer more clarification to the participants, so they could express their viewpoints and opinions in detail (Turner, 2010) while remaining relatively consistent (Bryman & Bell, 2015). This flexibility was also helpful as English was not the first language of all the recruited participants.

The existing literature guided the development of the interview schedule (see Appendix A) in three areas: (1) experiences and vulnerability of international students in relation to their engagements with studies and non-standard work (2) non-standard work arrangements in the private security industry and (3) psychosocial wellbeing implications for the workers involved in non-standard work. These three areas formed the major part of the interview schedule and discussed in detail with every participant. The interview schedule was pilot tested with two participants who shared similar characteristics with the final participants, but did not directly meet the criteria for participation.

3.3.2. Participants and sampling strategy.

International Students currently working in the SINZ, Auckland constituted the population of this study. Due to time and financial constraints, this study focussed on a subset of workers within the broader Auckland region, where I was situated. In the recruitment phase of the participants, the current position of the researcher as a part-time security guard played a pivotal role in identifying a pool of participants for purposive sampling and subsequently inviting them to participate in the study (Neuman, 2013). I am an international student and have had been working as a part-time security guard through a subcontractor in Auckland, NZ for one and a half year. I have been positioned at one of the largest sites in Auckland, which is referred to as ‘good site’ in the context of this study (see Findings, section 4.2.3). This position of mine had intrigued my interest in the research topic and has also helped me in locating as well as recruiting potential participants in the study.

I told the people I knew within the SINZ about my study and provided 2-3 printed copies of my information sheet (see Appendix B) to my acquaintances in this industry. I asked these people to consider participating in the study themselves and requested that they passed on the information sheet to their acquaintances who might fit the selection criteria (outlined in Table 1). I waited for people for six weeks to contact me after reading the information sheet to express an interest in participation. While a total of 12 respondents expressed their interest, seven fulfilled the inclusion criteria and were therefore selected to participate in the study. I asked for their email addresses to send the pre-participation screening tool (see Appendix C) and consent form (see Appendix D) to them. Prior to the interviews, signed consent forms were collected from the participants. Based on the scope and nature of the research questions, this relatively smaller sample size was deemed appropriate for the qualitative research design and allowed me to place an in-depth emphasis on the lived experiences of the participants (Creswell

& Creswell, 2017) in seeking information about their engagements with both the study and part-time work and its implications for their psychosocial wellbeing.

3.3.2.1. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria.

The inclusion and exclusion criteria that guided the recruitment of participants in this study are shown in table 1.

Table 1: Inclusion/ Exclusion Criteria

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
1) International students with Visa restrictions of studying full-time and working part-time up to 20-hours per week during semester and full-time during semester/ summer breaks. Master by Research and PhD International students entitled to work full-time were also included provided their employment contract fulfilled the criteria of non-standard work defined below.	Domestic student/ International students enrolled in part-time study program and entitled to work full-time
2) Working as a security guard in the Security Industry of Auckland, New Zealand.	Working in other industry outside security or the same industry outside Auckland
3) Employed under a non-standard work arrangement classified as temporary, part-time, irregular, shift work, seasonal work, shorter/longer hours of work, fixed term contracts, and contractual with restricted employment benefits and limited protection in unfavourable circumstances.	Employed under a traditional work arrangement defined as the continuous and regular employment, full-time 40 hours/per week, excessive statutory benefits, and designated place to work.
4) Engaged with the SINZ for at least three months	Engaged with the SINZ for less than three months

A summary profile of the participants is shown in table 2. As evident, the sample was predominantly male ($n=6$), and Indian ($n=6$). On average, participants had 12 months of experience working in the security industry in NZ.

3.3.3. Data collection.

Before conducting interviews, I asked the participants via text message to confirm location, date and time suitable for them for an interview and sent a formal invitation through email. Six interviews were conducted in-person, and one was conducted electronically via Skype to cater to participant's availability (Oltmann, 2016)

As a researcher, I gave special attention to the processes of interaction and created a setting where the participants could engage comfortably to discuss their experiences, that was free from distractions as suggested by Bryman and Bell (2015). I searched for private places free of distractions for the conduct of interviews, forwarded the interview schedule and information sheet to participants before the interview day and spared a few minutes for explaining the study purpose once again before starting the interviews. Sharing a similar cultural outlook with all the research participants helped me in building a rapport immediately; thus, I was able to create an interview environment where they engaged comfortably.

Table 2. Summary Profile of the Participants

Participant number	Contractor (Employer) type	Gender	Nationality	Study Level (NZQA)	Work Type	Duration of experience within SINZ
P1	Subcontractor	Male	Indian	Level 7	Static Guard	15 Months
P2	Subcontractor	Male	Indian	Level 8	Static/ Patrolling Guard	12 Months
P3	Subcontractor	Male	Indian	Level 8	Static Guard	13 Months
P4	Subcontractor	Male	Indian	Level 7	Static Guard	8 Months
P5	Subcontractor	Male	Indian	Level 8	Static Guard	19 Months
P6	Main-contractor	Female	Indian	Level 6	Static Guard	5 Months
P7	Subcontractor	Male	Pakistani	Level 9	Static Guard	12 Months

In qualitative interviews, recording an interaction between the researcher and participants through various recording techniques such as audiotape and note-taking are essential to ensure accurate data collection and use the data for later analysis phase (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). The necessity for audio recording was detailed in the information sheet and the participants were asked to provide their consent prior to recording. Handwritten notes also aided the recording process in the event of tape recorder failure and data loss (Neuman, 2013).

On average interviews lasted between 60-90 minutes, with the exception of participant P7 which lasted 97 minutes. The researcher's insider status helped approach the participants, so they generously spared 2-3 hours, including travelling time for this study or invited me over to their houses. However, I was mindful of this relationship and avoided using this to influence the interview process by adhering strictly to the formal procedures established for the interview process (Marlowe, 2000). For instance, use of information sheet, interview schedule, screening checklist and consent form shaped a formal impression, and reassured participants that their anonymity would be protected, allowing them to discuss their experiences in detail with confidence. Indeed, their behaviours changed and became more formal when the audio tape was turned on.

3.4. Data Analysis

In-depth interviews with the participants produced the qualitative data that was analysed through a step-by-step guide of conducting 'thematic analysis' developed by Braun and Clarke (2006). Thematic analysis is widely used in qualitative researches in identifying, analysing and reporting unique meanings within the qualitative data set, generally represented as 'themes'. Thematic analysis generally focussed on 'internal-homogeneity' meaning coherence and consistency within the same theme and 'external heterogeneity' representing

clear distinctions among different themes which were achieved after successfully undertaking the steps listed below. As suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006), the thematic analysis offers a vast range of flexibility to researchers to apply it into several qualitative approaches, such as my own constructionist approach. In this study, thematic analysis was used to analyse the shared personal and social lived experiences of the participants as well as to interpret their perspectives, in relation to my research question.

3.4.1. Process of thematic analysis.

In Step 1, familiarising yourself with the (qualitative) data, I actively engaged with the participants during the interview phase. I listened to their interview recordings and transcribed verbatim to gain familiarity with all aspects of the data, as suggested by (Braun & Clarke, 2006). I checked all transcripts against the interview recordings for accuracy and wrote summary comments in an analytic memo for each interview, which aided in interpreting the study findings. In step 2, generating initial codes, I read the first two interview transcripts twice and coded the segments of data embodying a specific meaning, compared the codes of two interviews, refined the codes, and developed a preliminary list of codes that guided the process of coding the remaining interviews consistently. For instance, a data segment describing inaccessibility to sick leave or annual leave or alternative days off was coded as 'leave and holidays' across the entire data set. Wherever a different idea emerged, it was added as a new code in the codebook.

In step 3, searching for themes, data extracts demonstrating a similar code/concept were copied and collated together in a separate Microsoft Excel file to search for potential sub-themes or themes. I also analysed relationships between distinct themes and sub-themes, as well as within each main overarching theme. For instance, data extracts coded as 'working alone' collated to form a sub-sub-theme, 'working alone at vulnerable sites', fit with the sub-

theme of 'good sites, vulnerable sites and volatile situations' and, was later integrated into the main overarching theme of 'threats to psychosocial wellbeing'. This step resulted in the formation of five initial themes.

Step 4 'reviewing and refining themes' focussed on 'internal homogeneity' within the same theme and external heterogeneity between different themes to ensure that a single theme was not explaining two entirely distinct concepts, as well as two different themes, were not exhibiting a similar concept. For instance, I observed lack of external heterogeneity among three main themes as they were explaining a similar concept of 'accessibility', hence collated this into a newly created theme 'accessibility issues in the SINZ' (discussed in section 4.1) highlighting what was in/accessible to security guards. In this way, data extracts also collated to form concise, consistent and coherent sub-themes reflecting the essence of their respective themes. This re-orientation and re-organisation of sub-themes and themes into one broader concept or other produced three main overarching themes, as shown in figure 1.

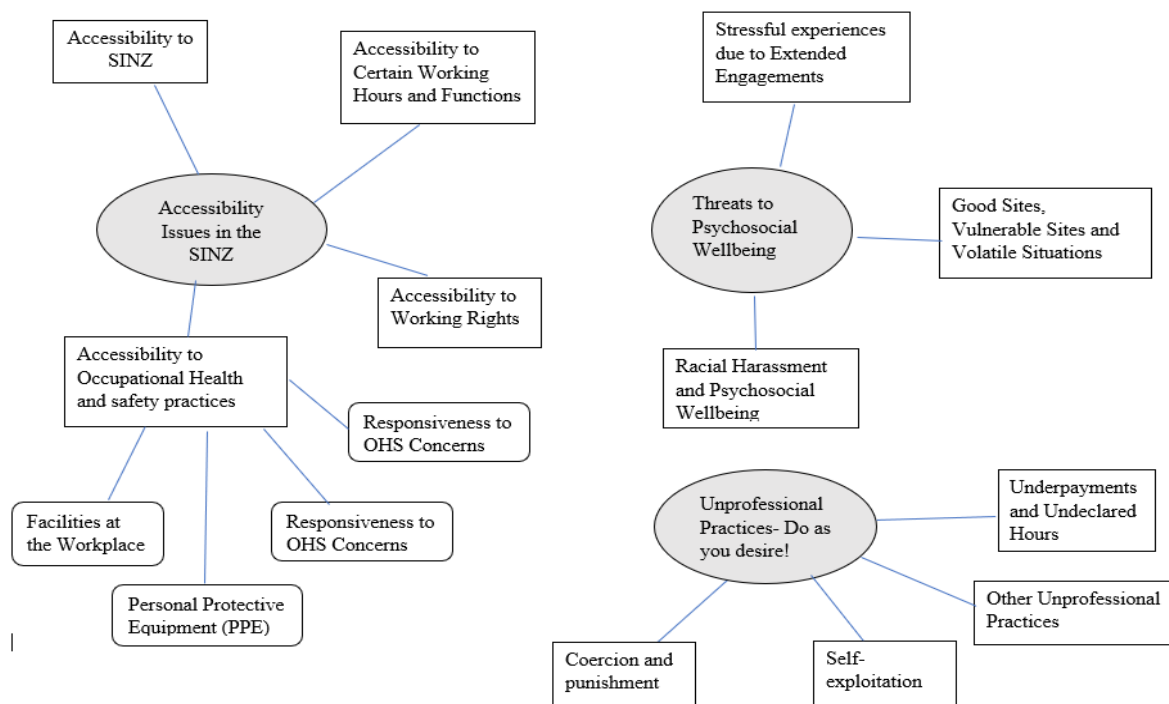


Figure 1. Final Thematic Framework

In step 5, *defining and naming themes*, I defined each main overarching theme in a couple of sentences and assigned them a name that encapsulated the essence of their underlying concept. The final thematic framework of the study consisting of the main overarching themes with definition and sub-themes is shown in table 3 and further discussed in Chapter 4.

Table 3. Themes and Sub-themes

Themes	Sub-themes	Definition of Theme
Accessibility issues in the SINZ	Accessibility to security industry	Setting where the security guard's accessibility or inaccessibility to adequate provisions in the SINZ can potentially induce uncertainty in their lives and increase their incapacity to manage demanding situations. Some of these provisions in the SINZ include job opportunities, range of shifts, regular work schedules, income, leave and holidays, PPE and self-defence training.
	Accessibility to Health and safety practices	
	Accessibility to Certain working and functions	
	Accessibility to working rights	
Threats to Psychosocial wellbeing of security guards	Good sites, Vulnerable sites and Volatile Situations	Overall health and safety environment of the SINZ as well as the personal circumstances of individuals that potentially increase their vulnerability in a given setting and cause threats to their psychosocial wellbeing. In the SINZ, these threats can take a form of physical abuse, verbal abuse and longer and unsociable working hours particularly evolving due to ineffective occupational health and safety practices and individual's engagements. These practices and the evolving threats have the psychosocial effects of depression, anxiety, nervousness, fatigue, sleeping disorder and body aches.
	Racial Harassment and Psychosocial wellbeing	
	Stressful experiences due to Extended engagements	
Unprofessional Practices- Do as you desire!	Underpayments and Undeclared hours	Unprofessional and unethical practices of both subcontractors and international students within the environment of the SINZ. It underpins the tendency of subcontractors to exploit the international students which includes underpayments for extra hours and zero hours punishments. The tendency of international student to accept less than fair working conditions for financial gains exhibit their self-exploitative nature and include greediness to overwork and saving and remitting funds.
	Coercing and punishing the students	
	Self-exploitation	
	Careless attitudes	

3.5. Ethical Considerations

This research has been reviewed and approved by Massey University's Human Ethics Review committee under the Northern Ethics Application number 18/69 (See Appendix F for letter of approval). The research adhered to the conduct of ethical research as prescribed by the Massey University Human Ethics Code (MUHEC) and the *Te Ara Tika* Guidelines considered the following ethical issues:

3.5.1. Manaakitanga.

The responsibility to treat the research participants with respect and protect their privacy and, be aware of the issues of cultural sensitivity. This ethical concern was addressed in the following manner:

- a) All the participants were provided with an information sheet to explain their rights, purpose of the study, and to provide reassurance in relation to the anonymity of their data. An alpha-numeric numbering system was used for both the participants and employers (the main contractor, sub-contractor and client) to ensure their anonymity and findings were written in general terms so as not to compromise their identities.
- b) I was mindful and sensitive that discussing potentially precarious working arrangements and conditions, as well as challenges associated with being an international student, could potentially be distressing for some participants. Although this did not occur during the interviews, steps were in place to ensure that participants' comfort and protection from distress or harm were prioritised.
- c) All potential participants were also given the contact details for the Human Rights Commission and Lifeline (a free community support helpline) through the

participant information sheet, for further support and guidance with mental health and wellbeing, as well as employment-related concerns.

- d) The interview process was conducted outside the respondents' working site after work hours to reduce any potential issues of conflict of interest and to protect participants' anonymity further.

3.5.2. Mana Tangata.

Ensures the autonomy of research participants by explaining their rights and obtaining informed consent to demonstrate respect for them. In this study, it has been addressed as follow:

- a) Participation was voluntary and based on informed consent, and no participant was coerced in any way or offered incentives to participate or disclose any information they were not comfortable sharing with the interviewer.
- b) All the participants were provided with an opportunity to withdraw their data (within a period of up to two weeks from the date of the interview), review their transcripts and return these (within two weeks from the date it was sent to them). Only three participants checked for transcript review but did not make any change. No one asked for the withdrawal of their data during the study.
- c) All the participants were asked for their consent before audio recording the interview
- d) All the participants were given the right to decline to answer any question(s) and ask any questions about the study at any point prior to or during the interview

3.5.3. Benefits-sharing.

The benefits of the research project should be equitably distributed among the researchers and participants and their communities. This research had the following benefits for all stakeholders:

- a) **Benefits to the researcher:** in-depth knowledge of the areas of interest, an award of academic qualification, personal and professional advancement and development of research skills
- b) **Benefits to the participants:** The research provided a platform for their voices and experiences to be shared and to make a significant contribution to theory and practice, particularly given the vulnerability of international students and the psychosocial risks experienced because of their involvement with non-standard working arrangements. I also acknowledged the research contribution by participants in the Acknowledgements section of this thesis.
- c) **Benefits to the wider community:** The research addressed crucial gaps identified in the literature review, i.e. sparse studies discussing experiences of international students with the security industry. The results will be informative for employers and regulators of the security industry to formulate policies that address employee wellbeing issues within the workplace.

Chapter Four: Findings and Discussion

4.1. Overview of findings

This chapter discusses the findings of three main overarching themes identified in relation to the research question: experiences of international students engaged in non-standard work arrangements in the security industry of New Zealand. Theme 1 (section 4.2) highlights ‘accessibility issues’ exemplified as workers’ inaccessibility to adequate provisions such as PPE, kitchen and toilet facilities, sufficient training, adequate income and benefits, regular working hours, and knowledge about employment rights; all of which had negative consequences for their wellbeing. Theme 2 (section 4.3) ‘threats to psychosocial wellbeing’ presents a picture of the vulnerability of international student security guards in the industry by illuminating their exposure to physical and psychosocial harm, such as physical abuse and racial harassment, during their work. Additional stressors due to this group’s extended engagement with both studies and part-time work are also explored. In theme 3 (section 4.4), the ‘unprofessional practices’ of both international students and employers (particularly subcontractors) in relation to NZ employment law were outlined. Here, sub-themes of exploitation and self-exploitation were further investigated.

4.2. Theme 1: Accessibility Issues in the SINZ

In the context of this study, accessibility refers to participants’ accessibility or inaccessibility to adequate provisions that had either positive or negative repercussions for their psychosocial wellbeing. In particular, access to four key elements are explored as sub-themes. First, participants’ ability to access employment within the SINZ, particularly with subcontractors, is discussed. Second, accessibility issues around fixed and certain working hours and functions are outlined. Third, in/accessibility to adequate OHS practices are discussed in relation to shaping the nature of the site (i.e. ‘good site’ or ‘vulnerable site’) as

well as participants' experiences. Fourth, participants' in/accessibility to minimum working rights and protections are identified.

4.2.1. Sub-theme (1a): Accessibility to SINZ.

This sub-theme shed light on the several specific reasons given by the participants for preferring part-time work within the SINZ.

4.2.1.1. *Ease of Start.*

Participants explained that starting a career in the SINZ was "relatively easier" (P1) for them as compared to other industries such as manufacturing, retail, and hospitality (P3). Participants received the temporary licence "within two weeks from the date of application" (P5), "joined security company the same day" (P1) and started getting shifts in the next 24 hours (P7). This ease of start can be ascribed to plentiful job opportunities in the SINZ due to shortage of human resources (Careers NZ, 2019) and reiterated by P2: "...job opportunities are very high, so that's why it is easy for the international students to start their career in security" (P2). Webster, Sefalafala, Budlender, Joynt, Williams and Orkin (2011) reported a similar finding of starting a career as a security guard in Gauteng, South Africa, which was easier due to greater job opportunities available in the security industry.

First, ease of starting a career as a security guard in the SINZ can be attributed to the lack of regulatory requirements to obtain a security licence or complete mandatory training courses. All participants reported they obtained a temporary Certificate of Approval (COA, valid for six months and not including training) within two weeks, in accordance with protocol outlined by the Ministry of Justice NZ (2019b). Three participants also described completing a one-day training program to obtain a permanent COA. All participants reported they paid additional money to secure the assistance of trainers in completing the assessments (P1) under the service named as Fast Track Course; fearing they might fail if they did the course by

themselves, the participants seized the opportunity (P7). This autonomy of the security training centres in Auckland for conducting both training programs and training assessments without the supervision of an external examiner might raise some issues about their reliability and credibility, as indicated by Klopfer and van Amstel (2016) in the Private Security Industry of Serbia.

This ease of obtaining security licences within the SINZ had been found increasing the vulnerability of the participants due to their incapacity to confront and de-escalate the threatening situations. Participants referred to the temporary COA as “wastage of money” (P2), “useless” (P4) and an “ineffective” (P6) approach of the PSPLA. Further, participants reported that during their earlier days on the job – when a new employee needed training the most – international students were deployed, without basic security training, in a field that was plagued with racial harassment, physical abuse and other related violent incidents. Participant P5 elaborates: “I was on the temporary COA and I have not even been inducted or anything or I never attended any training program and gun were in front me, what I’m gonna do?” This coincides with the findings of Ruddell, Thomas and Patten (2011) and Rees and Smith (2008) regarding the vulnerability of security guards to violence due to lack of provision of effective training programs.

Likewise, all participants dubbed the permanent COA training programs as “partially effective” (P3), “not so helpful in some situations (P6)” and “couldn’t include all the scenarios that a security guard may come across in real life (P5)”. According to participants, the security environment was very diverse and infinite (P2) and covering all the security-related situations in a one-day training program was not feasible (P4). These sentiments are indicative of the need for balanced, concise and comprehensive training programs focusing on critical components within the SINZ that can be covered over an appropriate time span. The current

ease of entry to work has resulted in working conditions detrimental to the physical wellbeing of the security guards.

4.2.1.2. Flexibility and Range of shifts.

Access to “flexible work schedules” (P4) and “greater range of shifts” (P3) was also a primary reason for joining the security industry, and particularly seeking employment via subcontractors (as opposed to main contractors). As participant P4 explains: “In the [SINZ], you can also go for the night shifts, but you cannot get many night shifts in the restaurants and supermarkets” (P4). Subcontractors offered participants the flexibility to attend their classes during the daytime or weekdays, with P7 reporting that subcontractors had agreements with many main-contractors since employees of latter did not prefer to work night/weekend shifts. Further, participants reported they had to attend college maximum days per week under recent restrictions and regulations implemented by New Zealand Qualification Assessment (NZQA) (O’Callaghan, 2017); therefore, they preferred to work with subcontractors to get desirable shifts, i.e. night/ weekend shifts. Likewise, the convenience of getting “more hours” was also a decisive factor for preferring employment with subcontractors (P1; P4; P5; an idea explored further in section 4.4.3).

In this regard, participants reported they had greater accessibility to part-time employment with subcontractors, as compared to main-contractors, whereas only P1 acknowledged he deliberately joined subcontractors as they offer more working hours (more than the legal limit of 20-hours for international students). P1 explained: “subcontractors are the ones who are the saviours I can say, a kind of saviour word would be good for them (P1)”, and P2 quantified that: “...90 per cent of the students working in the SINZ is employed through subcontractors”. Interestingly, leading companies also tend to favour the concept of subcontracting to avoid complications of visa procedures and potential risks in managing the

temporary workforce of international students (Quinlan, 2015; Yuan et al., 2014). However, as the literature indicates, contract workers tend to experience more psychosocial risks because of subcontractors' lack of adherence to employment laws and regulations (Bi et al., 2016; Laxon, 2016).

Lastly, the study observed discriminatory practices of main-contractors for assigning night shifts or weekend shifts mostly to the security guards of subcontractors because their guards did not prefer to work in those shifts due to unknown reasons as reported by P3 and P5. Bi et al. (2016) verified this finding and reported both locals and permanent workers are reluctant to work in non-standard and unsociable working hours and correspondingly, Wilson (2014) stated that leading companies discriminate temporary workers in this regard and assign them lesser desirable shifts, i.e. weekend shifts and night shifts. The participants generally favoured this work arrangement as they preferred to work night or weekend shifts due to increased study commitments.

4.2.1.3. Personal Connections.

Lastly, participants' connections (friends and family) and members of their ethnic community already working in SINZ assisted them in gaining employment (P2; P3) further contributing to the accessibility of employment within the industry. Hence the participants did not try elsewhere as they rarely knew anyone in other industries (P7). To this end, Paltridge et al. (2012) reported that limited formal/ professional networks of international students in the host country inhibit them to access safe and lucrative employments. Hence, force them to turn to informal networks to access employments that are unsafe and open to exploitation (Paltridge et al., 2012).

This finding suggests that international students' preference to work in the security is therefore driven by ease of start or range of shifts or personal connections or a combination of

these factors. In this way, the SINZ is very accessible but only through subcontractors and for certain kinds of employment (i.e.; part-time or casual work). In general, the ease of gaining work as a security guard stood out as a significant reason for participants in entering the SINZ while accessibility to flexible schedules, range of shifts and more hours influenced their decision to seek employment through subcontractors, specifically. The employment type and contract have important implications for the working conditions (DeCuyper et al., 2017; Quinlan, 2015), as described later in sub-theme 4.2.4.

4.2.2. Sub-theme (1b): Accessibility to certain working hours and functions.

Responses were mixed when discussing access to regular and certain working hours. Participant P6 reported that generally there was no concept of fixed rosters or regular working hours with the subcontractors, with another participant exclaiming: “No! No! No! No! That’s the biggest problem ever in the subcontractors... you do not know what’s your roster gonna be tomorrow” (P5). This finding is supported by McGregor’s (2012) work on migrant caretakers, outlining how these workers are often hired by peripheral labour markets characterised by short-term contracts and irregular working schedules changing from week to week, compared with local workers. Participants in this study stated that the prevailing uncertainty pertaining to working hours often translated into “on-call shifts” (P1) and “eleventh-hour shifts” (P3) in the SINZ – a situation where employees were required to attend to shifts during any time of day or night usually with one- or two-hours” notice before the starting time (P5). Participant P3 continued:

Sometimes I have got those urgent shifts when I have to start as soon as possible. It used to be like once or twice a week. Also, it could be any site, anywhere, anytime and irrespective of the night shift or day shift. (P3)

As per the findings of NZCTU (2013), First Union part-time workers also reported not getting fixed roster in advance and working in the on-call shifts. While Employment New Zealand (2019b) requires employers to explicitly state ‘the number of hours’, ‘the start and finish time’ or ‘the days of work’ in employment agreements, participant P3 reported subcontractors did not have a regular site of their own and supplied main-contractors with guards on an as-needed basis, which made it difficult for the subcontractors to design a fixed roster and consequently reduce the occurrence of on-call shifts. Only three participants working at good sites reported working certain hours and fixed responsibilities whereas the remaining participants cited working under unpredictable situations and irregular hours changing from site to site. This is because the security companies receive good business from good sites, so they follow the standard procedures of designing a roster one week in advance consisting of only the trained and inducted guards (P3).

Participants also found themselves working uncertain and changeable job functions at different sites and assuming multiple roles. This uncertainty and role ambiguity made it difficult for participants in this study to learn job requirements of all the sites because every site had different rules and regulations, passcodes and areas descriptions. Lang, Thomas, Bliese and Adler (2007) indicate that workers performing ambiguous roles regularly become stressed and confused over conflicting expectations and unable to develop better working relationships with the teams.

4.2.3. Sub-theme (1c): Accessibility to occupational health and safety practices.

As mentioned earlier, only a few participants in this study reported having regular hours every week. These participants were mainly from what is termed as “good sites” in this study, which refers to the sites satisfying the health and safety requirements, so considered as safe and secure for workers. In contrast, sites lacking effective OHS practices are considered unsafe

and hazardous for the security guards and will be hereafter referred to as “vulnerable sites”. Thus, based on the analysis of participant interviews, the difference between the characteristics of both good sites and vulnerable sites is demonstrated in table 4.

The participants’ experiences while working at vulnerable sites were more revealing to damaging threats to their psychosocial wellbeing. Three participants who possessed inadequate training and equipment were positioned outside these vulnerable sites, knowing the fact they were surrounded by “intoxicated drug peddlers” (P1) and tasked with stopping them from entering the premises. P4 said they needed a lot of will-power to work at such sites because those individuals could assault them “really bad”. It corroborated with the findings of Moyce and Schenker (2018) who found migrant workers working under dangerous working conditions vulnerable to the risk of injuries. P6 reported “lack of authority” to deal with the offenders that made them more vulnerable to verbal threats and physical assault, as suggested by Cops and Pleysier (2011, p. 59) who defined vulnerability as, “the perception of exposure to danger, a loss of control over the situation and a perceived inadequate capacity to resist the direct and indirect consequences of victimisation”. Fitting to this definition, P1 alleged there could be anyone who would say, “I will kill you, why you are here?” and reported being assaulted two times:

Once a guy approached me and asked, “Do you want to fight?”. I said, “No dear, I am not here to fight and I’m just looking after this site”. Suddenly after taking ten steps away from me, he threw a bottle of beer on me, but I got saved... second time, somebody punched me in the chest but somehow, I escaped... [and it] hit my shoulder, and the other guard came... confronted him and he ran away. (P1)

Table 4: Good Sites Vs Vulnerable Sites

Characteristics of Good Sites	Illustrative Participant Quotes
(1) Working in teams: support of team members, supervisor, control room operator and managerial staff	<i>Most of the sites are very clean and have cameras and people at the backup, like if you are working at Malls, you have got backup. Like When I was working at [...], I had backup. And in [...], There were like three guards who had to be there for 24/7 and then we had managers and comms in the backup whom we used to call in any trouble situation. (P3). I am lucky enough to have a proper site which is fully secured and always watched by main control room operator. (P2)</i>
(2) Access to PPE	<i>I would say some other good security companies also provide necessary PPE to their security guards as I have seen torch lights hooked down to their pants. It depends from site to site and also company to company. All are not same, and all are not bad. There are good examples too. (P4)</i>
(3) Access to Kitchen and Toilet facilities	<i>Some major [sites] and they were good... quite a good facility [such as] staff toilets, staff kitchen ... clean kitchen.... You go there, and you can get whatever you want, ...like coffee cappuccino, latte, tea, you can have anything. (P1); And at other sites, there are lunch rooms, office toilets and coffee machines which security guard is also allowed to use during the breaks. (P5)</i>
(4) Effective Site-Induction programs	<i>Yes! They give a brief information of the site on first day. Sometimes it is client who gives you all the information, and sometimes you are informed by your shift supervisor and also the guards who are already there. (P3); I got an induction from my current supervisor told me each and everything about like the situation which I could face during the work and how to inform the control room (P2)</i>
Characteristic of Vulnerable Sites	
(1) Poor Backup Response	<i>You cannot say it is safe, like if I talk about response during an emergency, it definitely takes time. When you call to comms [Health and safety supervisor in the main contractor] or call the police, it takes a time because these sites are usually very far away from the city. (P4)</i>
(2) Working alone: no support team members, supervisor, control room operator and managerial staff	<i>And I used to be all alone for 12 hours, all alone, nobody's there, and even the tiny things or you hear something, you feel like omg, it's like a heart attack. And you know, some guys they just mucking around, they try to jump sometimes the fences, they didn't come inside but it did scare you. It's like quite a depressing thing. Quite depressing. (P5)</i>
(3) Lack of Access to PPE	<i>There are many risks at the construction sites, but they never provided protective equipment to security guards... I believe the guard should have safety shoes and safety gloves whenever... and a safety helmet and high vest and all the other relevant equipment. It should be made compulsory... But right now, the situation believe me is worse. (P5) They [subcontractors] don't provide radios to the security guards which they can use to inform during emergency. (P1)</i>
(4) Lack of access to Toilet and Kitchen Facilities	<i>We were supposed to stand outside and about the toilet facilities, there was a one in their backyard, and that was really dirty toilet which they ask security guard to use ... that was totally dark just like one light over there and that's it, all their rubbish and garbage was there, so it was so smelly as well. (P1); There are toilets and kitchen or lunchrooms available, but they do not allow the security guards to use them as they are for office staff and customers. (P7)</i>
(5) No/ Ineffective site-induction	<i>There would be no one to induct you and you don't even know what that site is or what you even have to do. Sometimes, they will just induct you over the phone and nobody will even come there to induct you properly. Many times, you don't know. (P5); I didn't know even about the basics of the site, I didn't know where I should go for toilet and I didn't know about the passwords of different doors. (P6)</i>

This is a troublesome finding considering that the untrained and unequipped participants were positioned outside the buildings, that were more vulnerable to threats, as a shield to stop the trespassers from entering the premises. The findings indicated that the participants endured innumerable threats and needed the absolute resolve to work at vulnerable sites. Similarly, Smith et al. (2015) regarded the workplaces having inadequate protection and safety policies and unknown and uncontrolled hazards/risks as “most vulnerable”. Six participants referred to the overall OHS practices as “ineffective and useless” (P4), “just a formality to ensure the presence of a guard” (P2) and to “save their [i.e. both clients and security companies] backs in an unexpected event” (P7). The real intent behind the design and application of these procedures was side-lined:

To be honest, there is no health and safety in security. There is nothing at all. They will say, yeah! we do this for the health and safety of our security guards, but no one really does anything. We [workers] do not say anything about it, and according to my personal experiences, especially there is no health and safety for students... [for] the guards working with the Subcontractors... they are not in a safe environment. (P1)

The specific quote “we do not do anything” of P1 indicated a lack of ‘OHS empowerment’ - a degree of freedom of workers to communicate OHS risks to the authorities and refuse to work under unsafe working conditions (Smith et al. 2015). Hoppe (2011) represented this inability to voice OHS concerns as “empowerment vulnerability” particularly common in immigrants over the fear of negative consequences, including job loss and deportation.

The participants of this study maintained that only the OHS practices at the good sites were “acceptable and effective”: “Yeah! They do. They do concern about our safety and guide us from time to time what needs to be done” (P7). This practice of guiding guards at good sites

might be inspired by adherence of clients and security companies to standardised regulations that eventually made participants' work experiences somewhat more comfortable and safer under challenging times:

I'm working right in the team of guards and supervisor... main control room operator monitoring the cameras ... [and] Operations Managers who always take care of us. If we fall in any of the situations, we call them through the Radio Transmitters, and what and how do we have to react, it is always told by them. (P3)

However, volatile situations were not only restricted to vulnerable sites; participants working at good sites (refer to section 4.3.1) also shared their experiences with volatile situations. The main difference was the accessibility to better security infrastructure and resources, immediate team support and back-up response. Good sites were mostly in busy, commercial locations, and the response time of backup was much quicker than for vulnerable sites. In general, participants reported being in multiple volatile situations: "...lots of drunk people come to the site on weekend nights, so we have to call the police when they misbehave or ambulance if they fall sick or fight with each other" (P3).

In the context of this study, OHS practices encompassed accessibility to PPE, responsiveness to health and safety concerns (i.e. timely backup response), effective site-induction programs and kitchen and toilet facilities, corresponding to OHS framework developed by Smith et al. (2015). This study identified that OHS practices were dependent upon the site nature, i.e. good site or vulnerable site and, to some extent, the type of security company, i.e. main-contractors or subcontractors. This variability was the most prominent factor in determining as well as shaping the overall experiences of the participants.

4.2.3.1. Accessibility to Personal Protective Equipment (PPE).

PPE for security guards include radio transmitters, safety shoes, torch lights, raincoat and umbrellas; however, the participants working with subcontractors were not provided with such equipment: No! No! No! They do not give anything like face masks, safety shoes and not even safety helmets. Also, they do not give any wet gears, and we have to bring our umbrellas to the site.” (P4). Although participants in this study did not report physical injury due to inadequate PPE, both P1 and P3 reported “transferring a heavy material” and “cleaning the rubbish bins”, as an additional task without wearing protective gear. This lack of knowledge about job requirements was persistent among the participants because the clients and the security companies neither told them their expected roles and responsibilities (P2) nor workplace protection procedures clearly (P5). Similarly, Tucker (2002) identified this lack of knowledge about work responsibilities among migrant workers and connected it to increased exposure to workplace hazards and decreased levels of OHS protection. Despite the fact, “subcontractors are negligent, irresponsible and uninterested to provide the safety equipment” (P7), the role of clients and main-contractors was also disputed toward ensuring the availability of PPE to every person attending their site. Due to inadequate PPE, participants reported the feelings of lack of safety and security and lack of confidence in dealing with violent situations.

4.2.3.2. Responsiveness to OHS concerns.

With regards to responsiveness to health and safety concerns, three participants termed the response time of emergency services, i.e. police and ambulance at the vulnerable sites as “average” due to their location. With the exception of a few important sites, participants disclosed they did not carry radio transmitters and were advised to report through mobile phones in case of an emergency. Using mobile phones to pass on information during potentially volatile situations is not an effective procedure as P7 clarified that “it takes time to unlock the

phone, dial the phone number and wait for the other side to pick up the phone call”, whereas through radio transmitters it could be quickly processed:

There was a security guard [at the smaller site], and two males approached him, they had an argument with him and suddenly started beating the security guard... they then took his mobile and wallet... there was a camera that caught the whole episode, but the problem was that security guard had no radio and he was alone at that time. (P7)

Participant P5 maintained that accessibility to adequate procedures for backup could only act as a deterrent at remotely located sites since the participants had to handle the situation until the police arrived. In this vein, Leino (2013) argues that the security guard’s work is relatively unstable, and it takes only a minute for a low volatile situation to escalate into a higher level. Thus, it is essential that clients and security companies devise effective mechanisms to prevent escalation of situations at an earlier stage.

4.2.3.3. Site-Induction Programs.

In this study, psychosocial risks to the participants has also been observed being amplified by the lack of interest and commitment of both security companies and clients in delivering effective site-induction programs. Site-induction programs are site-specific and include a brief description of important areas of a site, health and safety requirements, hazards, and emergency evacuation procedures (Site Safe, 2019). However, participants indicated that this practice was not widespread in the SINZ, and was only conducted at what is termed “good sites”:

there are good things about some good sites... because there is a proper hierarchy and infrastructure in place, so if a new person comes, first of all, he has to go through the induction program and has to give a test which is checked and forwarded to the clients for their record. (P2)

Three participants reported that only a few sites had proper induction programs and required security companies deploy only trained and experienced security guards. On the contrary, P4 reported that at most sites, both security companies and clients were not overseeing the deployment of new guards as they were only interested in their presence at the sites. In this way, participants described not knowing the passcodes of different doors, emergency exit ways and assembly areas: “so, there was no induction, no basic information, nothing! I was deployed at the site. I didn’t know what the threats gonna be like, what the health and safety hazard, nothing! (P5). Alarming, Leino (2013) suggests that without the basic knowledge about a site, security guards can inadvertently escalate the risks during emergency situations. The current findings indicate both employers’ and clients’ lack of interest in adequate training and induction programs, which pose physical and psychosocial risks for the workers.

4.2.3.4. Facilities at the Workplace.

Participants’ revealed that except at good sites, there were no kitchen and toilet facilities for them and if any, those were unhygienic, broken and unhealthy to use: “there are some portable-loo’s available, but they are very much stinky and unclean because nobody comes there to clean them daily.” (P4). Interestingly, two participants reported instances of clients at a good site not allowing security guards to use toilet and kitchen facilities. P3 noted that his peer (another security guard) was not given access to kitchen and toilet facility:

They [clients] do not allow the security guards to use their toilet, but their customers can use it... he [security guard] had to go to a public toilet and also, he used to come to me to get the water bottle during his break. He was not even allowed to go into the kitchen to fill his water bottle. (P3)

However, most good sites had a proper and hygienic kitchen and toilet facilities and offered free milk, tea, and coffee to security guards (P6). In addition, two participants spoke of non-availability of a room where they could take cover in extreme weather conditions (P5) or “dangerous situations” (P4). Under the Health and Safety at Work Act (2015; Ministry of Business, Innovation, and Employment, 2017), employers are responsible for providing a hygienic work environment to their staff including access to toilets, kitchen and a proper space to work. However, this responsibility becomes ambiguous in the SINZ where security guards were hired through subcontractors, worked at the site initially contracted to main-contractors, so this third-party employment blurs lines of responsibility and accountability.

There was a need to design a document entailing a clear set of responsibilities for all the stakeholders pertaining to health and safety of security guards. Overall, the lack of professionalism and interest of security companies for not investing in effective OHS practices had the potential to cause health and safety risks and ultimately threatening the psychosocial wellbeing and life of the security guards, as evident in the recent fatality of an inexperienced, untrained and non-inducted security guard during his first shift (Bradley, 2016).

4.2.4. Sub-theme (1d): Accessibility to working rights.

In NZ, working rights refers to the minimum rights an employee is entitled to that should be protected by employers, according to Employment New Zealand (2019c). Minimum rights include entitlement to a minimum wage, standard benefits, i.e. sick leave, annual leave and public holidays, employment contracts and protection in unfavourable circumstances (Employment New Zealand, 2019c). In exploring accessibility to these working rights, it became evident that most participants in this study were unaware of their employment agreements or on the legality of that agreement. This further highlights the participants’

inaccessibility to employment contracts and lack of awareness about protection in unfavourable circumstances.

4.2.4.1. Accessibility to adequate income.

All the participants were compensated at a legal minimum wage and expressed their inability to meet weekly expenses on a part-time income, regarded it inadequate to manage expenses. One participant explained:

The money you earn as a part-time student is not sufficient to afford the quality food like you do not have enough money to buy the things you like such as fruits and vegetables and also nuts and snacks. You cannot have all at one time. You have to prioritise. (P5)

Unions have previously validated this finding and reported more than half of the surveyed international students working in cleaning industry of Australia found it difficult to pay for their overall living costs (United Voice, 2013). Alternatively, three participants reported international students should not be facing financial challenges as they received a monthly payment from Funds Transfer Scheme (FTS; explained in section 2.2.2.) which, together with part-time income, produced a sufficient income to afford their lifestyle (P4). P2 identified the fundamental reason for the financial obligations of Indian international students and explained that most of them were not from comfortable families, so lived exclusively on part-time income and remitted extra funds to their families. Forbes-Mewett et al. (2009) and United Voice (2013) reported that international students remit funds, and Yuan et al. (2014) noted that most of them live under the Henderson Poverty Line². In general, for the participants in this study, the FTS

² Henderson Poverty Line is a quarterly update to the poverty line that is published by the Melbourne Institute, Australia and used by researchers to measure progress in the community (Melbourne Institute, 2019)

amount held no significance and the minimum wage was inadequate, so they worked excess hours beyond visa restrictions and under precarious conditions to afford the cost of living.

4.2.4.2. Accessibility to standard employment benefits.

Participants also reported not being entitled to standard employment benefits. There was no concept of sick leave, annual leave (P2: P4), time and a half pay on holidays and lieu day (alternative holiday) (P3: P6). However, their perceptions were mixed since many believed non-entitlement to benefits was a violation of their employment agreements, whereas others perceived it legal. P1 said that there were many benefits mentioned in their contracts, but subcontractors never gave them: “they do not give sick leave or paid leave, they do not give one and a half pay on holidays and they do not give lieu days”. This non-entitlement to standard employment benefits for migrant workers is well-substantiated in the literature (Bi et al., 2016; Stringer, 2016; Yuan et al., 2014).

Participants’ confusion around access to benefits was perhaps due to their lack of knowledge about their employment type, i.e. casual or part-time, since the Leave and Holidays section of Employment New Zealand (2019d) regards entitlement to standard benefits as a minimum right for all employees. This reported violation of employment laws questions the professionalism of subcontractors for possibly subjugating the legal rights of the already vulnerable and uninformed group of employees: international students. Bi et al. (2016) reported similar violations of employment benefits, consisting of non-payment of sick leave and annual leave, for migrant workers in New Zealand.

4.2.4.3. Accessibility to employment contracts.

Relatedly, many participants’ lack of awareness about employment rights and benefits can be ascribed to their inaccessibility to employment contracts as they admitted to not being provided with the contract. Five participants requested their employment contract, but their

employers have evaded these requests. P7 noted that subcontractors did not provide employment contracts to security guards to keep them unaware of their employment rights so that the guards can be exploited; “they don’t give contracts to the students, so they [international students] don’t get to know about their benefits and don’t ask for these benefits”. P5, P3 and P7 recollected it as a “temporary employment agreement”, “Part-time contract” and “Casual Contract” respectively whereas others could not recall. This coincides with the findings of Bonnett (2016) regarding employers’ avoidance of giving employment contracts to migrant workers to evade legal proceedings by simply denying employment relationship with employees if they turn to Immigration New Zealand for assistance.

4.2.4.4. Accessibility to protection.

Lastly, a few participants mentioned the “lack of financial protection” for losses due to unfavourable circumstances. P1 reasoned that he sometimes hesitated to intervene in volatile situations as he did not want to get “harmed” for a low paying job that was not even covered by Accident Compensation Corporation³ (ACC): “you are not gonna get any ACC claim or anything... Why should we get harmed for such low paid work?”. That comment was particularly illustrative of participants’ lack of knowledge about employment rights as ACC, under the no-fault scheme, does not discriminate and cover everyone irrespective of nationality and visa status (ACC NZ, 2019a). This finding is supported by Underhill (2008) who reported a lack of knowledge among 40 per cent of surveyed temporary workers who believed they were not entitled to workers’ compensation, while the remainder were fearful of reporting it to their employers and government agencies due to a possible job loss. Basok (2002), Hoppe (2011) and Quinlan (2015) also note that migrant workers avoided reporting injuries/accidents due to the likelihood of losing wages and deportation. P5 recalled the incident involving a student

³ ACC NZ is a government body tasked with administering the Workers Compensation Act (1974) and helping those injured to return to everyday life (ACC NZ, 2019b).

security guard who was assaulted (as discussed in sub-section 4.2.3.2), who did not apply for compensation as he thought he would need to provide the details whether he was trained or inducted to work there. Bi et al. (2016) also describes a similar incident in which the employer refused to give proof of employment to the worker to apply to ACC for loss of wages.

4.2.5. Concluding remarks.

This theme began by summarising participants' preferences for accessing work in the SINZ through subcontractors which, in most instances, remained out of their control as main-contractors were not interested in offering opportunities to part-timers. Accessibility issues concerning regular working hours, certain job responsibilities, and role clarity under subcontractors made them vulnerable to precarious work arrangements of on-call shifts with participants describing adverse effects on their psychosocial wellbeing. The ineffectiveness of both training and induction programs was identified, resulting in security guards being unprepared to effectively diffuse conflict situations. Findings also indicate that effective OHS protection policies, adequate PPE, responsiveness to emergencies and acceptable working conditions remain inaccessible to most participants, which significantly increased their vulnerability in the SINZ, and eventually posed threats to the psychosocial wellbeing and life of the security guards. Remuneration of part-time income at a minimum wage, inaccessibility to standard employment benefits and resulting inability to afford a good quality life substantially compounded the financial obligations of the participants. Indeed, the lack of awareness among the participants about their employment rights and protection highlighted the consequences for increased vulnerability to insecurity in adverse situations.

4.3. Theme 2: Threats to Psychosocial Wellbeing of Security Guards

This theme discussed the various aspects of work arrangements in the SINZ along with the personal circumstances of the participants, that posed threats to their psychosocial wellbeing. Firstly, it had attempted to analyse to what extent vulnerability of security guards in volatile situations was influenced by the interaction between job-related and environment-related hazards. Secondly, it highlighted the racially provoked incidents within the security environment of NZ and discusses how such incidents affect psychosocial wellbeing of security guards. Thirdly, it presented the non-standard work arrangement- longer working hours- in the SINZ posing negative repercussions to the physical wellbeing of the participants. Lastly, the theme analysed the stressful experiences of the participants, particularly due to their extended engagements with both studies and work.

4.3.1. Sub-theme (2a): Good sites, vulnerable sites and volatile situations.

This sub-theme discusses the interaction between job-related hazards (inherent in the security guard's job) and environment-related hazards (characteristics of a good/ vulnerable site), and cumulative effects of these hazards that cause psychosocial risks to the workers. As discussed (in section 4.2.3), in/accessibility to adequate OHS practices, team support and emergency response time are the main determinants of good site and vulnerable site and considerably influence the extent of vulnerability of workers at either site. For instance, someone at a 'good site' (work environment) might still encounter a volatile situation due to the nature of security work (job-related hazard). However, the threat to their psychosocial wellbeing may not be as drastic as someone who experiences volatile situation while working at a vulnerable site, because the good sites have more than one person working, better access to emergency responses and better OHS practices and equipment.

In this respect, the study identified a threatening combination of two job-related hazards, working alone and volatile situation, which when interacts with work environment of vulnerable site, intensifies threats to the psychosocial wellbeing of the participants. Three participants reported working alone at vulnerable sites, mostly the construction sites, and undergoing numerous volatile situations threatening to their wellbeing. P5 shared an incident of working alone at the construction site when he heard the gunshots aimed at the site gate, but fortunately, he was inside and had already locked the door:

I was very freaked out and I rang the police...When they [offenders] heard the sirens, they ran away... what if they jumped in there? I was alone at the site. There was nowhere to run. I was in the dead-end area; behind me, there was a peninsula, where I have to jump? In water? In a dark when I do not know what the depth is? So, these kinds of situations they are not gonna tell you in the security training programs. (P5)

The participants discussed that it was tiring to “spend the time” (P4) and equally terrifying to stay alone at the site where “not even a beetle is screaming at you” (P5). Amidst the quietness and darkness of the site, they talked of delving into another state of mind that usually evolved into depression because of thinking about lots of things together at the same time:

It’s like quite a depressing thing. Quite depressing. You start talking to yourself, you go to some other state of mind, suddenly if something happens...you can’t figure out like where I have to go because your mind wasn’t in the work state. Your mind is in the quite frustration and depression state. (P5)

The findings indicate that working alone at a vulnerable site was harmful to the psychological wellbeing of the participants in addition to increasing their susceptibility to physical health risks in conflict situations. Furthermore, due to work environment hazards, i.e.

lack of team support and PPE, participants reported feeling distressed and unsure of their capabilities to mitigate the volatility of such situations single-handedly. While this has not been previously examined in relation to the security profession, it is an area that warrants further investigation. Gershon, Barocas, Canton, Li and Vlahov (2009) associated the absence of occupational support and inadequate health and safety equipment with the feelings of powerlessness and consequences for stress, fear and anxiety.

Further, participants' inaccessibility to self-defence training and adequate authority (job-related hazards) at their workplace was also determined to intensify the volatility of situations in this study. P2 argued they were not provided with self-defence training, which made it extremely challenging for them to tackle the locals because "they had a good physique and heavy bodies". P3 rationalised that even if they were self-defence trained, it would still be problematic for them to contain the locals or practice any authority that could be used against them, and the best practice was to wait until the police arrived. He explained: "once an aggressive man came inside and punched his colleague, we called the police, and got the offender trespassed from the site" (P3). The assaulted security guard later told him that the punches were hard; the victim security guard had to take three days off to recover from that traumatised experience.

While three participants emphasised the importance of self-defence particularly for the guards working alone at the potentially vulnerable sites, two others suggested self-defence training would be useless since security guards did not have any authority to touch anybody or were simply cautious of involving into a situation that can be turned against them:

It totally depends upon the manipulation of the situation ... And as an international student, I'm not aware of the rules of this country so much as the local person could be. So, he can manipulate the situation in his own terms. (P3)

Participant P5 confirmed their authority to defend themselves if attacked first, by using a “reasonable force”, but was uncertain of the magnitude of reasonable force and unwilling to use it in difficult times. Although the New Zealand Law Commission (2019) specifies that reasonable force means using the same force as it was inflicted on you, it was noted that in this situation a guard could be blamed for escalating a situation rather diffusing it (P6). Participants in this study believed that the law gave more rights and authority to the offenders; therefore they always preferred to “stay defensive” during vulnerable situations irrespective of what people think of them: “they think we are useless, helpless, powerless but they do not know of our limitations... we can only call the police, and till it arrives, we have to face all the bad happenings” (P7). Both the limits of professionalism for not involving into the situation and the limits of capacity to deal with the intimidating situation had the consequences for powerlessness and vulnerability of the security guards.

Leino (2013) noted the similar findings of physical abuse and psychological violence consisted of unarmed attacks and insults against security guards working in the metropolitan areas in Finland. Despite access to team support and adequate security equipment at the good sites, participants considered it increasingly onerous to manage volatile situations and had to rely on the police for back-up due to limited safety/ tactical training. P2 shared an incident of physical abuse at a good site when he was punched in the chest by an intoxicated person. Although he managed to detain the offender with the help of his team members, he had to free him when members of the public threatened the security guards to free the offender. He expressed the feelings of powerlessness, disrespect, shame and utter disappointment with the response they received:

At that time, I felt like do we have any power, any respect in the society? Instead of standing with us, public stand against us. That was a very depressing moment for me.

Anyhow, that was not the first not the last thing, we have dealt many and have to deal with many more. (P2)

These incidents demonstrated that volatile situations could arise anywhere, irrespective of the type of site, with the potential to inflict severe damage to the psychosocial and physical wellbeing of workers. Although it is difficult to foresee every possible incident due to complexities in the security environment, employers still have the primary responsibility to look after the health and safety of employees according to Health and Safety at Work Act (2015; Ministry of Business, Innovation, and Employment, 2017). Where it might be difficult to control the job-related hazards such as volatile situations or encountering harassment (as discussed in section 4.3.2), the interventions focussed on imparting effective training to the workers and equipping them with adequate PPE might significantly improve their ability to diffuse volatile situations. Further, it might be more straightforward to make immediate changes to work environment in moving it from a vulnerable to a good site (as suggested in section 5.3.1). Participants also identified the importance of having the public support because they were recent migrants, international students, with limited cultural knowledge and experience. This inability to deal with locals was disadvantageous as they feared getting involved in any situation that could be used against them, leading to deportation. Lay, Kosny, Aery, Flecker and Smith (2018) associated the vulnerability of migrant workers to physical and verbal abuse with lack of awareness about their rights and protections in the host country which also include fear about speaking out/ reporting to the concerned authority.

4.3.2. Sub-theme (2b): Racial harassment and psychosocial wellbeing.

In this study, all participants had experienced racial harassment to varying extents. According to participants, the general public believed that security guards were implementing “self-established rules and regulations” (P2) or “trying to control or dictate them” (P5). P6

perceived that the public entirely ignored the main purpose of security guards, which was to protect property and people and to ensure everyone respects the rules of the site. Participant P6 explained that when they requested that people comply with the rules, there was a strong probability of this escalating into racially harassing comments because, as P7 argued, it was humiliating for some people to be advised by security guards in public. Research by Nalla et al. (2017) corroborates this finding, indicating that the public perceive security guards as low-status people doing low-status jobs in the society, hence can be treated lesser of the human being. Participant P2 maintained that:

You, being an Asian, will be treated like you are some type of dog. Respect is poor but no action. It should be vice versa but if you say the same things to locals then you will be in trouble. (P2)

Sefalafala and Webster (2013) also linked this dehumanising experience with the stigma of security guards' uniform, which represents security guards are uneducated, unreasonable and a failure as a human being. Further, in a study by Nalla et al. (2017), more than half of the surveyed security guards perceived that the public viewed them negatively, which had an adverse impact on their psychological wellbeing, such as feelings of shame and being disrespected.

The participants in this study went onto say that if somebody needed proof of how often the racially provoked incidents occurred, "they can fix the audio camera to witness how some locals are passing racist comments and threatening the immigrants working as security guards (P2). P7 reported the physical assault incident when he intercepted two intoxicated men swearing at the client's staff due to an unresolved matter which gradually evolved into a physical fight between them. While he was trying to stop the fight, the offenders turned onto him:

They asked me, “what the hell are you doing here? You mother fucker, you are fucking Indian! go back to your fucking country” ... then one of them punched me on my neck, and he punched me and then kicked me on my knee. He was intoxicated yet he knew I’m fucking Indian. (Laugh) I then pulled myself back. (P7)

P3 recollected another racially provoked incident involving two disabled intoxicated men who abused and attempted to physically hurt the security guards:

They [offenders] were passing racist comments and trying to hit us with their mobility chairs... and we were running like some idiots, helpless and powerless beings... and the public was laughing at us; they threw beer cans on us, and they spat on us. (P3)

It was recognised from participant narratives that intoxication (of the public) was a particularly important factor in creating psychosocial and physical threats for security workers. Similarly, Webster, Patterson, Hoare and O’Loughlin (2008) have reported that security guards deal with intoxicated people on a daily basis, so they are more prone to violence and racial harassment.

These violent and racially harassing experiences shattered security guards’ confidence and feelings of self-worth that they were respected beings. P1 acknowledged recovering from the pain of a physical punch in two days; however, it was taxing for him to recover from psychological trauma, and this took around three to four weeks for him to be able to work confidently. Co-incidentally, the last interview was conducted with the participant 7 two days after the Christchurch mosque shootings of March 2019. This participant (P7) mentioned that the security guards were anxious, depressed and concerned about their safety and how they were going to save the public or themselves if confronted with such a situation.

A traumatised experience caused by physical assault and harassment had the potential to demolish the identity of the participants. Because they were security guards meant to protect the system, when they were unable to protect themselves they felt helpless and powerless. This also made it uncomfortable for them to approach individuals engaging in potentially risky behaviours, fearing it might evolve into a situation similar to their previous traumatic experiences. This concept of fearing from experiencing the similar situation again is also acknowledged by Hershcovis and Barling (2010), and Waters and Ussery (2007), who emphasised that workers needed time to recover from the deleterious effects of disturbing experiences to function as confidently as they once were.

The findings also reflect that the participants were double disadvantaged; first for being a member of a minority ethnic group (representative of identifiable Indian immigrants' community) and second for working in a profession already perceived as low-status. Johnston (2008) maintained that victims' affiliation with an identifiable group or community provoked harassing and violent incidents rather than their personal capacities. The study noted that incidents of verbal abuse, racial harassment and physical abuse had a detrimental effect on the psychosocial wellbeing of the participants. Participants reported the following impacts as a result of racially aggressive incidents: disturbing, stressful, depressing (Johnston, 2008), disappointing, demotivating, disrespect, shame (Babacan et al. 2010), powerlessness, helplessness, lack of confidence, insecurity, (Gershon et al., 2009) and lack of social support (Leino, 2013). Furthermore, the findings indicated that derogatory remarks were more distressing for the participants when directed at their race or country, as it was particularly challenging for them to accept racial harassment as a reality. This sub-theme also provides an insight into the state of participants who left their homes and paid significant amounts in study fees in the host country hoping for better prospects and ending up enduring unpleasant experiences of racial harassment while working as part-time security guards. This suggests an

urgent need to improve the general perception of international students: that they are not a burden on society, but respectable, educated and tax-paying individuals contributing towards the betterment of the country.

4.3.3. Sub-theme (2c): Stressful experiences due to extended engagements.

All participants termed their overall experiences with both studies and work as “extremely stressful” due to several factors. Firstly, compared with other work-related psychosocial risks, long working hours emanated as one of the more stressful work arrangements to the physical wellbeing of the participants in this study. The requirement of longer working hours in the SINZ reflects the 24/7 operational environment of the industry (Nea et al. 2018). Further, due to the growth of this industry (Defsec Media Limited, 2018) and high employment turnover rate in the SINZ (Bradley, 2016), P7 explicated it was challenging for security companies to have enough resources spread out over the three standard working hour shifts, i.e. 8 hours each, at the sites requiring 24/7 presence of security guards. Therefore, participants were forced into working longer shifts for a considerable portion of the week.

As a result, participants typically reported physical problems of back pain (P3), headache, physical exhaustion (P6), feet pain (P5), tiredness, fatigue (P1), and stomach disorders (P7). They expressed that longer working hours and having to stand for the entirety of these shifts had damaging effects on their physical health: “you get sick for doing longer shifts... it was totally a hard work, lots of fatigue, my body aches, got a back pain... and I often fall sick” (P1) and “at the end of the shift, I feel too much pain in my legs, my whole body gets exhausted, and I couldn’t even do any other work” (P6). Sefalafa and Webster (2013) reported similar findings that longer working hours are a significant psychosocial hazard to wellbeing, with a large body of research also outlining the risks associated with fatigue (Hannif & Lamm, 2005; Nea et al., 2018; Saleem et al., 2017). P5 termed it the “most dreadful experience” as he

was instructed to stand straight, walk frequently and never sit down. P3 reported getting exhausted within 6-8 hours and found it extremely challenging to stand the remaining hours. He also identified that extended periods of standing had affected his body posture, while P7 reported stomach disorder due to continuously working long shifts:

When I'm working consecutively for more than two days, I get the stomach disorder. This is because of the problem with digestion when I do not get enough time to sleep, I think my body couldn't digest the food. And also, sometimes when I eat unhealthy food from outside like pizza and burger on the job, I have a problem with digestion.
(P7)

Knutsson and Boggild (2010) have previously found links between working longer shifts for extended periods and the occurrence of gastrointestinal disorders.

Additionally, four participants living further from their workplaces reported more disturbances from longer shifts, as they spent a considerable amount of time (between 2-3 hours) commuting to and from work. Moreover, by the time they had returned home, both P4 and P5 mentioned it was already late in the night, making it difficult for them to get an adequate amount of sleep. Though P3 and P6 reported sleeping adequately because they were living within a walking distance from their workplaces, they still expressed similar physical problems as of other participants. According to P6, performing standing jobs continuously cause "muscle breakdown" for not getting time to relax and "heart diseases in the long run". Knutsson and Boggild (2010) found a strong correlation between shift work and the risk of developing coronary heart disease and attributed it to workers' inclination to take up smoking as a coping mechanism. Jansen, Kant, Amelsvoort, Nijhuis and Brandt (2003) also reported the slow recovery of sore muscles due to short rest breaks between two longer shifts.

Secondly, three participants talked about the stress due to irregular working hours as sometimes, they did not get enough hours and other times they were coerced to work more than the required hours. Irregular schedules added to their vulnerability as they had no choice but to be available whenever the subcontractors needed them. This idea is also echoed in findings by Yuan et al. (2014) in their study exploring the experiences of migrant workers. Three participants working under irregular schedules reported sleeping disorders due to frequent changes in their sleeping patterns every week. The participants working in emergency shifts reported exacerbated experiences of disturbed routine, gastrointestinal disorders and sleeping disturbances. Further, two participants expressed difficulty in falling asleep and relatively shorter duration of sleep due to a disturbance in sleeping patterns. Åkerstedt (2003) and Fischer et al. (2005) also described the similar effects of sleep disturbances in their studies.

Due to uncertainty around work schedules, participants reported the inability to prepare meals, and they resorted to unhealthy options which further exacerbated stomach disorders. Such challenges were worse for the four participants who had specific dietary requirements, as they were mostly unable to find the “vegetarian food” (P4) and “Halal food” (P7) and had to either stay hungry or eat unhealthy bakery items (P2: P5). Nea et al. (2018) also reported similar findings, stating that shift workers find it difficult to prepare a meal for themselves and maintain a regular diet mainly due to uncertain work schedules and exhausting shift work.

Thirdly, five participants reported an extended engagement with both studies and part-time work leading to extreme stressful outcomes such as sleeping disorder, fatigue, anxiety and depression. Both P4 and P5 reported working night shifts after their classes, followed by the same routine the next day. Findings by Laberge et al. (2008) also indicate that a majority of the surveyed school students were working in the evenings after class and weekend shifts under irregular working schedules. While it could be argued that the participants could study during the weekdays and work in the weekends, this is impracticable given the lack of control of the

participants over working schedules (as discussed in section 4.2.2) as well as their willingness to work more (as will be discussed in section 4.4.3). Additionally, it was the incomplete tasks and the pressure to meet deadlines that was exacerbating this stress:

Because you have lots of responsibilities, you have to pay off your debts at the home country, you have to secure yourself here, you have to finish your studies, assignments, next morning have to go to college, OMG! I haven't made my assignment, I was doing the job. Shit! And the next day, what happens, the college says no! No! No! they are not giving you permission to appear in the exams because your assignments are not here. Next thing your visa deadline is getting closer". (P5)

Due to extended engagements, the study also identified participants' inability to find time to maintain a healthy lifestyle such as exercising, having hobbies, or spending sufficient time with family and friends. In this study, all the participants' families were based in their home country except one (P2) who was married and had a kid and brought his family to NZ, but he did not report problems of work-life balance as he was working at a "good site". However, other participants acknowledged being homesick:

There are many people you know very much connected to their families, they never live alone... you can see them on the camera, but it is only a personal touch that is missing here. Today I have completed one year in NZ, I do miss my family a lot and my parents and my brothers and my colleagues. (P3)

Last of all, P3 reported stressful experiences due to his inability to find a relevant job in his field of study, and expressed lack of satisfaction with a security job: "the only satisfaction I do not have in my life is what I'm working right now and what I have studied". Though he clarified he did not mean to say it was a "demoralising or unsatisfying job", the fact he had studied harder and been doing "an irrelevant job" (P3) was disturbing to both his personal and

professional wellbeing. Roy (2008; as cited in Laberge et al. 2012) referred to these professionally unyielding jobs as “odd-jobs”, and the study conducted by Yanar et al. (2018) found these jobs characterised by poor working conditions, inadequate income, requiring physical exertion and undermining worker’s personal and professional skills.

4.3.4. Concluding Remarks.

This theme discussed the role of several work arrangements and OHS practices at various sites in causing threats to the psychosocial wellbeing of the participants. The participants’ experiences revealed the differences in vulnerability to volatile situation depending upon the work environment. The participants at vulnerable sites expressed helplessness and dissatisfaction with the overall OHS standards as well as with the lack of interest of the clients, security companies and general public for not looking after their wellbeing and adopting essential measures to upgrade the security infrastructure that was the need of the hour. On the contrary, their counterparts at the good sites voiced satisfaction with the security infrastructure, PPE and facilities, however, they were displeased with the harassing behaviour of some individuals whom they confronted daily as part of their job. This theme discovered the most demanding work arrangement- longer working hours standing shifts- as well as several psychosocial stressors (irregular working schedules and extended engagements) that had further harmful implications for the psychosocial wellbeing of the participants. This subtheme has underscored that the security guards who are generally perceived as performing an ordinary role, are actually undergoing excruciating effects of longer working hours standing jobs while keeping the environment safe for the public.

4.4. Theme 3: Unprofessional Practices- Do as you desire!

This theme illustrates the unprofessional practices of both subcontractors and security guards. Participants noted that employment practices of the subcontractors were predominantly exploitative consisting of “underpayments” (P1), “non-payments” (P4) and “coercing and punishing the workers” (P4; P5) for various reasons explained below. On the other hand, participants also noted that it was sometimes their own “self-exploitative nature” of “working extra hours” (P2), “getting paid assignments” (P4), “saving funds in the transfer scheme” (P1) and upholding “careless and unprofessional attitude at work” (P7) that had made them more vulnerable to exploitation. Thus, exploitation within the SINZ appears to be a two-way road; sometimes under the workers’ control and other times solely at the hands of subcontractors.

4.4.1. Sub-theme (3a): Underpayments and undeclared hours.

In the context of SINZ, “underpayment” was the mechanism through which participants were paid much less than the minimum legal wage for extra hours; and likewise, an hour exceeding legal working hours limit was considered an “extra hour”. Due to visa restrictions of international students around working hours per week, participants reported that hours worked within the limit were declared to Inland Revenue Department, New Zealand (IRD) whereas extra hours considered as “undeclared hours” and usually paid in cash; a practice also evident in the literature (Bi et al., 2016; Berg & Farbenblum, 2017; Campbell et al., 2016; Ferguson & Danckert, 2015; Nyland et al. 2009; United Voice, 2013). P1 described, “Whenever I cross 20 hours, they paid me nine bucks an hour in cash”.

Since the issue of working hours exceeding the legal limit is a serious breach of visa restrictions that could lead to their deportation, only three participants talked about the prominence of underpayments within the SINZ, while only P1 acknowledged working more hours and getting paid in cash. Based on anecdotal evidence shared by P1 regarding non-

payment of wages, some companies paid 20-hours only irrespective of the total hours international student had worked in a week. For instance, if a student work 40 hours, he/she would get paid for 20-hours only through IRD and nothing else, consistent with findings from the literature (Ferguson & Danckert, 2015). Throughout the analysis phase of the interviews, this remained one of the most influential threats to the psychosocial wellbeing of the participants. Two participants knew that Subcontractors were exploiting them in the disguise of work, but they preferred to work “instead of sitting idle at home” (P5): “if someone is giving us a job and for sure we would go for it ...so subcontractors are the ones, although they pay less but still they give us hours” (P1). Similarly, one migrant worker participant in the study of Velayutham (2013) referred to this exploitation of working more hours at lesser pay as being “better than nothing”.

This study also identified that some subcontractors were withholding one- or two weeks' legal wages of the participants, as well as the payment of extra hours, to discourage them from changing jobs (P4). P4 explained: “They [subcontractors] do not want us to change the job; [When we do it,] we have to beg them to return our money because this is the kind of work we cannot disclose to any authority”. Additionally, P5 detailed workers lacked empowerment to say what and when they must get paid for the extra hours, and subcontractors often disregarded their requests to pay them a bit earlier. This underpayment and non-payment of wages contributes to the financial vulnerability of international students, while working undeclared hours also make them legally vulnerable (Anderson et al., 2012). Hereof, Shang (n.d.), Laxon (2016) and Quinlan (2015) reported migrant workers including international students rarely question exploitative behaviour of employers or lodge legal complaints against them fearing job loss and possible deportation. This sub-theme exhibits that increased vulnerability of the international students due to their limited working rights along with their financial needs have given increased leverage to subcontractors for deciding when and what to

pay for extra hours. This power imbalance between students and subcontractors has resultantly set off the culture of underpayments and non-payments within the SINZ, also evident in the studies reporting migrant workers' experiences in NZ (Anderson et al., 2011; Bi et al., 2016; Stringer, 2016).

4.4.2. Sub-theme (3b): Coercing and punishing the students.

This sub-theme demonstrated that some subcontractors within the SINZ coerced participants to undertake emergency shifts and punished those who refused to take these shifts. Irrespective of the personal commitments of the participants, they were compelled to accept whatever had been assigned to them because otherwise, they might undergo the punishment of zero-hours week (P1; P2; P5). All the participants have had to undertake emergency shifts once or repeatedly to avoid the "punishment of zero-hours". However, this element of punishment was less prominent across the experiences of three participants working at good sites and they acknowledged not responding to emergency shifts frequently (P3; P6; P7). The participants said their working relationship with supervisors remained good as long as they were not refusing the emergency shifts (P4) and when they refused, saying: "sorry! I couldn't [take the shift] because I have an exam tomorrow" (P5), supervisors turned against them and used different tactics to disturb them (P3):

And that [shift start time] was really short notice because I got an exam the same day he [supervisor] was calling me for work. I clearly told him [supervisor], no! no! no! that's my exam. And he [supervisor] got angry, he hanged up and again two weeks, zero hours. I was ringing, texting, please job job job, no! nothing happened. (P5)

The participants explained that zero-hours week contributed considerably to their financial vulnerability because once they were overdue for one week's expenses, this debt quickly accumulated for many weeks to follow: "If you get due, so when you get your next

salary you have to pay for current week's rent, and you get in debt" (P1). In order to address this form of exploitation, the Employment Relations and Amendment Act (2016; Employment New Zealand, 2019e) amended the "hours of work" law and explicitly prohibited employers from using 'Zero-hour contracts', 'requiring employees to be available without reasonable compensation' and 'cancelling shifts without reasonable notice' with effect from April 2017. However, these changing in the hours of work law are not reflected in the experiences of the participants working with the subcontractors within the SINZ.

Supervisors also appeared to perceive everyone as desirous of work, thus expected a positive response from everyone when offered shifts, P6 explained. Likewise, P7 added that there was a perception that if someone had not worked enough hours in a week, he/she would definitely respond to emergency shift: "Sometimes it is under your control, sometimes it is not under your control, sometimes they take advantage of you, and sometimes you want them to take advantage of you" (P7). This sub-theme presented the worrying situation of international students within the SINZ where nothing seems to be under their complete control; from deciding the type of shift, to the number of working hours, to escaping the coercion/punishment. For instance, if students desire to work more hours, then they must take whatever is assigned to them. Contrarily, if students decide to work within the limit of 20-hours and refuse to take extra shifts, they will not get even 20-hours in the following week. Due to this lack of control of international students, they succumbed to the coercive practices of subcontractors to avoid punishment, which otherwise could lead to increased financial vulnerability.

4.4.3. Sub-theme (3c): Self-exploitation.

Four participants equated the exploitation by Subcontractors with self-exploitation of security guards and reported that extremity increases particularly due to the willingness and

greediness of the students to work more (P1; P4; P5; P7). Participants conceded showing their weaknesses to subcontractors to get more hours, so they could manage their expenses in the host country and pay-off debts in the home country (P7). This vulnerability of international students hence encouraged the subcontractors to exploit the students to their own profit (P2). Participants reported they never said no to the increasing demands of their supervisors; instead, they requested them to give more work, corroborated with the findings of Bi et al. (2016) that migrant workers are underpaid, hence desirous to work more hours to meet their expenses. P5 supposed that this was “begging” while P4 added he would have called it “exploitation” as it was happening against the desire of the students: “Subcontractors can use them whenever they want them. They [students] like to work, so if somebody is giving them work which they really desire, I do not think it is exploitation, I would term it as self-exploitation” (P1). P4 furthered that migrant workers can be “exploited and harassed” because they needed work visas after their study and a Permanent Residence after work visas, so to go through this path, they endured exploitation. This notion of gaining residence by migrant workers through the path of exploitation is also well explained in the studies of Anderson et al. (2012), Merwood (2013), Stringer (2016) and Velayutham (2013). Indeed, Goldring and Landolt (2012) referred to the status of international students during this transitional period, i.e. from student to permanent resident as “precarious migration status”.

Two participants believed that some security guards worked more hours only to afford an extravagant lifestyle such as expensive mobile phones, cars and other related accessories (P2; P6). In this vein, P2 called them “immature and greedy” and alleged them of losing focus and involving in wrongdoings such as parties: “I am not saying party is a wrong thing, but they should think they are students, they should focus more on studies, these things can be enjoyed at a later stage when they are done with their studies” (P2). Four participants stated they worked excessive hours during their full-time periods, which used to be smaller and comprised of two

weeks and two months during semester breaks and summer breaks respectively (Immigration New Zealand, 2019a). P1 reported working continuous shifts without sleeping adequate hours and reported sickness due to overwork at the end of the week: “I worked for 38 hours without sleep so, I felt sick after that. The maximum I worked in a week was 99 hours... I have worked 21 hours shift, 17 hours shift, and that was during my vacations” (P1). Laxon (2016) and Bonnett (2016) analysed the working experiences of migrant workers in NZ and reported similar findings of sickness due to overwork.

Other times when their college was in session, the participants still reported “missing classes and getting paid assignments” so they could work more hours (P1; P4). This study identified that purchasing assignments was feasible due to two reasons: (1) professionals made good assignments at economical prices, increasing the possibility of good grades, and (2) this enabled them to work more hours and earn more money. Participant P1 explained:

If I work 12 hours, I get 120 bucks, so it won't be a big deal if I give them 60 bucks and they will make good assignments, and at least there would be a good possibility that I'm going to pass because they made good assignments. I thought, I'm getting my assignment done, and I'm still earning something. (P1)

P2 also implied that most of the international students from his country (India) had changed their focus to work and engaged in practices of deceiving both the legal system and education providers. To this end, Anderson et al. (2011) surveyed international students in NZ and reported that the mindset behind accepting exploitative conditions of employment is based on a hope for a better future in NZ, in which one of his student participants from India thought this is still comparatively “better than India”. The findings underline the practices of some participants that deviate from the primary purpose of studying in the host country and indicate a preference to work excessively while agreeing to the exploitative conditions of the

employment. While it can be argued that the practices of the participants are morally and professionally questionable as they are misusing both the part-time work opportunity and the studies, there still remains an important power imbalance between international student and employer that creates incentives and conditions rife for exploitation in the first instance.

4.4.4. Sub-theme (3d): Other unprofessional practices within the SINZ.

Participants in this study also noted that international students working as security guards did not always exhibit professional behaviour at work such as using their mobile phones during work hours, sleeping inside cars while on the job and not wearing the “proper uniform” (P2; P6; P7). Two participants believed that many incidents at vulnerable sites happen because of the carelessness of the security guards. P2 perceived that most security guards, except a few who worked at good sites, habitually used their mobile phones while on duty: “they listen to music. They do not understand that if they do not keep their eyes and ears open, which is the main requirement in the security, they are in danger” (P2). Regarding improper uniform of security guards, P6 attributed it to lack of time to take care of their hygiene and cleanliness, hence some workers wear untidy and un-ironed uniforms. P2, who had also worked as a patrolling guard during his full-time period, reported he had seen many security guards sleeping inside their cars while they were deployed as lone workers at vulnerable sites. He went on to note that these guards were immature and did not understand that being unconscious of their surroundings would result in delayed response to imminent threats and risk. P6 and P7 also reported negligent attitudes of some security guards (at vulnerable sites) who signed on for duty when they were not “physically present” at a site and remained off-site for a couple of hours because patrolling teams did not visit the sites during the first few hours.

This study also identified the participants’ intention to save the deposit money (FTS) and “work more hours to meet their expenses” (P4). P5 affirmed that investment in overseas

education was the only saving of his family, so he was bound to complete his education on time, “work more” and obliged to send return on investments as early as he could. This is a common theme among international students, that has also previously been reported by Butcher and McGrath (2004) and Yuan et al. (2014). Three participants discussed this FTS during the interviews while only P7 pointed out that international students generally took loans from their relatives or banks to transfer the deposit money to FTS in NZ, and were hence “forced to work harder” to send this money back as early as possible:

They [international students] plan like they will keep on sending this money back to their country... they do not spend this money here; instead, they yearn to earn more to keep their deposit money safe. So, they are always ready to work because they have to pay off their debts. (P6).

This saving and remitting of funds is likely the principal reason for the increased financial vulnerability of international student workers, pressuring them to work more hours and eventually be exploited at the hands of subcontractors within the SINZ. Further, according to P5, living exclusively on the deposit money was also financially challenging because of its inadequacy, so in this case, when international students turn to a secondary source of income outside, they become more vulnerable to exploitation due to their limited working rights and lack of control over employment conditions. Therefore, as outlined earlier, escaping exploitation while working with a subcontractor is not fully under the control of international students. Certainly, this finding also questions the role of Immigration New Zealand in cross-checking the credibility of deposit money. According to National Business Review (2016, as cited in Stringer, 2016), the then-Immigration Minister of NZ admitted facing increased problems in confirming the credibility of the documents sent by agents offshore, hence the Ministry have had always relied on the declarations provided by international students that the information was correct.

4.4.5. Concluding remarks.

The underlying feature of this theme was that both the participants and the subcontractors were engaged in questionable and sometimes unethical practices in the SINZ. Nevertheless, there were some practices entirely in the hands of subcontractors, where the participants were found powerless and compelled to work under those conditions. For instance, apart from the participants who were willing to work more and get exploited, there were some participants worried about punishments of zero-hours weeks and subsequently their inability to meet the expenses. Thus, it was not under the control of participants to decide how many hours, where and when they should work and secondly, their supervisors knew they would neither get a job with main-contractor nor desirable working shifts in the other industry, further encouraging exploitative practices.

Chapter # 5: Conclusion

5.1. Introduction and Overview

The purpose of this study was to examine the experiences of international students engaged in non-standard work within the SINZ, along with the implications for their wellbeing. Being privy to the security industry due to my position, I realised the need to constitute a study around the experiences of international students working as security guards. The motive was to provide a voice for international students' experiences to relevant authorities to address the psychosocial and physical risks within the SINZ, consequently improving the overall wellbeing of these students.

However, there was a crucial gap in the literature at both the national and global level, examining the experiences of international students working as security guards in the security industry. Furthermore, within the context of NZ, the literature pertaining to both areas of interest (i.e. international students and security industry of this study) was sparse, with only a handful of studies discussing the statutory and regulatory environment of the SINZ (Bradley & Sedgwick, 2009; Bradley, 2016, 2017). Therefore, the present study was conducted to address this research gap along with the need to protect the rights of international students working as security guards while highlighting the work-related and health and safety issues within the SINZ.

This chapter presents the theoretical contributions of the study findings in section 5.2, followed by a discussion of practical implications in section 5.3. In section 5.4, it highlights the limitations of the study and suggests future research areas that can be explored while building on the study findings. Section 5.5 then concludes by emphasising the overall contributions of this study.

5.2. Theoretical Contributions

This section represents the key theoretical and empirical contributions of the study as informed by the analysis of data and key themes generated.

Firstly, in the context of NZ, this is a pioneer study in identifying accessibility issues about seeking employment, standard work arrangements, adequate OHS practices and minimum working rights within the SINZ. The previous studies conducted around the SINZ (Bradley, 2016, 2017) had only focused on assessing its regulatory framework, drivers of growth, professionalism and standards, whereas an attempt to understand the experiences of security guards was generally ignored. The comprehensive focus of this study on the unmediated experiences of security guards had unearthed an on-ground reality of the SINZ, which was never explored before. In this regard, the key contribution of this study was the analytical distinction between ‘good sites’ and ‘vulnerable sites’ based on the participants’ experiences related to in/accessibility to standard work arrangements, effective training and OHS practices at the sites. Identification of differentiated site types, and their associated psychosocial impact on the participants, contribute to an understanding that security guards have different experience based on the context of their work which is largely dependent on the site characteristics and management. In addition to the general site context, attention to OHS practices was shown to be varied and, in many cases, it was observed that lack of attention to differentiated site type, and accompanying attention to OHS significantly impacted the physical and psychosocial wellbeing of the participants. This finding extends understandings in the existing literature (Anderson et al., 2012; Campbell et al., 2016; Clibborn, 2015; Ferguson & Danckert, 2015; Nyland et al., 2009; Stringer, 2016; United Voice, 2013) by pinpointing why security guards have heterogenous experiences in their work related to their psychosocial wellbeing, based on controllable factors such as working hours and functions, OHS practices (PPE, team support, training and induction), racial harassment and exploitation. The

‘controllable’ factors identified can therefore inform practical implications that might be adopted by the industry to improve the management of sites to reduce characteristics typical of ‘vulnerable sites’ and increase the safety and psychosocial wellbeing of security guards by placing emphasis on ways to increase the number of ‘good sites’.

Secondly, the study contributed to theory that international students working as security guards experienced psychologically disturbing racially aggressive situations and expressed feelings of disappointment, disrespect and shame (Babacan et al., 2010; Nalla et al., 2017; Nyland et al., 2010). Also, the study identified the importance of much-needed public support for international students working as security guards as they lacked cultural knowledge to effectively deal with locals and feared escalation that can become a reason for their deportation. Indeed, the study added that it was extremely challenging for international students to satisfy the exceeding requirements of their studies while working as a security guard through a subcontractor.

Lastly, the study revealed the exploitative practices, as well as coercion and punishment within the SINZ, extending existing knowledge about such practices (Anderson et al., 2012; Stringer, 2016; United Voice, 2013; Yuan et al., 2014) in the unique context of the security industry. Moreover, to the best of my knowledge, the literature reviewed in this study about the security industry neither included any migrant worker nor discussed their exploitation; the current study has also addressed this gap. Most importantly, the study made a novel theoretical contribution in discussing the self-exploitative behaviour of international students to overwork to meet their financial obligations (Butcher & McGrath, 2004; Babacan et al., 2010; Marginson, 2012;). This empirical finding based within the NZ context should stimulate further interest in the area of international student work experience in NZ, and the context of employment within the security industry, to further build a picture about how the NZ Government and other stakeholder groups might take action to protect young migrant workers who often feel

powerless in resisting exploitation and therefore being able to protect their own safety as a vulnerable cohort of workers contributing to NZ society.

5.3. Practical Implications of Key Findings

The findings from this research highlighted the vulnerability of international students and threats to their psychosocial wellbeing and physical safety while working as part-time security guards in the security industry of Auckland, New Zealand. Based on the findings, specific recommendations are suggested for (1) the security companies or employers themselves, (2) the Private Security Personnel and Licensing Authority (PSPLA), and (3) the NZ Government and regulators.

5.3.1. The security companies: main contractors and subcontractors.

As employers, security companies are responsible for the health and safety of their security guards according to Health and safety at work Act (2015; MBIE, 2017). While the findings of this research identified several areas of health and safety that needed improvement, a few broad recommendations have been suggested below.

- 1) ***Better occupational health and safety practices-*** the security companies should formulate a set of standard operating procedures about OHS of their security guards, in compliance with existing legislation such as the Health and Safety at Work Act (2015; MBIE, 2017). It should include implementing several essential practices: (a) conducting the risk assessment of sites – identifying workplace hazards and training the security guards on dealing with the hazards, (b) equipping the security guards with proper PPE i.e., radio transmitters and proper uniforms whereas torch lights, umbrellas, goggles, gloves, safety shoes or safety helmets, based on the nature of the site, and (c) conducting effective induction programs to educate the security guards on basic site

descriptions, i.e. passcodes, emergency exits or assembly areas, at the least. The provision of radio transmitters to security guards can also be used to confirm their welfare and presence.

Furthermore, all security guards should be provided with better kitchen and toilet facilities at each site. The security companies should negotiate with clients and require them to provide security guards access to a clean toilet and kitchen facilities, as the findings in this study suggested security guards were asked to use the unsanitary toilets outside as well as not given access to kitchen facilities, even when these were available. At highly vulnerable sites, security guards should work in pairs and be provided with safe rooms which they can lock from inside in case of an intrusion to keep themselves safe. The suggested health and safety measures will never be realised unless both main-contractors and clients are interested in improving these.

- 2) ***Improved communication***- the flow of communication between the security companies and the clients should be improved, as currently, the communication network entails a series of complicated internal communication channels within each party that contributes to confusion and distortion of information. For instance, the security agreement signs between clients and main-contractors and within the latter, a set of job requirements passes through Manager to Area Manager to Site-supervisor and then finally to security guard belonging to either subcontractor or main-contractor. This process often results in communication delays and misrepresentation of information as there is no set procedure that should guide when to inform subcontractor regarding requirement of a security guard. The improved communication framework should include timelines to ensure the timely flow of information between security companies. This communication framework would significantly reduce uncertainty around work schedules and the instances of on-call or emergency shifts that were identified as

causing extreme disturbance to the psychosocial wellbeing of international students in the study. Working on a communication framework would also provide enough time to subcontractors to arrange and position an inducted guard at a site.

- 3) ***Categorising vulnerable sites***- identification of risk assessment (mentioned above) can also be extended to categorise the vulnerable sites, i.e. less vulnerable or highly vulnerable. This categorisation should guide the decisions of security companies concerning deployment of security guards. For instance, professional (full-time/permanent) and experienced security guards should be deployed at the “highly vulnerable sites” and new staff at less vulnerable or good sites. Likewise, different training and developments plans should be devised for each group of workers, i.e. full-time/ permanent or part-time/temporary, thereby providing them with sufficient training and resourcing to assume positions in more vulnerable sites. The results of the risk assessment of vulnerable sites should guide both main-contractors and clients to formulate safety measures aimed at improving the basic security infrastructure to transform vulnerable sites into less vulnerable or good sites. Thus, the scope of main-contractors is to suggest safety measures while security infrastructure upgrades and required investment falls under the scope of clients, which can still be overseen by main contractors. In this respect, main-contractors should have more of a responsibility to ensure they are not deploying security guards to highly vulnerable and risky sites. Therefore, their responsibilities should not begin and end with suggesting safety measures, but perhaps they should not even have contracts with clients who cannot meet these basic health and safety standards.
- 4) ***Compensation and benefits***- the wages for hours worked should be complemented with compensation of casual employment allowance, on-call allowance and night/weekend shift allowance to make the earnings adequate to meet international student guards’

needs. This is already happening in Australia where casual employees are entitled to casual loading of 25% on an hourly wage rate (Fair Work Ombudsman, 2016a; as cited in Bone, 2019) and the penalty rates for public holiday and night shift work on top of casual loadings (Campbell et al., 2016). Specifically, the subcontractors should pay the minimum benefits, i.e. sick leave, annual leave or alternative day off as required by the leave and holidays guidelines published by Employment New Zealand (2019d) whereas the findings suggested this is currently not occurring. This compensation, along with benefits, may discourage students of involving into “illegal activities” of working extra hours as their needs were met through legal means. Likewise, it would also increase international students’ ability to manage their workloads and keep their overall wellbeing in check.

For the effective implementation of the suggested measures across the SINZ, auditing of the security industry is required to ensure that the employers of security guards are providing basic work entitlements and abiding by NZ law. Stern penalties in place for breaches of employment legislation should be highlighted to security guard contractors and possibly an inquiry into this industry is required to regulate practices.

5.3.2. The Private Security Personnel and Licensing Authority (PSPLA).

The study findings call for the increased role of the PSPLA in overseeing the practices of the security companies, uplifting the overall working standards of the security industry and subsequently reducing the vulnerability of the security guards. In line with this, the following recommendations are proposed:

- 1) ***Redesigning the mandatory training programs***- firstly, self-defence training should be included in the mandatory training program because of its usefulness, especially for the security guards working alone, who may be left to deal with the situation until backup

arrives. Secondly, first aid training should be provided to security guards as its importance was noted during the first few minutes of an emergency. Thirdly, training to handle racially aggressive situations was also underscored in the findings since the security guards working in Auckland were mostly immigrants or international students. The inclusion of these three training programs may enhance the comprehensiveness of mandatory training as well as the self-confidence and capability of the security guards to manage the conflicting situation effectively. Last and relatedly, the requirement to obtain a temporary security licence before undergoing mandatory training program should be revoked. It is ineffective to spend \$200 to get this licence where the same money can be used to increase the comprehensiveness of mandatory training programs. Currently, all the training fees, i.e. \$200 for temporary COA and \$400 (approx.) for permanent COA are being paid by international students working through subcontractors, whereas based on anecdotal evidence, main-contractors are paying the fee for the permanent COA. Therefore, considering the financial vulnerability of international students which the study had suggested, subcontractors must, at minimum, pay for the permanent COA training fee.

- 2) ***Working together***- the PSPLA should lead initiatives and work together with the security companies in formulating and designing the measures proposed above. A team can be formed consisting of members of the party security companies tasked with ensuring the implementation of proposed measures at all levels and taking legal actions in case of non-compliance. This team can take a form of security industry auditors, as mentioned above. However, the ultimate responsibility to implement the proposed policies should be of the security companies, in line with the Health and Safety at work Act (2015: MBIE, 2017) while the PSPLA should play a supervisory role.

5.3.3. The New Zealand Government.

The findings suggested the need for more effective policy measures around both employment and immigration-related concerns that fall under the domain of Ministry of Business and Innovation (MBIE), New Zealand.

- 1) ***Compliance to Employment Law***- The NZ government should ensure strict checks and balances around employment practices of subcontractors that have been identified exploitative by some participants. One such practice can be the regular inspection of employee's record, i.e. wages, time, leave and other related documents held with employers by labour inspectors, NZ. The role of labour inspectors is to 'enforce and monitor minimum employment standards' at work and take corrective action in case of non-compliance (Employment New Zealand, 2019f). The media reports circulating these days highlighted the increased enforcement of employment standards by labour inspectors recently, and of the total cases, more than half involve migrant workers (Cropp, 2019; Sharpe, 2019). Considering the pervasiveness of exploitation of migrant workers and the fact that SINZ employs many, there is a need for increased intervention on the part of labour inspectors to address exploitation and also to ensure that employers do not exploit loopholes and disguised employment practices to evade their responsibilities in the SINZ. These measures will play a substantial role in denouncing the illegal practices of underpayments or non-payment of wages in the security industry.
- 2) ***Addressing racism and discriminatory attitudes and behaviours***- The MBIE through Immigration New Zealand should inculcate a hospitable and inclusive national culture that is welcoming to international students belonging to diverse communities and cultures. For instance, the findings suggested the initiation of diverse cultural sharing programs focussed on reshaping the general perception of locals regarding international students that they are not the "burden on the society" but "respectable, educated and

tax-paying class working towards the betterment of this country”. The findings were indicative of racially aggressive behaviours targeted at international students by few locals, and they needed to feel safe from that. Education is a million-dollars export industry in NZ (Hipkins, 2018), and it has always been in the best interest of the government to boost this economy by encouraging student-friendly immigration policies (Marginson, 2012). International students pay thousands of dollars in study fees and applied through proper visa procedures that NZ government approved, left their families behind, so they do not – and should not – expect dehumanising and discriminatory behaviour based on their religion, nationality or race.

Similarly, Babacan et al. (2010) investigated the experiences of international students concerning their safety in Melbourne, Australia and found greater risks for racism among those least resembling white students. As a model of addressing racism, Babacan et al. (2010) stressed the need to identify and name racism at all levels and called on all the stakeholders, i.e. education providers, government agencies, ethnic communities, employers and police to devise a cohesive strategy that addresses racism at each level. Likewise, in NZ, there is a need to conduct further investigations to identify and name the racism in all of its forms, to develop cohesive policy measures enlisting clear responsibilities for all the stakeholders. To ensure implementation, auditing of follow-up procedures should be incorporated in policy measures to ensure that racial harassment and verbal abuse is not tolerated and is dealt with accordingly. The gravity of the problem suggests it should be dealt with immediately, but it would take time to realise the proposed policy measures of this across the board. Nonetheless, to address the racism continuous present at a micro level, international students in the security training programs should be trained in how to deal with this harassment and whom to report if confronted with such situations.

3) *Awareness around basic information*- The NZ government through Immigration New Zealand should organise mandatory orientation programs for international students to educate them on the issues of interest and assure them of support and guidance. This is because when the students arrive here everything changes from culture to language to supermarkets, so they should be taught on what should they do or whom to contact in different situations. These programs can be supplemented with counselling sessions arranged for those students finding it difficult to cope with the changing environment, as well as complemented by Institutional orientation programs for International Students. Awareness about employment rights should also be included as it may discourage the unsolicited exploitative practices of subcontractors. International students can be given a helpline number where they can anonymously report hazards associated with their work environment and employment. In this regard, the model of Darebin Overseas Students Association can be followed which was established by Darebin City Council, Australia to enable international students to voice their concern to local governments and relevant authorities (Paltridge et al., 2012). Similarly, local governments of Dandenong and Melbourne in Australia have organised language service, and community events for international students to promote multiculturalism (Paltridge et al., 2012). The transferability of these programs to a NZ context can also be assessed.

These measures, when taken together, will significantly improve the overall working environment of the security industry along with the wellbeing of international students. While constraints of financial and human resources might inhibit the government's ability to implement these measures simultaneously, it is not good enough that these practices continue to exist, and resource constraints should not be an excuse. NZ has a responsibility to protect all people living and working in this country – particularly those young people who are in

vulnerable situations and being exploited because of their residency status, ethnicity and age. International student guards are working in NZ to protect the general public, ensure the safety of public places and create a safe environment for people to enjoy. The security guards themselves do not receive any of the same protections or safety in their employment – they are here to serve but receive nothing back. If the NZ Government and legislative bodies were to protect international students and security guards particularly, this would flow-over to change the culture. It is unacceptable that we place international student guards in a position of “protector” within society while offering no protection for them.

5.4. Limitations and Future Research Areas

The sampling strategy of the study was to target all the international students working in the SINZ; however, all the participants recruited in this study were from south-east Asia. This is because, based on my “insider” knowledge, the majority of the international students working in the SINZ through subcontractors are south-east Asian – with most being Indian. Hence, the study recruited mostly Indian participants, i.e. 6 out of 7. This smaller sampling of international students consisting of mostly Indian participants may prevent “transferability” (Bryman & Bell, 2015) of findings to the broader context of the security industry across NZ. Indeed, future research using a bigger and more diverse sample reflective of the profile of security guards in the industry across NZ should be considered.

Furthermore, the study has only included the perspectives of international student guards as I wanted to focus on their subjective experiences with the SINZ. Thus, considering their opinions exclusively to inform policy measures might not be a robust and multi-level approach to address the identified problems. Therefore, future research is required to gain other stakeholder perspectives (e.g. main contractors or sub-contractors, as well as representatives

from PSPLA and MBIE) to improve the effectiveness of proposed interventions. This would provide diverse perspectives and allow for a multi-level approach to addressing the problems.

5.5. Conclusion

The study has made a specific contribution to the body of knowledge in the field of psychosocial risks by exploring experiences of international students' engagement with non-standard work in the security industry of NZ. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study to focus on the work arrangements in the security industry and its implications for the psychosocial wellbeing of international student guards in NZ. This study has highlighted the vulnerability of international students in the overall environment of the security industry in this country, from finding a job to accessing adequate provisions (fixed rosters, training, PPE, income and benefits), to being able to maintain a healthy lifestyle. The findings have also outlined the stressful experiences of international students due to both vulnerability at work and extended engagements with studies.

Furthermore, the findings identified that international students' inability to join main-contractors forced them to join subcontractors operating under limited employment regulation. In contrast, joining subcontractors was also a deliberate choice of some international students to get flexible work schedules, greater range of shifts and more hours, which highlighted their financial vulnerability to subcontractors. Consequently, the subcontractors capitalised on their increased power to exploit international students and denied minimum employment rights and benefits to them. Clearly the SINZ offers some attractive employment options for international students, however adherence to basic employment rights, entitlements and protections would hugely improve the working conditions of these workers who are vulnerable based on their visa status, lack of local knowledge, and reliance on this income for survival while living away from home.

Moreover, regardless of their affiliation with a particular employer (main contractor or subcontractor) or nature of the site (“good” vs “vulnerable”), international students are exposed to multiple psychosocial and physical risks while performing their duties as security guards. This includes the occurrence of racial harassment and physical abuse that were found to have damaging effects on the psychosocial and physical wellbeing of international students. Resultantly, international students perceived themselves powerless and helpless beings in the overall environment of the security industry and termed it unsafe and dangerous for inexperienced and temporary migrant workers like them. Together, the findings emphasise an urgent need for devising joint policy initiatives by all the stakeholders to dramatically improve the security industry to make it a safe place for international students to work.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Interview Schedule

Personal Information:

Name of the Participant: _____

Country: _____ Age: _____ Gender: _____

Study program (in host country): _____

Licensing requirements to work as a Security Guard:

Type of licences you have: (1) _____ (2) _____

Cost Incurred (each license): (1) _____ (2) _____

Who paid for the license costs: _____

Mandatory trainings to obtain these licences: _____

Other requirements (if any): _____

Personal circumstances of the Participant related to Work and Education

- Why adopted different education in host country? (for some participants where the difference is obvious and striking e.g. from business to IT)- The reason for asking this question is that agents in the home country influence applicants' study choice for their vested interests.
- What were your inspirations and aspirations for choosing New Zealand as a destination?
- Did you apply through agent? What was his role in influencing your decision of choosing a country, educational institute, and level and type of education?

Security Related Training Programs and Their Effectiveness

- Security Guards usually undergo some training programs to obtain the security licences (temporary/ permanent Certificate of Approval) and work effectively as a security guard in the NZ security industry, could you please comment on the effectiveness of the trainings with regards to their usefulness to perform the job?
 - In what ways that training programs were conducted? Theory and practice?
 - What type of training materials were given to you?
 - How participants' knowledge was assessed? Methods used i.e. practical demonstration, theory testing, class room tests, assignments etc.

Work Arrangements in the Security Industry

- How many types of jobs you have performed (sites covered) as a security guard?
 - please explain any particular site in detail (where you have worked frequently) with respect to the guard's responsibilities, reporting mechanism, shift type (day/night), duration, facilities (access to kitchen and toilets), peer or organizational support, cleanliness, welfare and safety, surveillance, emergency response time etc.? (explain more if you work at more than one site frequently)
 - Also explain the type of work involved at that particular site?
 - How many days or hours a week you work? Does it suit to your study schedule?

(Interview Schedule Continued)

- What is the nature of your employment contract? Please explain with respect to its employment features i.e. contractual, contract duration, temporary/ permanent, part-time/ full-time, notice period from the both employee and employer, fixed/ irregular working hours, type of shift, site location etc.
 - Did you read and understand your employment contract? Were you given a copy of that?
- What are the details of your compensation and benefits package? Please explain with respect to the following entitlements: wages, sick leave, annual leave, holiday pay, over time payments, (fuel reimbursement or mobile allowance- if you use your personal vehicle or mobile for job purposes).
 - Have you received any training which was funded by your employer? If any, please explain;
 - Are there any specific reasons for working with a sub-contractor? Please explain;
 - Did you apply for a job to the main-contractor?
 - What are the differences between working for either contractor? Please explain

Experience with NZ Security Industry

- What were the reasons for preferring this industry for part-time work over others such as food (Restaurants, cafes, bars), and retail (departmental stores, shopping malls) etc? who referred to you? How did you apply?
- Normally when are you provided with the next week's schedule by your supervisor? Are the shifts type (day/night), working hours or site location remain fixed or changes every week?
 - Why schedule varies every week?
 - What are the challenges you face due to irregular working hours, shifts or site locations?
 - How much control do you have to select working hours, shifts or site locations for you?
 - Do you prefer any particular shift, site or working days for work? Why?
 - What are the consequences if you refuse to work on your company's schedule?
 - If you have had done that in the past, what were the reasons for your refusal? What happened?
 - Do you ever have had to leave the college for work? What were the circumstances? How frequently does it happen?
- How frequently do you receive an emergency call to cover a site/report to work as soon as possible?
 - How do you respond to such calls?
 - What are the challenges you face when you are compelled/ requested to go to work on short notices?
 - Do you feel threatened of being removed from the roster or assigned lesser shifts in future if you do not respond positively to your supervisor's call?

(Interview Schedule Continued)

- Please describe your weekly engagements in terms of hours you spend on studies and do work per week?
 - What are the challenges are you facing with regards to balancing your studies and work?
- Are your sick leave (up to 5 per year) paid? How do you manage when you get sick?

Health and Safety Practices

- Can you tell me about how health and safety is managed at your working site?
 - Are you provided with proper Personal Protective Equipment (PPE) based on the nature of site? For instance, face mask, goggles, and ear drums when you work at construction site?
 - How important is self-defence training at your work to cope with the violent incidents? Did you receive any occupational health and safety training?
 - Is your company concerned with your health and safety at work? Please describe the checks involved and also comment on the effectiveness of the checks
 - Have you or your colleague (from the same industry) ever been into the vulnerable/ problematic/ conflicting situation? Describe the situation in detail and what followed afterwards?
 - Have you ever been into the situation when you had to call for the emergency services i.e. police, ambulance, fire rescue etc.? Describe the situation in detail
 - Have you ever been physically injured at work? What were the circumstances and severity of the injury? Were you compensated?
 - Did you ever have to leave the work site due to health problem? What caused that?
 - Please comment on the overall hygiene and safety level of the sites you have worked and your satisfaction with that. If not, did you report to your company about that? Why/ why not?
 - Are you aware of all the hazards at work?

Psychosocial Wellbeing

- Describe in detail the life style you are living in New Zealand with respect to the quality of accommodation (single/shared), personal conveyance, quality of food, friends and family etc
 - Days you get off in a week? Fixed or irregular?
 - Do you eat at home or outside? Why?
 - Are you able to afford sufficient amount of quality food (fruits and vegetables, grains, dairy products, cereals etc) to maintain a healthy diet?
 - What type of physical exercise do you do? How often in a week? If none, why?
 - Do you spend time with friends or family? How often in a week? If none or less, why? attend social gatherings or events.
 - What do you do in your leisure time?
- Please comment on your overall physical and psychological health;

(Interview Schedule Continued)

- How often do you feel tired, fatigued or physical pain? Is it because of work nature?
- How often do you fall sick? Type of sickness and reason
- Any physical health problem such as headache, stomach disorder, back pain etc.
- Do you worry about every day events or what is happening in life?
- Are you satisfied or happy with your overall life? How much? Why/ Why not?
- Do you get enough time (7-8 hrs/ day) to sleep? If not, why? sleeping disorder (waking up during sleep), difficulty in falling asleep, not feeling enough rested?
- How are you coping up with the health problems (if any) i.e. a specialized treatment from the doctor, self-treatment by taking medicines/ home remedies, or other treatments? (removed drugs or substance abuse)
- Feelings of homesickness, isolation, stress disorder, anxiety disorder, anger disorder etc. why do you feel such? What are the reasons?
- How would you describe your overall experience with the security industry as an international student?
 - Challenges to balance the workload of studies and work
 - Challenges to start a life in a new country
 - Implications for overall health and wellbeing
- Is there any other thing you want to add?

Can I contact if I have any further questions? _____

How should I contact you: Phone # _____ OR Email Id: _____

-----**Thank You**-----

Appendix B. Information Sheet

Information Sheet

Researcher Introduction

My name is Hafiz Arslan, and I am a Research Scholar from Massey University- Albany Campus and conducting research, as part of my Master's thesis, on psychosocial risks (psychological, physical and social risks) experienced by International Students in the Security Industry in Auckland, New Zealand.

Project Description and Invitation

This study intends to examine the personal experiences of international students with non-standard work arrangements (as defined below) in the security industry in Auckland, New Zealand and the possible implications for their wellbeing. The research pertaining to the overall characteristics and work arrangements in the NZ security industry and nature of experiences of international students with non-standard work is very sparse and suggests that more work in these areas is required. Therefore, for the advancement of knowledge in this area, I request your participation in the study.

Participation Criteria

You are eligible to participate in the study if you are:

- (a) Currently an International student
- (b) Currently working in the Security Industry in Auckland, New Zealand for more than three months
- (c) working under the employment contract that fulfils the criteria of non-standard work which is defined as a temporary, part-time, irregular, shift work, shorter/longer hours of work, fixed-term contracts, and contractual with limited employment benefits and limited protection against unfair dismissals.

Research Procedures

Participation in the study is entirely voluntary and based on informed consent. You will not be coerced in any way or offered incentives to participate or disclose any information you are not comfortable to share with the researcher. You are not likely to experience any discomfort or harm as a result of your participation in the study. Should you agree to participate in the study, contact the researcher on the contact details listed below to discuss the interview procedures, location and timings, and receive an interview schedule and consent form before the interview so you could think of the interview questions beforehand. The researcher will also obtain the consent form signed by you before the interview.

(Information sheet continued)

Interviews are expected to take approximately 60-90 minutes and will be conducted face-to-face between you and the researcher at the place that is quiet and free of distractions and at the time and location that suits us both. The interview will be conducted outside your working site after the employment hours to avoid the issues of conflict of interest and to protect your anonymity further. With your consent, the interview will be recorded using the voice recorder for transcription purposes only.

Participant's Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- decline to answer any question;
- withdraw any or all the information you have provided for a period of up to two weeks from the date of the interview;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name and organisation will not be used and no identifying information about you will be made available in the write-up of findings;
- be given access to a summary of the study findings (1-2 pages) on completion;
- ask for the recorder to be paused or turned off at any time during the interview;

Project Contacts

If you are interested in participating or have any queries, please contact me (Hafiz Arslan) or my supervisors directly.

Researcher Contact

I can be contacted at [REDACTED] or on [REDACTED].

Supervisor Contact

Dr. Kate Bone can be contacted at K.Bone@massey.ac.nz and Dr. Natalia D'Souza can be contacted at N.J.D'Souza@massey.ac.nz.

Additional Help & Support

Please contact the Human Rights Commission, NZ at 0800 496 877 for employment-related concerns and Lifeline, NZ at 0800 54 33 54 for mental and health support.

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, Application NOR 18/69. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Associate Professor David Tappin (Committee Chair), Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, email humanethicsnorth@massey.ac.nz

Appendix C. Screening Checklist

Screening Checklist

For the Selection of Participants in the Research Project

Name: _____ Date: _____

Please tick/ cross all the statements that apply. Disagreement to any statement below would indicate that you are not eligible to participate in the study.

-
- I am an international student in Auckland, New Zealand and enrolled in the study program on full-time basis
 - I am currently working as a Security Guard in Auckland, New Zealand
 - I have been working as a security guard in the security industry in Auckland, New Zealand for more than three months

-----**Thank You**-----

Appendix D. Participant Consent Form

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I have read, and I understand the Information Sheet provided to me. I have had the details of the study explained to me, any questions I had have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time. I have been given sufficient time to consider whether to participate in this study and I understand participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time.

1. I agree/do not agree to the interview being sound recorded.
2. I wish/do not wish to have my recordings returned to me.
3. I wish/do not wish to review a copy of my transcript.
4. I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.
5. I wish/do not wish to receive a summary of findings.

Declaration by Participant:

I _____ hereby consent to take part in this study.

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Appendix E. Ethics Approval Letter



Date: 05 February 2019

Dear Arslan Arslan

Re: Ethics Notification - **NOR 18/69 - Psychosocial Risks Experienced By International Non-Standard Workers In The Security Industry In New Zealand**

Thank you for the above application that was considered by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: **Human Ethics Northern Committee** at their meeting held on **Tuesday, 5 February, 2019**.

Approval is for three years. If this project has not been completed within three years from the date of this letter, reapproval must be requested.

If the nature, content, location, procedures or personnel of your approved application change, please advise the Secretary of the Committee.

Yours sincerely

Professor Craig Johnson
Chair, Human Ethics Chairs' Committee and Director (Research Ethics)