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**The Effects of Precarious Employment on Quality of Life in Indonesian Workers**

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## **ABSTRACT**

This study discusses about the emerging phenomena of precarious working conditions and quality of life in Indonesian urban workers. Although it is a concept that has been discussed widely in the western countries, there is only arguably a few notable studies that has been conducted within the Indonesian background. Precarious working conditions arguably increased within Indonesia when labour outsourcing was legalized in 2003 with the enactment of Labour Law No. 13/2003. The law that came from an agreement between the government and the International Monetary Fund regarding the labour flexibility policy. This study addresses the question of whether and how working conditions, work-life balance, and job satisfaction affects the subjective life satisfaction of the Indonesian urban workers. This research using questions derived from the European Quality of Life Survey since there are no datasets for secondary analysis, therefore a survey was conducted modifying the EQLS for the Indonesian context. The results suggest that the conditions are different from the conditions in Europe. Where in Indonesia, work-life balance has a slightly bigger influence on affecting the life satisfaction rather than the job satisfaction of the workers.



## **Chapter 1**

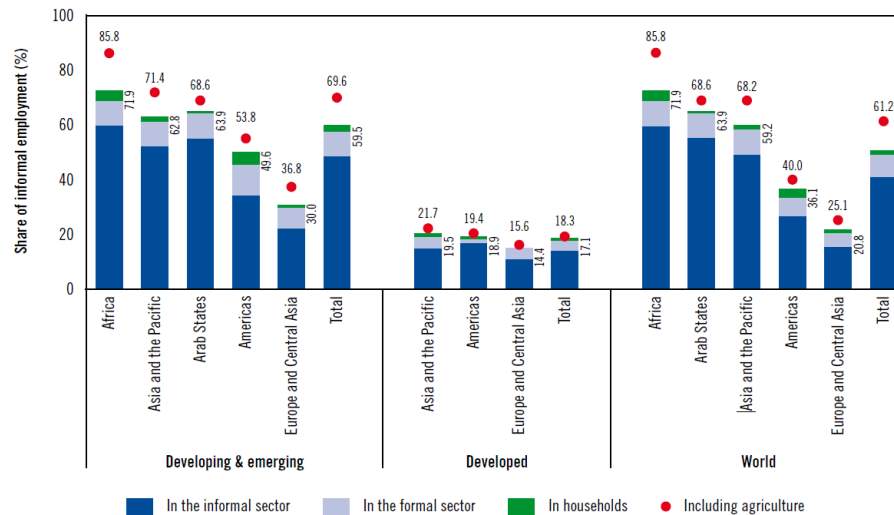
### ***Introduction***

“Working is a core activity in a society” (Kalleberg, 2009 p.1). Often, a standard or formal form of employment is usually assumed to include full-time and permanent employment offering regularly wages and work for designated hours by the employer (Hewison & Kalleberg, 2012). Moreover, employment rights are determined by laws and/or legal contracts that attach the workers to their employers. Precarious work is then often defined in contrast as work that lacks permanence and regularity. Furthermore, it can include several specific characteristics such as unregulated, part-time, self-employed, casual, temporary, on-call, done at home, outsourced, and often provided by (often global) labour recruitment agencies (Kalleberg, 2009). Precarious workers generally have low wages, few or no benefits, limited or no collective representation, and little job security where employees bear the risk of work (Vosko, 2010). The various forms of precarious work itself are not especially new (Seymour, 2012).

It is important to understand how precarious work is changing not just the way people work but also the way that they live. Without regular and predictable employment, precarious workers also experience forms of social precarity (Seymour, 2012). Income generation is an activity that involves an extended family. Other families may be geologically scattered as migration for work and income generation become family survival strategies, with both rural-urban and cross-border migration being significant in the Asian region. Educational and housing stability can then become difficult to maintain. Social exclusion may also result from unemployment, precarious employment, poverty, and inequality (Bayón, 2006).

Another interesting point is the changing shape of the formal-informal work landscape. Studies from the International Labour Organization (2016) on the women and men in the informal economy around the world found that In Asia, 68.2 per cent of employment is informal. The proportion is 85.8 per cent in Africa, 68.6 per cent in the Arab States, 40 per cent in the Americas, and just over 25 per cent in Europe and Central Asia (See Figure 1). The high percentage of the informal sector could indicate the high amount of precarious conditions in the developing countries since the informal sectors line of work mostly were not backed by any form of the labour contract . However, there were also many workers who worked in a formal sector undergoing

precarious working conditions due to the lack of benefits, inadequate level of payment, or the conditions of contracts that made them perceptible to the precarious working conditions (Herman, Bobkov, & Csoba, 2014).



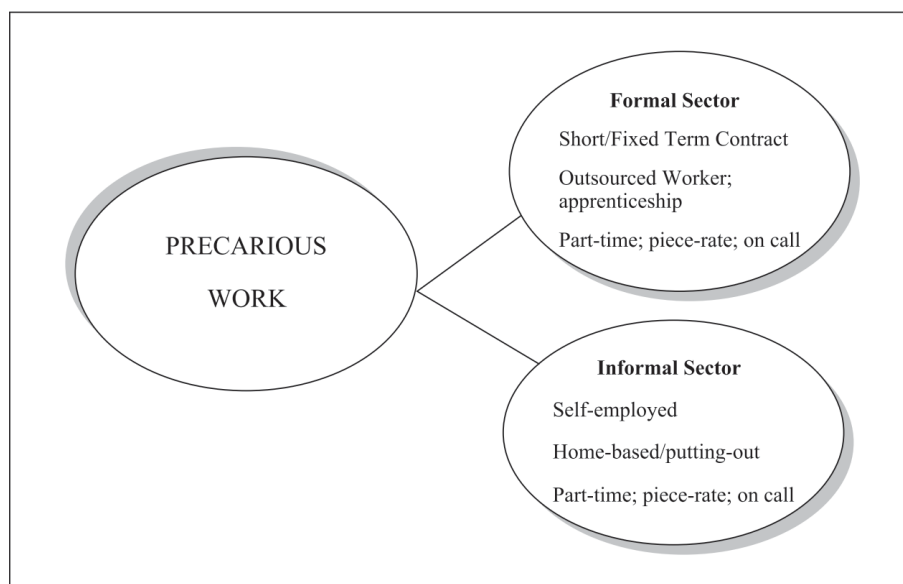
**Figure 1. Components of informal employment as a percentage of total employment: the informal sector, formal sector and household sector (in percentages) Source: (ILO, 2016)**

As the world’s biggest archipelago and ranked 4<sup>th</sup> as the highest population nation in the world (Worldometers, 2018), Indonesia is home to almost 300 million people. Indonesia gained their independence in August 1945 after previously being colonized for over 400 years by the Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, England, and the Japanese during the Second World War (Anderson, 1983). The history of work informalisation began when the 1997 Asian financial crisis brought economic and political chaos for Indonesia where the economy collapsed (Soekarni & Syarifuddin, 2011). In order to cope with the crisis conditions, businesses and liberal economists suggested labour market flexibility as a strategy to minimize the negative impact of economic shocks. The premise is done by hiring and firing workers, which is a necessary step to allow business to adapt more easily to economic shocks as the economy liberalises and internationalises. The Indonesian government decided to institute this policy with the enactment of Labor Law No. 13/2003 (Tjandraningsih & Noegroho, 2008).

The employment of contract and outsourced workers, usually with poor working conditions and job and income insecurity, is seeing increasing numbers trapped in

precarious circumstances (AKATIGA, 2006; Habibi, 2009; Juliawan, 2010; Nugroho, 2004; Tjandraningsih & Nugroho, 2008). Furthermore, the informalisation also limits employment opportunities for those who are still able to work, but not in their most productive age anymore (i.e. for physical work activity). This example of the condition could trigger social conflict among community members, reduces worker's rights and protection, injects the process of informalisation into the formal sector, reduces the quality of life, encourages corruption and exploitation, and leads to labour market distortion.

The largest proportion of the young people in Indonesia (55.7%) can be found in Java, particularly in Jakarta, the capital city area which is located in the northwest part of the island. National census data shows that 52.18% of the young are employed in occupations in the formal and informal sector (Statistics Indonesia 2013). In Jakarta, the employment rate of people in productive age tends to be relatively high, reaching 90.6% in 2013 and 90.16% in 2014. Workers absorbed by the city's informal sector were 26.4% in 2013, and 28.3% in 2014 (Statistics Jakarta 2014). This is all below the national rate, where the percentage of informal employment was 55.1% in 2012 and 53.6% in 2013 (ILO 2013). However, the data still shows that a significant percentage of workers in Jakarta can be considered as precarious due to the informal sector's insecure and 'non-standard' character as figure 2 below suggests.



*Figure 2. Source of Precarious Work in Indonesia (Tjandraningsih, 2013)*

Job satisfaction is often seen as one of the most important aspects of measuring life quality, especially in the European countries (Drobnic, 2010; Delhey, 2004; Böhnke, 2005; Haller and Hadler, 2006). This is arguably explainable by a theory used to explain the relationship between the job satisfaction and life satisfaction, which is spillover theories. Spillover theories predict that satisfaction in one life domain can ‘spill over’ into other life domains (Sirgy et al., 2001; Efraty and Sirgy, 1990; Wilensky, 1960). Thus, satisfaction with the work domain might affect satisfaction with life as the highest-level domain.

However, there is arguably only a handful of studies in Indonesia that discuss both job and life satisfaction of the workers in the scene (Tjandraningsih, 2012). This research will try to analyse how the working conditions of the workers in Indonesia influence their respective job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

### ***Research Outline***

Chapter 1 will explain the background of the research such as the working condition, the main problem in the research, significance of research and the importance of the research. In addition, this chapter will also discuss the research methodology in brief. Next, chapter 2 of this research will review the literature resources that are used in the whole research will be covered. Literature will be from journals, articles, and also books that are relevant to this research topic. Chapter 3 will further discuss the research methods, and conceptual framework will be described. In addition, the hypotheses that will be used as the reference for the research will also be described in detail. Moreover, the sampling technique, study variables, data processing method, and data analysis will also be described in details. Next, Chapter 4 will present the results that derived from both data processing and analysis; then it will be used to conclude the research or answer the research problem.

Finally, Chapter 5 will discuss the overall conclusion from the research will be stated, and suggestion will be given based on the literature review and the research results. The conclusion will provide an answer to the problem formulation in order to meet the research objective. The suggestion will be given to the party who will benefit from this research. It also will explain the limitation of the research and recommendation on any further research.

## **Chapter 2**

This chapter will discuss the literature resources that are essential for the theory behind this research. The main issues to be discussed are the precarious working conditions as a general phenomenon, the impact in the Asian countries; especially in the Indonesian background, what problem is imposed by precarious working conditions, and finally the quality of life and working conditions with their respective issues and theories.

### ***Precarious Working Conditions***

Precarious working conditions have become more prevalent in recent decades mostly in advanced western countries that have moved into an era of post-industrialization (Kalleberg and Vallas, 2017). As one of the most important aspects of perceived quality of life in Europe (Clark 2001, 2005; Haller and Hadler 2006) paid work is argued to provide an individual or a household with a clear time structure, a sense of identity, social status and integration, and opportunities for personal development (Gallie 2002). However, the characteristics vary among the employment type which brings back the problem of precarious employment. There have been general trends in the labour market where currently it is highly characterised by the domination of short-term contracts and/or freelancing rather than permanent employee status jobs, especially in European countries (Standing, 2011). Within other countries, globalization of the economy and labour markets has facilitated a shift away from industrial capital towards big retailers and designer brands as a pattern of consumption, and these conditions could undermine the higher quality of life as being experienced by those in paid employment (Lichenstein, 2009). A move towards the consumer society was often seen as a mark of success by politicians since it is the consumers that keep the economy going by generating demand for goods and services. Without this demand, the supply side of the economy would expire. In other words, consumers are seen as a source of demand are central to the mechanism that makes the economic system run (Goodwin et al., 2008).

Precarious working conditions are not a wholly new phenomena and have a long history going back. Classic social thinkers such as Marx and Weber firstly associated precarity as the result of rapid social change due to industrialization and the emergence of a market economy in the 19<sup>th</sup> centuries (Webster *et al.* 2008: 2–3). Most of the arguments on precarious work as a term is defined by what the workers lack or what they seek for in a paid job but they did not get, some of the factors are: ready access to paid

employment, protection from sudden firing, career progression, long-term stability, work safety, new skills development, living wages, and union representation (Standing, 2011). Most of the modern scholars such as Kalleberg (2009) since then have commonly defined precarious employment as a state of insecurity or risk among the workers.

Olsthoorn (2013) in his work identifies two major indicators of work precariousness. The first indicator is insecurity of sufficient income, where the worker did not feel confident about his/her wage, supplementary income, and unemployment benefits and whether this indicator would enable the worker to avoid being categorised into relative poverty. The wage factor in the matter was further described as an ability to avoid poverty after unemployment as higher wages allows for higher savings and lower wage correlates with the individual's insecurity on their ability to achieve a minimum standard of living which, in this regard varies among the geographic locations and time (Böckerman, 2004). Supplementary income is more related to the income as a household rather than individuals (Vosko, 2006) or in another word, income besides the main salary from a day job. A low supplementary income will further grow individual insecurity of making a decent living when sudden unemployed occurs. Third, unemployment benefits may support an employee enduring unemployment phase should it happen, and without such benefits acting as a safety measure for maintaining a standard of living also contributes to the job insecurity (Loughlin and Murray, 2013).

The second major indicators for work precariousness according to Olsthoorn (2013), is insecurity on the contract and the probability that the workers are not able to secure future employment if the current contract is terminated by the employer. By insecurity on the job, it is more targeted towards the work contracts applied when individuals are applying for a job. Highly insecure/risky contracts mean that there will be a high possibility of a sudden job cut and people would stay unemployed for a significant amount of time after such an event (Böckerman, 2004). Furthermore, it is argued that the type of the employment contract is a good indicator on measuring the precariousness where it is usually easier for the employer to terminate non-permanent contracts and thus, increased the insecurity on the individuals. Several studies mentioned that the practice managed to change the employment relations in many parts of the world and raised concerns about employment protection, statutory benefits and collective

bargaining rights of agency workers (Arrowsmith 2006; Cowell & Singh 2002; Matiaske & Nienhuser 2006; Sayeed et al. 1997). And with the increasing trends in outsourcing practices, it is argued that it also contributes to increasing work precariousness among working individuals. Kalleberg (2009) and Leschke and Keune (2008) also used non-permanent contracts as an indicator for precarious employment in their work, and this research will also use non-permanent contracts as a baseline for working precariousness indicators.

The cause of the precarious working conditions has been widely debated among scholars throughout the last decade (Kalleberg, 2009, Jonna & Foster, 2016); it also varies in degrees between nations and countries due to their respective economic conditions, crises, and the demographics of its people. For example, in Vignoli *et al.*'s study (2016) into job precariousness in Italy, it is argued that the cause of the precarity among Italian workers was the process of labour market flexibilization through the introduction of work-and-training contracts in 1983 followed by the leaner rules for fixed-term contracts, making companies able to make the work contracts of their employees more flexible and thus, imposing precariousness among the workforce. In the American context, Kalleberg (2009) argues that in the United States of America, the start of the growing precarious employment began in the mid to late 1970s where the so-called oil shock jumpstarted the macroeconomic changes that led to increased global price competitions. US manufacturers were challenged in their own market by companies from Japan and South Korea especially in the automobile and steel industries. Furthermore, the amount of competition forced companies to seek an alternative labour pool through outsourcing towards the lower-wage countries and immigrants from those countries.

### ***Problematic Precariousness***

The precarious working conditions have become a challenge and a concern in the modern world (Kalleberg & Hewison, 2013). The term itself, as mentioned before refers to the uncertainty, instability, and insecurity of work where the employees bear the risks instead of the employers or the government, yet they receive limited social benefits and entitlements (Vosko, 2010). Both developed and developing countries have seen the rise of precarious working conditions associated with the social, economic, and political changes for several decades back as the production activity has

also been globalized (Kalleberg 2009). These precarious working conditions subconscious lead to problematic circumstances both for the workers themselves and the social repercussions (Standing, 2011). One of the potential problems stated by Standing (2011) in his work that the working conditions have started to create a new social class through changes to the way work is organised and how people are employed. He further argues that there is a chance that they will acknowledge that the precarious conditions that they experienced are due to the structural forces, and come together as a class and seek structural change. He calls the new social class in the making from these changes the 'precariat'.

Allen (2014) contradicts Standing in his work arguing that the relations between the working class and the precariat under capitalism are based on the logic of capital, where the profit margin is considered the highest priority. He further argues that the working class itself is not static, but continuously changed by the requirements of capital and they have their own concerns against it. This evolution phase is driven by the self-expansion of capital and increases in the rate of exploitation, precariousness and insecurity (Bailey 2012; Seymour 2012; Breman 2013; Allen 2014). As for the dangerous claims on behalf of the precariat, where Standing (2011) claims that it will only be avoided if the precariat can become a class-for-itself, Seymour (2012) suggests that even if the precariat is really dangerous, it is only dangerous because all the people who are not considered a 'power bloc' has a potential to destroy the illusive security feelings of their rulers. Yasih, (2017) also argues that until to date there is little ethnographic and empirical work to prove that indeed the precariat is 'dangerous'. And thus, it could be concluded that the precarious workers are indeed a growing global phenomenon and not to be patronised as a threat or danger for their existence.

Critics have also identified Standing's definition of the precariat as Eurocentric (Munck 2013; Allen 2014) since the definitions of precariat were mostly achieved by contrasting the precariat with an ideal image of a stable, secure working class of the western capitalism in its golden age. In developing countries, there are very few of the workers that match this image of an ideal western working class, since the rate of informal employment was very high (Bailey 2012; Breman 2013; Munck 2013; Allen 2014). Participation in non-standard and precarious work is not always a choice. Instead, many workers may find themselves in a state of *permanent temporariness*,



exempt from many benefits and protections due to the nature of their recurring, short-term contracts and further causing issues for them (Vosko 2006).

It has been suggested that temporary employment can damage health, whatever measured: psychological distress, depression, physical health, morbidity, chronic diseases, self-rated health (Salvini & Pirani, 2014). It has been found in several studies conducted in various countries that workers with fixed-term contracts are more likely to have worse self-rated health than workers with permanent contracts (Gash et al., 2007; Waenerlund et al., 2011; Myoung Hee et al., 2008). Furthermore, the employment type was also considered as an important factor that affects the self-rated health in one of the study on Korean workers by Myoung Hee et al. (2008) where it was found that there are negative relations between the self-rated health and precarious working conditions. Those who are more satisfied with their job, even with fixed-term contracts, are more likely to have better self-rated health. However, most of the temporary workers are dissatisfied with their working conditions, and lower job satisfaction is associated with insecurity and precariousness (OECD, 2002; Myoung Hee et al., 2008)

Not only self-rated health, but it is also generally assumed that the mental well-being or psychological well-being was negatively affected by precarious employment endured by the workers. Those who are on temporary contract are more prone to lower psychological well-being as suggested by studies performed on French and Dutch workers (Lasfargues et al., 1999; Klein-Hesselink and Van Vuuren, 1999), and depression symptoms found on the national representative cohort of American workers (Quesnel-Vallee et al., 2010).

However, not all studies show consistent results that precarious employment negatively affects the workers' health and psychological well-being. Several studies also suggest that the conditions are outcome-specific and dependant on the social and environmental context, such as the availability of national health insurance, and health facilities availability (Scherer, 2009; Cottini and Lucifora, 2010; Laszlo et al., 2010; Ehlert and Schaffner, 2011). Precarious employment may be associated with poor health conditions since the nature of precariousness where everything is uncertain produces insecurity feelings of insecurity and induces stress on the individual enduring it (Lewchuk et al., 2014). Short-term contract workers have a high possibility to lose their

jobs simply due to the fact that their contract ended and resulted in unemployment, which can cause deteriorating health conditions as the after effects due to the financial difficulties and psychological strain (Schwefel, 1986; Murphy and Athanasou, 1999).

Precarious employment could also have negative consequences for both occupational prospects and private life since it is often associated with greater insecurity due to the fact that employees receive fewer employment benefits and suffering from poorer working conditions (McGovern et al., 2004; Gash & McGinnity, 2007). These temporary-contract working conditions are often associated as well with a more physically heavy work with a higher risk of accidents, and possible exposure to harmful work environments (Salvini & Pirani, 2014). Such factors are considered detrimental to the overall perceived work-life balance of an individual, and could further affect their quality of life (Diener and Suh, 1997; Fahey et al., 2003). Relying on the notion “perceived” work-life balance, it has been argued that life satisfaction and work-life balance is indeed an individual trait since every individual has different responsibilities and social pressures in their lives (Strandh and Nordenmark, 2003), but it is also argued that in explaining life satisfaction and Job Satisfaction, work environment and conditions are still one of the crucial factors to be considered (Wallace, Pichler, & Hayes, 2007; Razeeq & Maulabakhsh, 2015).

### ***Indonesian Context***

The International Labour Organization (2006) estimates in 2005 that 84% of workers in South Asia, 58% in South- East Asia, 47% in East Asia did not earn enough to lift themselves and their families above the US\$2 a day per person poverty line. The ILO also estimates that informal non-agricultural workers make up 83% of the labour force in India and 78 per cent in Indonesia (ILO, 2002). This scale of precarity differs dramatically from that found in the formal economy in the United States and other industrial countries (Hewison & Kalleberg, 2012).

In Indonesia, precarious employment arguably became a widespread phenomenon after the 1997 Asian financial crisis that severely impacted the nation’s economic performance due to the depreciation of Indonesian Rupiah and the skyrocketing interest rates (Soekarni & Syarifuddin, 2011). The political turmoil arising from a shift in government from authoritarianism to democracy and the macroeconomic changes has caused a lot of abrupt closure in the industries which mainly are manufacturing

industries, banking, and finance mainly in Java and Bali area (SMERU 1999). Furthermore, foreign companies are having doubts on whether to invest or not in Indonesia when such crisis happens and thus increasing the unemployment rate significantly in just a turn of fewer than two years (Athukorala, 2003).

It also set off a huge shift in the labour market and employment relations as sudden changes deemed appropriate to also enhance the labour market's flexibility in order to adapt better after the economic turmoil (Tjandraningsih, 2012). These processes are often described as a "labour flexibility regime" where the state imposes deregulation of the employer-labour policies with the aim of increasing employment rates after the crisis, while at the same time introducing precarious employment in doing so (Tjandraningsih & Nugroho, 2008). This deregulation is not simply reducing the state's rule in employment relations but rather giving the states a new role as a facilitator in managing industrial relations and in protecting workers, and not as interventionist as it used to be (Carroll, 2012). In order to attain increased employment flexibility, this re-regulation was needed as policymakers claim that they can grow the economy and employment. These deregulation/re-regulation have been endorsed by international institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, who also decided to step in and provide aid to the country's economic recovery program after the economic crisis (Habibi, 2009; Tjandraningsih & Nugroho, 2008). The restructuring of the labour market was detailed in point 42 of the 21st Letter of Intent (LoI) between Indonesia and the IMF.

The IMF states that the modernization of the labour legislation relating to industrial relations has become a priority. Furthermore, they stated that they are working with labour and business to ensure that the laws strike an appropriate balance between protecting the rights of workers, including freedom of association, and preserving a flexible labour market (IMF, 2003).

They also designate the re-regulation policy as an indicator of good governance post-crisis that can attract and maintain investment (Cammack, 2012; Evans & Gibb, 2009). In practice of doing the labour flexibility policy, the government of Indonesia coins out Labour Law No. 13 in 2003 that completely legalizes Labour outsourcing practice in conjunction with the agreement from the International Monetary Fund.

It is understandable why business and liberal economists would argue for the adoption of such strategies after an economic shock since for business and liberal economists; labour market flexibility allows to negate the impact of sudden economic changes by enabling hiring and firing workers to adapt more easily to the crisis ups and downs (Tjandraningsih, 2012). It is arguable that post-crisis, with such conditions the last thing a foreign company needed for investor confidence in the nation, is an expensive labour cost. The flexible labour market would also arguably push these costs further down maintaining interest for investment.

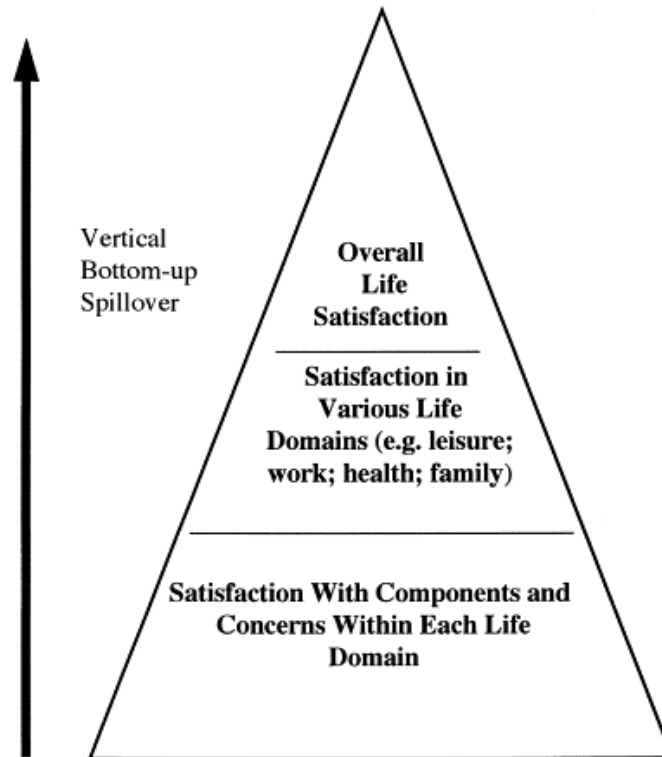
However, Indonesia as a developing country has two major characteristics in their economic setting, which are the rural and urban settings complemented with agricultural and non-agricultural work. The rural setting is often associated with non-standard jobs by western definition such as self-employment, seasonal, and unregulated or insecure forms of employment (Vosko, Zukewich, & Cranford, 2003). The urban workers who were mostly involved in regular 9 to 5 office working environment were susceptible to more precarious working conditions after the re-regulation since it is now legal to allow non-permanent contracts.

### ***Quality of Life and Work Satisfaction***

Precarious working as discussed before had certain effects towards the subjective health of an individual and was often identified with fewer employment benefits and poorer working conditions (McGovern et al., 2004; Gash & McGinnity, 2007). Quality of life, (Life Satisfaction) is often interpreted as the culmination levels of satisfaction derived from aspects of daily life such as health conditions and working conditions (Camporese, Freguja and Sabbadini 1998).

One of the aspects that affect overall life satisfaction; a good job experience; can be explained using domain hierarchy and domain salience theory (Sirgy, 2001). Domain hierarchy explains that life has a structured domain where overall life satisfaction is located on top of the hierarchy, the second level being satisfaction in various life domains (including work satisfaction) and the last level is for life events within other domains mentioned in the second level (see figure 1). Furthermore, Domain salience is the assumption that different life domains such as work, leisure, health, and family can be significantly more important than the others (Sirgy, 2001). One of the theories that explain such mechanisms between life domains is called spillover effects (Staines,

1980). Spillover means that one affective experiences in a life domain (for example, work domains) could influence experiences in another domain like health and overall life satisfaction.



**Figure 3. Domain Hierarchy and Spillover Theory (Source: Kruger, 2012)**

This study will use the spill-over effects theories, where work domains are expected to influence overall life satisfaction via job satisfaction. The work domains characteristic would be the precarious employment faced by the Indonesian urban workers. Similar work before has been taken by Wallace *et al.* (2007) and Drobnic *et al.* (2010) on the 25 countries that makeup as the European Union in 2007. Wallace *et al.* (2007) in their work found that this relationship was mediated by job satisfaction and furthermore provides evidence that according to spill-over theories, satisfaction with a lower domain (work) influences directly or spills-over into the domain above it, which is overall satisfaction. However, not all scholars agree to this view, for example, Rode and Near (2005) argues that it is not job satisfaction that influences overall life satisfaction directly, but rather other factors such as opportunities, constraints, and activities experienced in other life domains after they were taken into account.

Furthermore, Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, (2007) explored the effects of both working conditions and work-life balance on subjective life satisfaction directly. However, it

was found later on the study that almost all variance on working conditions direct influence on the subjective life satisfaction was determined by job satisfaction, and the direct effects of work-life balance on life satisfaction were weaker than those from working conditions variable. It was also found that the variance of work-life balance on life satisfaction could also be explained by job satisfaction (Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, 2007)

Kapitány et al. (2005) on their work, suggest that quality of work and life satisfaction has a notably weak relationship. Furthermore, it was found that the only significant relationship between work and subjective life satisfaction was in the absence of a job itself. People who were employed reported higher life satisfaction than those who have experienced long-term unemployment. On the contrary, specific aspects of quality of work such as work intensity, internal career opportunity, and working hours were found to be either loosely correlated or uncorrelated with life satisfaction.

However, it is argued that job satisfaction is a complex measure dependant on a range of aspects such as rewards and working hours. The effect on satisfaction is also unique to every individual since every person has different aspirations in order to measure their life satisfaction (Rose, 2003) hence, the name subjective life satisfaction since it represents each subjects unique perception. It is often assumed that positive experience of a job always leads to job satisfaction. However, it was also found that lower-quality jobs can also increase reported life satisfaction (Goldthorpe et al., 1968; Hakim, 2000). The phenomenon is described as “satisfaction paradox” where most of the less skilled workers can feel more satisfied with their work since their individual concerns are different from just a positive work experience (Sousa-Poza and Souza-Poza, 2000).

There are only a few studies examining the relationship between quality of life and job satisfaction in Indonesia. A more recent study by Satrya et al. (2017), covered Working Condition and Quality of Life for Female Workers in Garment Factories in Indonesia. The studies by Satrya were mainly focused on only the specific Garment Industry and focusing on the female workers, comparing the factories who are involved in a better work program (BWI) in Indonesia and the factories which were not. This study uses distinctive traits in measuring gender-specific working conditions for the female workers by including factors such as maternity leave and giving birth. The results indicate that the interventions of the BWI program have improved the worker’s

conditions at the working place better than the factories who are not taking part in the better work program. Other studies, such as Tjandraningsih (2012), discussed labour outsourcing as the main form of precarious work in Indonesia. The study found that the employment of contract and outsourced workers are seeing increasing numbers of workers trapped in precarious circumstances. Other studies also confirmed that flexible work brings significant disadvantages to workers and unions as well (AKATIGA, 2006; Habibi, 2009; Juliawan, 2010; Nugroho, 2004; Tjandraningsih & Nugroho, 2008).

The overall conditions of precarious workers in Indonesia were arguably only discussed on specific circumstances. Quality of life, especially in the working dimension is not something that was discussed widely in Indonesia. As the precarious working is seen to be disadvantageous towards the workers by several studies, it is worth looking at the phenomena in extent how much they affect the quality of life in Indonesian workers, or is there any other factors that deemed important for the quality of life in Indonesian workers.

### **Chapter 3**

This chapter will introduce the methods used in this research. Firstly, the underlying research questions and the reasoning behind the problems and objectives of the research will be discussed. Next, the proposed research models were there will be an explanation about the derived model that was used in this research and some brief explanation on why the model was particularly chosen. Afterwards, there will be the data analysis methods section including the questionnaire reviews, and the statistical process used in this research. The last part will be explaining the ethical issues including risk assessment, health and safety, and data confidentiality of this research.

#### ***Research Question***

The main questions of this research will be:

*“Does precarious working conditions and work-life balance affect employee’s subjective life satisfaction?”*

The main question that this research aims to answer is whether precarious employment conditions could affect subjective life satisfaction amongst Indonesian urban workers. The previous studies such as Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, (2007) and Drobnic et al. (2013) used data from the European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) in order to conduct the secondary analysis on the quality of work and life satisfaction. In this research, however, no equivalent pre-existing dataset is available for secondary analysis, particularly in the Indonesian setting where there are no equivalent surveys to the EQLS within Indonesia. Thus, it is proposed to adapt the questions from the quality of life literature regarding working conditions and subjective quality life but mainly refer to the questions asked by the EQLS. The EQLS survey itself has been conducted four times at four-year intervals (Eurofound, 2016), and each time there has been some fine-tuning and additional options on answers and questions throughout.

Most of the questions chosen in this research followed the previous work by Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, (2007) on the secondary analysis of the first European Quality of Life Survey in 2003. Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, (2007) in their study only chose several questions into their analysis since the nature of EQLS questionnaires that asks a very broad range of questions in measuring quality of life ranging from opinions on political conditions in a country to the public service quality and thus could only provide a general data set for the secondary analysis to take place.



A few adjustments to the questionnaire items were to subtract options in the second job and occupational status where the options mentioned agricultural and farmers respectively. These adjustments were made due to the target population were expected to be urban formal workers and not those who were likely to be involved in farming and agriculture activities.

Further adjustments were also made to try and incorporate the questions better to the different culture that Indonesia and European country has, it is considered that the cultural diversity in Haar et al. (2013)'s work on the effects of work-life balance on individual outcomes. In his work, the sample size includes 7 countries which include both eastern and western countries taking both collectivist and individualist culture into consideration respectively. The results on Haar *et al.* 's (2013) work showing that there are significant differences between respondents living in individualistic cultures reporting higher levels of satisfaction (both job and life) at low levels of WLB compared to respondents living in collectivistic cultures. At high levels of WLB, respondents living in individualistic cultures reported stable levels of job and life satisfaction, while respondents living in collectivistic cultures reported significantly less job and life satisfaction. The questions on work-life balance variable will use the question items from Haar et al.'s (2013) study instead of the EQLS in this one. The work-life balance measurement items have three components with three questions which are the levels of time balance (an equal amount of time devoted to work and family roles), involvement balance (an equal level of psychological involvement in work and family role), or satisfaction balance (an equal level of satisfaction with work and family roles) (Haar, 2013).

On the variable subjective life satisfaction, since the study by Wallace, Pichler and Hayes (2007) did not refer to the exact questions to measure life satisfaction, and merely suggests it being measured by the 10-point scale. For this research, in order to measure the variable, it is decided to take the life satisfaction measurement based on the work by Diener et al. (1985) on the satisfaction with life scale. Adjustments have been made to confirm the questions with the other questionnaire items by reducing 7-point Likert scale into 5 points Likert scale where the higher values indicate greater levels of satisfaction. The example questions are shown in Appendix 2.

Thus, questions used in Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes (2007) studies that were adopted in this research has been chosen only to represent the variable working conditions, and Job satisfaction, while variable subjective life satisfaction used questions by the work of Diener et al. (1985), and variable work-life balance used question items from Haar et al. (2013) in order to answer the research question.

The primary data are expected to be the only source of the study. In this study, the researcher obtained the data from the survey by distributing the self-administered questionnaire to the respondents online due to the distance and budget constraints. This questionnaire is using Likert Scale which are survey questions that offer a range of answer options ranging from one extreme attitude to another, for example like “extremely likely” to “not at all likely.” (Bryman, 2016). This also includes a neutral midpoint in the answer. The hypothesis of the research for each relationship will be as the following :

- A positive Working Conditions of the worker would positively affect Job Satisfaction of that worker.
- A positive Work-Life Balance of a worker would positively affect Job Satisfaction of that worker.
- The higher Job Satisfaction of a worker, the higher Subjective Life Satisfaction of that worker.

### ***Research Methodology***

This research used a quantitative approach, which is a strategy that emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of data (Bryman, 2016). The quantitative approach is deemed more useful than qualitative approach if there is an interest in examining the relative importance of a number of different causes of a social phenomenon rather than the interest in worldviews of a certain social group (Bryman, 2016). In which this research case, the social phenomenon being the precarious working conditions on the employers and their subjective life satisfaction.

Furthermore, the research used a primary data source via an online questionnaire. As there is currently no equivalent surveys to the EQLS in Indonesia, it is quite problematic to find a reliable secondary data source to represent the research on the effects of

precarious working conditions and work-life balance on subjective life satisfaction. Furthermore, this research used a descriptive-cross-sectional design. Which will conduct the data collection once in one timeframe period with a specific hypothesis to all population samples.

The research wanted to examine the effects of precarious working conditions and work-life balance on subjective life satisfaction. Several studies have been conducted before, such as the work from Drobic et al. (2013), and Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, (2007) on the quality of life of workers in the European countries using the European Quality of Life Survey as the secondary data source. This study took a similar approach in examining the subjective quality of life via the job precarity characteristics and satisfaction affected by both working conditions and work-life balance. As for the Indonesian context, there are arguably only a few studies that have discussed the working conditions, work-life balance and both job and life satisfaction in Indonesia (Tjandraningsih, 2012).

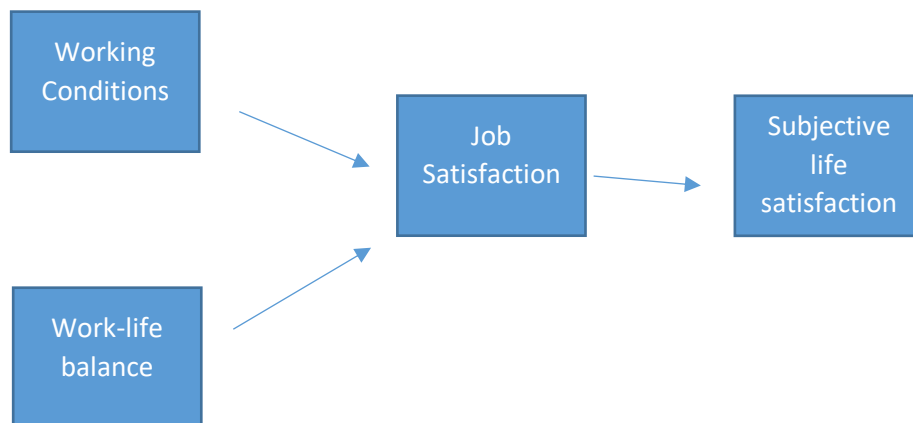
The research was targeted towards the workers living in urban areas of Indonesia. For the purpose of this research, the definition of urban areas is a region that has a major non-agricultural activity with a set of regional functions as a place of government services, social services and economic activities (Law No. 22/1999). As participants were self-selecting, minimizing rural workers mistakenly completing the survey the first page of the survey b contained a brief explanation of what areas were defined as urban (a copy of which can be found in Appendix 1). Also, all those with non-permanent contracts were to be defined as precarious.

The survey was distributed to respondents within the criteria as follows: urban workers, in working age, and located in an urban area within Indonesia. Due to the time limitations and budget, a convenience sampling (self-selection) was used. Bryman (2016) denotes that a convenience sample is the one that available to the researcher due to the accessibility nature of the sample. The open invite of the questionnaire invitation will be distributed through social media channels, and the respondent will be self-selecting to be involved in the survey. The total sample size achieved is 132 respondents overall.

For the data analysis in this research, the statistical tool IBM SPSS version 22 was used to analyse the data and testing the hypotheses. The data analysis procedure will be explained further in the data analysis section in this chapter.

### ***Research Model***

The research model used a revised conceptual framework of the impact of working conditions and work-life balance on the job and life satisfaction, adapted from the previous work by Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, (2007) on the secondary analysis of the First European Quality of Life Survey. The European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) is conducted by the European Foundation of Living and Working Conditions and aims to obtain in-depth information about how people live and how they perceive their own life circumstances. The first EQLS in which this study was based on was conducted in 2003 in 28 countries consisting of the countries from EU25 and Bulgaria, Romania, and Turkey. The research model proposed in the figure 4 below.



***Figure 4. Proposed Research models (EQLS, 2003)***

This research model was suggested after the initial analysis on the study conducted by Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, (2007) where they explored the effects to of both working conditions and work-life balance on subjective life satisfaction directly. However, they further proposed deleting the direct relationship from working conditions and work-life balance towards life satisfaction in their revised model. Thus, the research model shown above was the same revised model from Wallace’s work. In which will also be applied to this research.

A study conducted by Haar (2013), examined the effects of work-life balance on individual outcomes that are job & life satisfaction and anxiety & depression across cultures in 7 different countries in the world. The differences with Wallace et al., (2007)'s work was the measurement on the Job satisfaction and Life satisfaction as a direct influence solely determined by work-life balance, without inputting working conditions into the context in the research model. Since this research aims to consider precarious working conditions into the model, thus it is decided to follow the models by Wallace et al., (2007).

### ***Online Questionnaire***

Online surveys operate by inviting prospective respondents to visit a website at which the questionnaire can be found and completed online (Bryman, 2016). The advantage of an online survey over email survey was in the wider variety of attributes and the ease of use regarding compulsory questions in order to minimise an incomplete part of the questionnaire being returned (Bryman, 2016). This research was using Google forms as the platform for collecting data. The reasoning is it's free to use the platform, and it has a simple, user-friendly design that is easy to understand. This research gathered 132 responses in total.

### ***Data Analysis***

The previous studies analysed the data from EQLS (Wallace *et al.*, 2007; Drobnic *et al.*, 2010) using descriptive statistics and examining the relationship among the variables using mainly linear regression analysis for the national level analysis, and multivariate regression analysis for the EU country cluster analysis (Wallace *et al.*, 2007). Also worth noting that previous studies that used EQLS as the data source analysed cross-national survey research meaning there are multiple countries (clusters) involved in the analysis (Drobnic *et al.*, 2010; Watson *et al.*, 2010) while this research focused only on one country which is Indonesia.

### ***Pre-testing, Validity and Reliability analysis***

Pre-testing was used to test the reliability and validity of the questionnaire (Bryman, 2016). The level of reliability of every indicator from the variables is measured by looking at the coefficient alpha or Cronbach's alpha. The indicators from all variables are considered reliable, consistent, and relevant if the value of Cronbach's alpha is equal to or more prominent than 0.6 (Malhotra, 2010). Furthermore, before conducting factor

analysis, the indicator that should be first assessed is the Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) value. The value of KMO should be between 0.5 and 1.0, and the value of factor loadings in every item of the questionnaire should achieve at least 0.5 in order to be considered as valid.

However, for the variable job satisfaction specifically, there was only one variable measuring the overall job satisfaction. Since the reliability test needs a minimum of three variable, therefore it was not conducted. However, according to Scarpello and Campbell (1983) and Wanous et al., (1997) a single-item measure of overall job satisfaction was preferable to a scale that is based on a sum of specific job satisfaction indicators. In both of their research of meta-analysis on various studies that employs single measure job satisfaction, shows that the item is indeed reliable and can be used as a measure of overall job satisfaction.

#### ***Independent T-Test & One-Way ANOVA Analysis***

The independent-samples T-test evaluates the difference between the means of two independent or unrelated groups. That is to evaluate whether the means for two independent groups are significantly different from each other (Salkind, 2010).

The T-test will be conducted in this research by comparing the means of the two respondents groups' contract type. The lack of difference would mean that both of respondent types have the same perceptions on their work conditions, work-life balance, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine further whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means of three or more independent groups (Bryman, 2016). ANOVA was done to evaluate the mean differences between the entire subset of contract type simultaneously, as an indicator of working precariousness in this research.

#### ***Factor Analysis***

Factor analysis is one of the methods used to process the research data by identifying basic variable or factors that or factors that explains relationship patterns between the observed variable. Factor analysis is often used in data reduction and data summarization (Malhotra, 2010). The aims of factor analysis were to identify a smaller set of indicators which represents the original set of the variable used in the research which referred to as "factors" (Bryman, 2016).

In this research, factor analysis will be conducted for each of the variables. The tests used are both Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity method to assess whether the data gathered from respondents are applicable to analyse with factor analysis. Every factor that will pass the threshold will have a factor loading value of more than 0.5 with regards to the conformity of each variable to its respective concepts and theory used in this research.

### ***Multiple Regression Analysis***

Multiple regression is an extended version of simple linear regression. The method is used when there is a need to predict the value of a variable based on the value of two or more other variables. Multiple regression will also be able to determine the variance explained of the model and the relative contribution of each of the predictors to the total variance explained (Malhotra, 2010).

It has been found on the previous studies with European context that the impact of working conditions is stronger than that of work-life balance on Job Satisfaction. Moreover, it was also found that job satisfaction variable is deemed important to determine life satisfaction (Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, 2007). It was also found that differences in work-life balance should be analysed in the national cultures of labour market instead of the multi-national level such as the European context since there is a level of variation across Europe (Wallace, Pichler, and Hayes, 2007).

According to the research model, alongside one linear regression, there will be one rendered multiple regression where the Job Satisfaction will act as a dependent variable and both Working Conditions and Work-Life Balance as an independent variable. Also, it will require a one-time linear regression to examine the relationship of Job Satisfaction towards Subjective Life Satisfaction.

### ***Ethical Issues***

In this particular research, there were no sensitive questions asked that will cause discomfort and the respondent's name, and personal information was not asked in the questionnaire. Participant consent was assumed by the return of the questionnaires, and the data were only accessible to the researcher and the supervisor stored in the password-protected online platform.

Since the research is aiming to recruit survey respondents living and working in Indonesia, the Plain Language Statement has been translated into Indonesian. There

was an incentive in the form of the raffle for participants to entice interest for them to fill out the questionnaire. The incentive was in the form of voucher valued at about 5 pounds for 3 winners and was sourced from the researcher's own funding.



## **Chapter 4**

### ***Introduction***

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. The first stage of the research is pre-test. In the pre-test stage, the goal is to measure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire before it is distributed for the main research purposes. Pre-testing was completed to anticipate the possibility that there are question items that could not be understood by the respondents and avoid future errors in the research. The pre-test was completed by distributing questionnaires to 30 respondents and the results later processed by the statistical software to determine the validity and reliability.

After analysing the results, then the analysis to the main-test which means distributing the questionnaire to the mass with the total response of 132 respondents with 46 under permanent contract and 86 under temporary/no work contract.

### ***Validity and Reliability (Pre-Test)***

After finishing the questionnaire, initial pre-testing was conducted after receiving the first 30 survey responses for pre-testing to check the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was used to check the internal consistency of the variables. Variables are considered reliable if their Cronbach's alpha coefficient value is above 0.6 (Malhotra 2010). The results from the data processing from 30 respondents is shown in the table below.

The variable working conditions for items WC1, WC2, WC5, WC7 and WC8 (See Appendix 2) had to be recoded in order to fix a negative covariance. The negative covariance occurred due to questions that implied a negative response. For example the item WC2 asks about the worker's stress level, wherein Likert scale 1 means the least stressed (positive), and 5 meaning very stressed (negative), on the contrary, the item WC3 asks about whether the workers are being paid well enough wherein Likert scale 1 means not enough (negative) and 5 means well enough (positive). In order to correct this, the values for these questions were reversed.

Latent Variable	Indicator	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
Work-Life Balance	WLB1	0.780	0.690
	WLB2	0.794	
	WLB	0.786	
Working Conditions	WC1	0.563	0.454
	WC2	0.278	
	WC3	0.283	
	WC4	0.390	
	WC5	0.368	
	WC6	0.396	
	WC7	0.480	
	WC8	0.503	
Job Satisfaction	JS1	Not applicable	Not applicable
Subjective Life Satisfaction	SLS1	0.734	0.772
	SLS2	0.637	
	SLS3	0.798	
	SLS4	0.690	

*Table 1. Pre-Test Validity Analysis*

The results are suggesting that are still room for improvements for the variable working conditions since the Cronbach's Alpha was still below the desired value of significance (0.6). Therefore, it was decided to remove several items that are problematic in order to increase the reliability of the variable. After deleting the 3 components of WC1, WC7, and WC8 the alpha value of variable working conditions increased to 0.640, suggesting sufficient reliability for further analysis.

### ***Descriptive Analysis***

The first part of the survey consists of the employment profile, where the 132 respondents were asked about their contract type, work hours, secondary job, occupational status and supervisory responsibilities.

Contract Type	Percentage
a temporary contract employment agency (outsource)	11.36%
contract term less than 12 months	28.03%
entrepreneurial	0.76%
Freelance consultant	1.52%
permanent contracts (permanent employees)	34.85%
training schemes and / or internship	4.55%
without a written contract	16.67%
other	2.27%
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

*Table 2. Contract Type Percentage*

Table 2 shows the type of contracts respondents had, the most common contract types beside the permanent contracts are non-written contracts, a less than 12 months contract, and outsourced employee contract. For the purpose of this research, everyone outside without a permanent contract (34.85%) are considered working in a precarious working condition (Kalleberg, 2009). The findings on this part of working precariousness indicators were processed with an Independent T-test to compare means between those who are had a permanent contract and those who were not in the other contract category in order to determine whether the permanent workers and non-permanent workers would answer differently on their survey questions.



*Figure 5. Job Satisfaction by Contract Type*

Figure 5 presents the mean job satisfaction for respondents based on their contract. According to Olsthoorn (2013), one of the major indicators of work precariousness is the insecurity on the contract and the probability that the workers are not able to secure future employment when the current contract is terminated by the employer. Indeed, those who are in better contract conditions are having a higher job satisfaction than those who are not.

An interesting finding is respondents on training schemes, and internship had a higher job satisfaction than those who are in under permanent employment. The second interesting finding is those who do not have a written contract had higher job satisfaction than those who are under contract less than 12 months. This could be an indicator of the ‘satisfaction paradox’ which relates to the finding that those with the least satisfying jobs might still be contented with their conditions due to other reasons outside the working conditions (Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000). Similar results also found in another study from the UK context by Balaram et al. (2017). Where they examined the motivations of those, who worked in the ‘gig economy’ such as Uber Drivers and Deliveroo. The results suggest that workers tend to have higher satisfaction where 63 per cent agreed gig work offered more freedom and control than a traditional work with all the limitations of working hours and supervision.

<b>Working Hours</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<30 hours	13.64%
> 40 hours	47.73%
30-40 hours	38.64%
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

*Table 3. Working Hours*

From the 132 respondents, the majority of them worked more than 40 hours-per-week (47.73%). The rules from the Indonesian Labour Law under Article 77 to Article 85 Law No. 13 of 2003; the Labour Law stipulates working hours into two categories, as follows:

- 7 working hours in 1 week or 40 working hours in 1 week for 6 working days in 1 week; or
- 8 working hours in 1 day or 40 working hours in 1 week for 5 working days in 1 week.

One possible explanation was that the employer who gives their employee more than the stipulated working hours had paid overtime payment as required by the government. The overtime work, however, can only be done a maximum of 3 hours a day and/or 14 hours in a week (Indonesian Labour Law, 2003).

<b>Supervisory Responsibilities</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Do not know	1.52%
No	53.03%
yes	45.45%
(blank)	0.00%
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

*Table 4. Supervisory Responsibilities*

From the table 4 above, most of the respondents do not have a responsibility to supervise their subordinates (53.03%), and most of them have the responsibility to do so (45.45%) this would mean that even though some of the respondents while having a non-permanent contract, are not currently in the entry-level job indicated by their supervisory responsibilities.

<b>Occupational Status</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Civil Servants	1.52%
employee	65.15%
entrepreneurial	5.30%
Expert (Non-Employee)	14.39%
managerial	12.12%
Non-Skilled Worker	1.52%
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

*Table 5. Occupational status*

Table 5 shows that the majority of this research's respondents were employees (65.15%). This is as expected and in-line with the scope of this research that targets mainly formal workers in an urban area in Indonesia. The majority of informal workers in Indonesia is in rural areas and does agricultural work and those who are not in agriculture, are usually involved in petty trade and cottage industries (Manning, 1998). Urban informal workers tend to deal with sales, transportation, domestic service and construction works (World Bank, 2010).

<b>Row Labels</b>	<b>Count of secondary job</b>
No	68.18%
Yes	31.82%
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

*Table 6. Secondary Job*

Majority of respondents in this research has no secondary job (68.18%) and has the main job as their sole source of income.

### *T-test analysis*

Before stepping further into the research, there is a need to find out any distinguished responses from the respondents who are currently under permanent contract and those who are on fixed term, other type of contract, or no contract at all as one of the major indicator of precarious working conditions (Olsthoorn, 2013) as previously mentioned. The independent-samples T-test evaluates whether the means for two independent groups are significantly different from each other in answering the entire survey questions (Malhotra, 2010). If there is a significant difference between the two groups, further regression tests would be conducted separately in order to improve consistency between the groups, and vice versa. The results from the T-test analysis is depicted in Appendix 2 – table 1.

The results from the first test show that in the entire survey there was no significant difference of means between those who are under permanent contract and another type of precarious contracts. The only indicators that are significantly different between the two groups are in the Working Conditions (wc1) which are Fear of losing a job. This is the underlying difference between the contracts' nature.

A second T-test was conducted to test other ways of categorising the sample. The second test measured those who are working under contracts and those who are working without written contracts at all. This was done to take the concept of precarious working under contracts further, as the previous test categorise all another type of contracts besides permanent contracts as precarious contracts regardless. The test was done on 126 responses. The omitted 6 responses were those who categorised as 'other' type of contract.

As it can be seen in Appendix 2 – table 2, the results also suggest that there was no significant difference in the answers between those who had worked under contract and those who worked without. However, on the second test there were only one indicator that is quite significantly different; same as the previous T-test; with the difference being the variable this time was the wc2 which measures the psychological stress.

### ***One Way-ANOVA***

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means of three or more independent groups (Bryman, 2016). After seeing results from the Independent T-Test, it is decided to further check whether different groupings of contract types would affect the overall mean difference between all the contract types as T-test was designed to only compare means between two subsets of variables. The analysis was done through all the different contract types gathered in the research (see Table 2).

The results can be seen in appendix 2 – table 3. Similar to the previous T-test results, the results were still not significantly different enough. However, there were two variables that stood out as significantly different between all the subset groups, which are wc1 (Fear of Losing Job) and wc6 (Career Opportunities).

The fear of losing jobs was consistently a differentiating factor for the different type of contracts since it was indeed the underlying difference between the contracts' nature as mentioned before. The psychological stress was only significantly different between those who had written contract and those without as the previous T-test explained, and not significantly different enough in the ANOVA test. Finally, the last factor that was significantly different enough was the career opportunities.

### ***Main Test Reliability***

The main test requires 74 respondents minimum in order to be processed. According to Green (1991), the recommended minimum sample size for multi-correlation is calculated by the formula:

$$N > 50 + 8m$$

Where m is the number of predictors (Independent Variables). So, with three predictors in this research, it would need  $50 + 24 = 74$  samples. The table shown below will explain the Cronbach's Alpha value for each variable at the main test.

Latent Variable	Indicator	Cronbach Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
Work-Life Balance	WLB1	0.692	0.746
	WLB2	0.660	
	WLB3	0.632	
Working Conditions	WC1	0.601	0.586
	WC2	0.521	
	WC3	0.532	
	WC4	0.548	
	WC5	0.510	
	WC6	0.519	
	WC7	0.599	
	WC8	0.581	
Job Satisfaction	JS1	Not applicable	Not applicable
Subjective Life Satisfaction	SLS1	0.688	0.764
	SLS2	0.634	
	SLS3	0.788	
	SLS4	0.721	

*Table 7. Main Test Reliability*

The results are improving from the last pre-test reliability. However, the alpha value of the variable Working conditions is under a thin line of the acceptable level which is 0.6. Thus, it was decided to exempt WC1, WC7, and WC8 indicators for further regression analysis. After deleting the three indicators, the alpha value increases to 0.628 which is right on the acceptable value (Table 10).



Latent Variable	Indicator	Cronbach Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
Work-Life Balance	WLB1	0.692	0.746
	WLB2	0.660	
	WLB3	0.632	
Working Conditions	WC2	.635	0.628
	WC3	.561	
	WC4	.575	
	WC5	.564	
	WC6	.528	
Job Satisfaction	JS1	Not applicable	Not applicable
Subjective Life Satisfaction	SLS1	0.688	0.764
	SLS2	0.634	
	SLS3	0.788	
	SLS4	0.721	

*Table 8. Main Test Reliability after reductions*

### **Factor Analysis**

The method used for conducting Factor Analysis in this research was Principal Component Analysis (PCA). PCA aims to identify a smaller set of a variable which represents the original set of the variable used in the research. Usually smaller in size in terms of the amount of variable indicator which latter will be used in the next multi-variable analysis (Joliffe et al., 2002). The validity level from each of the components of each variable was also analysed using the component matrix. The first test will be using both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity method to assess whether the data gathered from respondents were applicable to analyse with factor analysis. The indications are KMO values above 0.5 (Kaiser, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values below 0.05 (Snedecor et al., 1989), in which means factor analysis can be processed and the correct method for the data analysis. The PCA analysis is done for three set of variables which are the Work-Life Balance, Working Conditions, and Subjective Life Satisfaction. Variable Job Satisfaction is not included in the analysis due to the reasons mentioned earlier in this chapter.

Variable	KMO	Bartlett	indicator	Component
Work-Life Balance	0.687	0.000	WLB1	0.795
			WLB2	0.817
			WLB3	0.832
Working Conditions	0.615	0.000	WC1	0.337
			WC2	0.556
			WC3	0.606
			WC4	0.567
			WC5	0.674
			WC6	0.681
			WC7	0.229
Subjective Life Satisfaction	0.747	0.000	SLS1	0.823
			SLS2	0.872
			SLS3	0.663
			SLS4	0.749

*Table 9. PCA Analysis*

As it can be seen from the table above, all variable satisfies the KMO test of sampling adequacy with all values above 0.5 as well as satisfy the Bartlett test of sphericity with a value below 0.05. For component loadings, all components have an adequate value meaning that the items correlate to their factors. However, it is observed that three of the components in the Working Conditions variable which are the WC1, WC7, and WC8 are having a lower component loading value which are 0.337, 0.229, and 0.289 respectively in the component matrix. This is in line with the previous reliability test where the three components were considered inconsistent to be put into the next analysis. Thus, it is decided to remove the three factors from further analysis. The component loading after removing the three components are shown in the table below. After deleting the three variables, now all component loading is considered correlating with the respective factors.

Variable	KMO	Bartlett	indicator	Component
Work-Life Balance	0.687	0.000	WLB1	0.795
			WLB2	0.817
			WLB3	0.832
Working Conditions	0.613	0.000	WC2	0.453
			WC3	0.657
			WC4	0.647
			WC5	0.651
			WC6	0.744
Subjective Life Satisfaction	0.747	0.000	SLS1	0.823
			SLS2	0.872
			SLS3	0.663
			SLS4	0.749

*Table 10. PCA Analysis*

***Impact of Working Conditions and Work-Life Balance on Job Satisfaction***

The first regression analysis conducted was the impact of Working conditions and work-life balance on job satisfaction. Multiple regression is a statistical test used to measure the significance of the relationship between variables. The method in this research is done by factor scoring all components of a variable with its construct within the factor analysis. The information extracted then used for the next analysis (Gorsuch, 1983). Referring to the previous factor analysis, each variable now has one extracted factor that could be analysed with multiple regression analysis. Multiple regression is used because the research contains two independent variables that correspond to one dependent variable. Following the proposed model, two independent variables which are working conditions and work-life balance and one dependent variable which was Job Satisfaction. The regression results are shown in Table 12.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.53	0.063		56.378	0
	Working Conditions	0.567	0.078	0.567	7.235	0
	Work-life balance	0.194	0.078	0.194	2.471	0.015

a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

*Table 11. Regression Results Working Conditions and Work-Life Balance towards Job Satisfaction*

The results showed that both working conditions and work-life balance have a significant positive influence on the job satisfaction of 132 Indonesian workers. On the table above, variable working conditions have t value of 7.235 with the significance of 0.000 (0.00000000004) with the corresponding t value above 1.663 and significance value below 0.05 which are the critical value for hypothesis testing with confidence interval 95%. Moreover, work-life balance has t value of 2.471 with the significance of 0.000 which also means the corresponding t value above 1.663 and significance value below 0.05 which are the critical value for hypothesis testing with a 95% confidence interval.

The next value is the Standardized Coefficients beta value, which is a measure of how strongly each predictor variable influences the criterion (dependent) variable. In the table above, variable working conditions have 0.567 beta value, and variable Perceived quality has 0.194 beta value. This means that the working conditions have a stronger contribution than the work-life balance on explaining the job satisfaction variable. In summary, both working conditions and work-life balance significantly affects the job satisfaction of the respondents. But, the respondent also values working conditions more than the work-life balance that their work provides.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square
1	.700 <sup>a</sup>	0.49	0.482

**Table 12. R- Square Value of Working Conditions and Work-Life Balance towards Job Satisfaction**

Furthermore, R square value is used to analyse the proportions of the dependent variable that can be measured by the independent variable in the model. R square value of 0.490 means that 49% of Job Satisfaction variance can be explained by Working Conditions and Work-Life Balance variance. About 51% are explainable by other variables.

This finding further confirms from the studies conducted by Wallace et al. (2007) in a European context. In their studies, the results of the regression analyses indicated that nearly all of the explained variance could be determined by job satisfaction and that only some aspects of working conditions influence life satisfaction once this has been taken into account. While in Indonesian case it is nearing the 50% mark.

***Impact of Job Satisfaction on Life Satisfaction***

The next analysis will be the impact of Job Satisfaction on Life Satisfaction. The analysis done on this part was using linear regression since there are initially only one of each dependent and independent variable.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-1.686	.283		-5.963	.000
	Job Satisfaction	.478	.077	.477	6.195	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Subjective Life Satisfaction

**Table 13. Regression Results Job Satisfaction towards Subjective Life Satisfaction**

The results showed that job satisfaction has a significant positive influence on the Subjective Life Satisfaction of the sample. On Table 8 above, job satisfaction has t value of 6.195 with the significance of 0.000 (0.000000007) with the corresponding t value above 1.663 and significance value below 0.05 which are the critical value for hypothesis testing with confidence interval 95%. Looking at the Standardized

Coefficients beta value, in the table above, variable job satisfaction has 0.477 beta value.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square
1	.477 <sup>a</sup>	.228	.222

*Table 14. R-Square Value Job Satisfaction towards Subjective Life Satisfaction*

R square value is used to analyse the proportions of the dependent variable that can be measured by the independent variable in the model. R square value of 0.228 means that 22.8% of Subjective Life Satisfaction variance can be explained by Job Satisfaction variance. About 77.2% are explainable by other variables.

As job satisfaction acts as a mediating variable between working conditions and work-life balance, there is, in fact, a relationship between life satisfaction and quality of work, once the intervening effect of job satisfaction has been taken into account as Wallace et al. (2007) suggests. However, it is also insinuated that even if job satisfaction indeed has influence over the life satisfaction, it is only explaining 23% of the subjective life satisfaction of the workers.

In order to examine which of the horizontal life domains or vertical life domains are stronger in affecting life satisfaction, second multiple regression was run with two independent variables being job satisfaction and work-life balance that represents the vertical life domains (work and life satisfaction) and horizontal life domains (work and family) respectively.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square
1	.583 <sup>a</sup>	.340	.329

*Table 15. R-Square Value Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Balance towards Subjective Life Satisfaction*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.945	.307		-3.081	.003
	Job satisfaction	.268	.085	.268	3.168	.002
	Work-life balance	.394	.084	.394	4.669	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Subjective Life Satisfaction

**Table 16. Regression Results Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Balance towards Subjective Life Satisfaction**

As it can be seen from the results, the explanatory power denoted by R-square value increases slightly from 0.228 to 0.340. Therefore, it is in-line with the argument that many factors suddenly came into considerations when people are asked about their subjective life satisfaction such as their family relationships, housing or health (Wallace et al., 2007). Looking further into the beta value of the regression analysis, it is indeed the work-life balance has a slightly bigger influence on the life satisfaction than job satisfaction judging by the beta value of the two variables.

***Multicollinearity test***

Multicollinearity is an assumption in linear regression. It occurs when independent variables are correlated into the other independent variables. The multicollinearity can be checked by looking into the Tolerance value and the Variation Inflation Factor (VIF). The tolerance measures influence of one independent variable among the other independent variables. In order to be deemed that there is no multicollinearity, the tolerance value must be >0.20. Whereas for the VIF in order to be deemed that there is no multicollinearity, the VIF must not exceed the score of 4 (>4). The results of this research’s multicollinearity test are presented in the following table.

Collinearity Statistics		Collinearity Statistics	
Working Conditions and Work-Life Balance		Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Balance	
Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
0.644	1.552	0.717	1.394

a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

a. Dependent Variable: Subjective Life Satisfaction

*Table 17. Collinearity Analysis*

As seen on the table, all variables have a tolerance value above 0.2 with Working Conditions and Work-Life balance on the first model scored 0.644 each while Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Balance scored 0.717 each. Moreover, all variables also have VIF score below 4 with Working Conditions and Work-Life balance on the first model scored 1.552 each while Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Balance scored 1.394 each. Thus, there is no multicollinearity present in either model, and there are no correlations between each independent variables in the respective model.

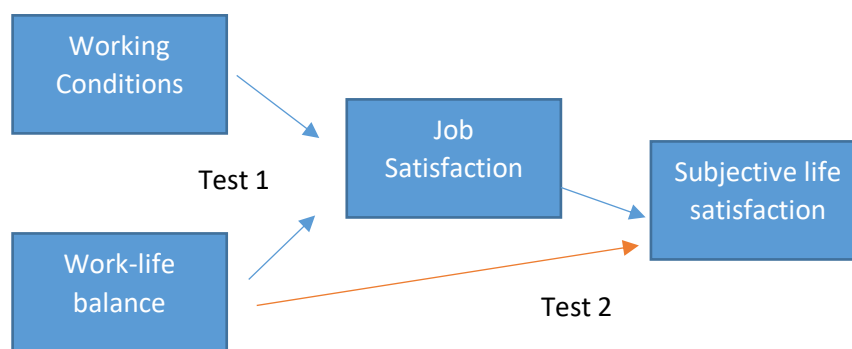
Overall, the hypotheses of the regression tests were all considered significant. Results suggest that every dependent variable were affected by their predictors even with the additional test included. The T-test and ANOVA results, although did not found quite significant difference in means, provides several interesting points to be discussed in the next chapter.



## Chapter 5

### *Discussions*

This chapter will provide discussions from the results obtained in the previous chapter. The objective of this research was to assess the effects of working conditions, work-life balance, and job satisfaction towards the life satisfaction of workers and precarious workers in Indonesia. The research was targeting people who are currently working in the urban area in Indonesia under fixed-term contracts and another type of contracts for comparison. In this chapter, the results of the research are summarised and suggestions made based on the findings of the research.



*Figure 6. Model Summary*

After revisiting the proposed model, initially, the job satisfaction was the only mediating variable between working conditions/work-life balance and subjective life satisfaction. However, after examining the initial tests result, it is decided that there will be an additional test that includes both job satisfaction/work-life balance and subjective life satisfaction in order to measure the different horizontal and vertical spill-over theory. Therefore, the model has been updated as shown in figure 6 above. All of the variables on the regression test is considered significance statistically. The difference is in the beta value where it is a measure of how strongly each predictor variable influences the criterion (dependent) variable (Bryman, 2016).

### ***T-Test and ANOVA Results***

There is a slight possibility of satisfaction paradox in the research where; in terms of working precariousness indicators; it is found that people with less desirable contract conditions such as outsourced workers, internships, and those even without a written contracts are nevertheless satisfied with their work even almost similarly to the people who have a permanent contracts. However, further analysis with a bigger sample size would have to be conducted in order to confirm this phenomenon further.

The result from this research expected that the fear of uncertainty due to the employment contract type would affect the outcome of the first T-Test, which compared the means between permanent and precarious workers especially, on the job and life satisfaction question items. The findings were similar to the previous study by Wallace (2007) in the European countries. Furthermore, as it can be seen in the descriptive tables in appendix 2 – table 4, indeed those who had permanent contracts had the lower concerns on the fear of losing job variable (wc1) with the mean of 1.93. The outsourced, internships and fixed-term workers have higher concerns with the mean value of 3.40; 3.33; and 3.13 respectively.

The second T-test compared the means between those who had a written contract and those who worked under no written contract. Again, the results are not significant enough overall with only one variable deemed significantly different enough, which is Psychological Stress. It has been suggested before that precarious employment could affect psychological distress, depression, physical health, and self-rated health (Salvini & Pirani, 2014), and this result might also confirm these findings regarding the psychological stress.

Finally, the result of one-way ANOVA tests between all contract types suggested that there are two variables that significantly different enough between all subset of contract types. The variables were fear of losing jobs; which has been discussed before; and career opportunities. Thus, it is argued that different contract types might affect the different perspective of the workers regarding career opportunities.

Further findings are shown in Appendix 2 – table 4, workers who are in another type of contract has the highest expectancy of career opportunities with the mean value of 4.50 in their answer. The internship/training scheme workers have the second highest expectancy of career opportunities with the mean value of 4.17. On the contrary, the

outsourced workers have the lowest expectancy of career opportunities with the mean value of 2.67.

Previous studies by Muñoz de Bustillo et al. (2009) suggested that conditions and characteristics of jobs such as contractual status, job security, opportunities for skill development and career progression express the overall judgments that the workers make of their job. Precarious workers such as those who are outsourced were indeed more likely to have a lower expectancy of their career opportunities as the result of this research also suggests. The internship scheme, however, was arguably considered a starting point into a bigger opportunity in the future as they tend to collect experiences rather than focusing on an income-generation activity (Helyer & Lee, 2014) hence the result suggests.

Another interesting results can be seen in the subjective life satisfaction part of the analysis (Appendix 2 – table 4). In this part; particularly variable sls3; participants were asked about whether they would re-live their lives given the chance to do so. The results shows that workers under outsourced contracts has a significantly lower mean score of 1.67. However, the results only happened in this particular variable and not in other variable that represents subjective life satisfaction overall.

Nevertheless, the lack of significant difference between the urban Indonesian workers' contract types was not significantly affected by their overall precarious working conditions in determining their work-life balance, job satisfaction, and further subjective life satisfaction. Further tests were done across the whole sample since there was not enough difference between the groups.

### ***Regression Results***

In the first test, working conditions explain job satisfaction better than work-life balance. Both independent variables are significantly affecting the job satisfaction level with satisfactory explanatory power. In the linear regression between job satisfaction and subjective life satisfaction, it was found that job satisfaction significantly affects subjective life satisfaction. However, the explanatory power is not quite satisfactory with only 22.2%.

The second test was originally omitted from the proposed model since the results from Wallace's study (2007) shows that job satisfaction mediates both working conditions and work-life balance in explaining subjective life satisfaction. Wallace et al. (2007)

suggest in their work that the spillover between satisfaction in different horizontal life domains (work and family) is perhaps stronger than that between vertical life domains (work and life satisfaction). And this could also be the case in this research as well. The small explanatory power here is arguably due to the nature of the main dependent variable 'life satisfaction'. It is insinuated in previous studies (Wallace et al., 2007; Near, 1984; Near and Rechner, 1993; Near et al, 1987; Rode and Near, 2005) that when people were asked about how they feel about their current life satisfaction level, many factors suddenly came into considerations such as their family relationships, housing or health. In other words, people perceive their work as being separate from their life in general (Wallace et al., 2007).

Thus, in light of finding out whether a work-life balance could better explain subjective life satisfaction than job satisfaction, the test was commenced. The results were mixed; both variables are significantly affecting the subjective life satisfaction. However, both variables also significantly affect life satisfaction meaning the more positive job satisfaction and work-life balance of the worker, their respective subjective life satisfaction would also be positive, same as the previous findings by Wallace (2007) in the European countries. However, the difference came in which on Wallace's (2007) work, that work-life balance has not much influence on life satisfaction and nearly all of the variance was explained by job satisfaction, while in this study work-life balance has a slightly bigger influence on life satisfaction rather than the job satisfaction in the model, though with only slight improvement to the R square value of both independent variables with 32.9% overall.

The results came as expected and mostly in-line with the findings by Wallace et al., (2007) in which this research based on, and Drobnic's (2010) study. The difference was in Wallace's study, work-life balance has not much influence on life satisfaction, and nearly all of the variance was explained by job satisfaction in measuring the high quality of life. Meanwhile, in Drobnic's study, the major contributors to high quality of life is a well-paid job and autonomy at work. The difference in this study was, work-life balance has a slightly bigger influence on life satisfaction rather than the job satisfaction in the model. This suggests that Indonesian workers value work-life balance more than simply a good and well-paid job overall in explaining their subjective life satisfaction.

## Chapter 6

### *Conclusions and Recommendations*

In conclusion, the overall research came as expected an in-line with several previous studies that were conducted in the European setting, (Drobnic et al., 2013; Wallace et al., 2007) their studies were done based on the secondary data analysis from the EQLS with the difference in this research being the work-life balance that affects subjective life satisfaction stronger than job satisfaction in the regression analysis.

So far there was no equivalent of a nation-wide survey on quality of life in Indonesia. This issue was not only the concern of research limitations but rather the policy implications on how under-represented the workers are regarding their quality of life both by the state and by people in general. The worker's union in Indonesia were also experiencing the similar same under-representation issue according to Tjandraningsih (2013).

Thus, the first step towards a better representation of the workers in Indonesia is arguably to set up a nation-wide survey to better understand the conditions of the workers as a platform. Granted, the different conditions culturally, socially, and geographically in Indonesia would need a more specific subset of questions, planning, and budgeting that in the end should better represent Indonesian workers rather than following another country's example. Wallace (2007) suggested that differences in work-life balance and working conditions should thus be analysed in the stage of national cultures of labour market participation and models of work and care. It is suggested based on the results of this research, that the surveys include various elements of other domains that could affect life satisfaction rather than work domains only. Since the results from this research (Table 16) suggests that only 32.9% of subjective life satisfaction is affected by both work-life balance and Job satisfaction.

Such projects could still possibly be executed; ideally; with working together on multi-level coordination between Indonesian Statistics Bureau (BPS), the Labour Force Department (Departemen Tenaga Kerja), and the Labour Union of Indonesia. A nation-wide, better data could also encourage further analyses in understanding the needs and real-life conditions of the workers of Indonesia and thus, better represent the workers of the nation.

Another issue that the research result suggests, the workers in Indonesia were more concerned about work-life balance rather than their job satisfaction level. The results contradict the results from the European studies that suggest that work-life balance did not appear to have much of a direct or indirect influence on life satisfaction, although many people in Europe feel that they lead unbalanced lives. In this research, this also raises the issue of working hours as one of the factors that affect work-life balance (White et al., 2003), since it was found that almost half of the respondents are working over 40 hours a week. This issue would also have to be addressed at the national level to prevent overwork on the individuals. Additional research regarding the working hours of the Indonesian workers would also be beneficial to help to assess the situation.

### ***Research Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research***

Certain limitations and absence are of course introduced in the course of this research. The small sample portion of this research may not be representative in reporting opinions on a larger scale of a whole nation in Indonesia with only 132 total samples due to the time constraint and budget constraint in the process of this research.

Moreover, the quantitative nature of this research via a series of questionnaires would be greatly complemented by a qualitative approach for in-depth knowledge of the issue from the individual perspective of the workers. An additional grouping variables such as age, education level, and gender could be introduced for future research since it was not included in the course of this research.

A wider scope of the research including also the rural workers would also be beneficial in assessing how different their perspective of work-life balance, work satisfaction, and life satisfaction from the urban workers that are within the scope of this research. Furthermore, analysis involving more than working conditions and work-life balance such as psychological factors (mental health conditions and stress-level of the workers) could also be beneficial in measuring what other factors may affect the quality of life in Indonesian workers.

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## **Appendix 1. PLS and Consent Form**

### **Dissertation Survey Research**

#### **English:**

*'You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. If there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information, please do contact the email address by the end of this form*

*Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.*

*Thank you for reading this.*

My name is Reyhan Prasyda Kusumawardhana, and I am a postgraduate student from the University of Glasgow's School of Social and Political Science studying Public Policy and Management. The survey you about to see is part of my research study for my Master Degree's dissertation. The purpose of the study is to analyse precarious working conditions on outsourced workers in Indonesian urban setting towards their quality of life. If you are working with contracts or sub-contracts within a paid employment, that means you are suitable as a participant for this research. You can take part by fulfilling the survey answering all the questions and help with this research and it should take about 10 minutes to fill all the questions.

This survey is intended for those in urban / urban environments, where the definition of urban areas is a region that has a major non-agricultural activity with a set of regional functions as a place of government services, social services and economic activities (Law No. 22/1999).

There is an opportunity to win a raffle in the form of electronic phone credit amounted 100,000 rupiah for 3 people, please read the next section of this information sheet for more information.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to tick the agreement checkbox in the participant consent form section. Your participation in this study would be completely voluntary and there is no obligations to fulfil the survey. Should you change your thoughts in the middle of the survey, you could always stop anywhere in the questionnaires and all data previously inputted will be deleted. There is no known risks for you in this study. All data gathered in this survey will be kept confidential and

anonymous within the researcher and the supervisor of this research and will be kept with the utmost security possible.

Please note that assurances on confidentiality will be strictly adhered to unless evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered. In such cases the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory bodies/agencies.

This project has been reviewed by the School of Social and Political Sciences Ethics Committee, University of Glasgow

**\*\*Please note, you must be 18 or older in order to take part in this survey.**

Contact for Further Information / Kontak untuk Informasi Lebih Lanjut

2346101k@student.gla.ac.uk

**If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research project, you can contact the School of Social & Political Sciences Postgraduate Ethics Administrator: Jakki Walsh, email:[Jakki.Walsh@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:Jakki.Walsh@glasgow.ac.uk).**

#### **Disclaimer**

I confirm that I have read and understood the Plain Language Statement/Participant Information Sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

I acknowledge that participants will not be referred in the survey by any means.

- I agree to take part in this research study
- I agree to give my email address for the purpose of entering the raffle

(e-mail will not be used as part of the research, and e-mail data will be destroyed after the raffle is complete)

**Indonesia:**

**Survey Penelitian Disertasi**

Anda telah diundang untuk menjadi bagian dari sebuah riset.

Sebelum melanjutkan, Anda dapat mengetahui tujuan riset dan sejauh mana keterlibatan Anda dalam riset ini pada bagian Lembar Informasi Partisipan. Mohon baca Lembar Informasi Partisipan berikut dengan hati-hati dan silakan diskusikan dengan rekan Anda bila perlu. Apabila Anda membutuhkan informasi lebih lanjut, Anda dapat menghubungi ke alamat E-mail dibawah halaman ini.

Silakan membaca Lembar Informasi Partisipan berikut ini sebelum memutuskan lebih lanjut untuk mengisi survey atau tidak.

Terima Kasih

### **Lembar Informasi Partisipan**

Nama saya Reyhan Prasyda Kusumawardhana, saya adalah mahasiswa Master dari University of Glasgow Social and Political Science jurusan Public Policy and Management. Survey ini adalah bagian dari proyek riset untuk disertasi gelar Master saya. Tujuan studi ini adalah untuk menganalisa efek kondisi kerja pada pekerja terhadap kualitas hidup subjektif setiap individu. Apabila Anda adalah pekerja yang saat ini sedang bekerja di Indonesia, maka anda dapat mengisi survey ini. Anda dapat mengisi semua bagian survey dengan durasi sekitar 10 menit.

Survey ini ditujukan untuk Anda yang berada di lingkungan urban/perkotaan, dimana pengertian kawasan perkotaan adalah kawasan yang mempunyai kegiatan utama bukan pertanian dengan susunan fungsi kawasan sebagai tempat pelayanan jasa pemerintahan, pelayanan sosial dan kegiatan ekonomi (UU No 22/ 1999).

Terdapat kesempatan untuk memenangkan undian berupa Pulsa elektronik sebesar 100.000 rupiah untuk 3 orang yang beruntung, mohon baca bagian berikutnya dari lembar informasi ini untuk informasi lebih lanjut.

Apabila anda setuju untuk berpartisipasi, anda akan diminta mengisi tanda centang persetujuan di bagian berikutnya dari kuesioner ini. Partisipasi anda di studi ini adalah sepenuhnya sukarela dan tidak ada kewajiban untuk mengisi sepenuhnya survey ini. Apabila anda berubah pikiran ditengah proses mengisi survey, anda bisa berhenti kapan saja dan segala data yang sudah terisi akan dimusnahkan. Tidak ada resiko apapun didalam studi ini bagi anda. Semua data yang terkumpul melalui survey ini akan dimuat secara rahasia dan anonim dan disimpan dengan keamanan maksimal.



Apabila anda ingin mengikuti undian untuk memenangkan hadiah pulsa, maka anda akan diminta untuk mengisi nomor telpon genggam anda pada akhir survey ini. Tidak ada paksaan untuk mengikuti undian, dan data nomor yang terkumpul akan segera dimusnahkan setelah pemenang terpilih untuk menjaga kerahasiaan dan privasi data anda.

Jaminan kerahasiaan akan secara dipatuhi dan diawasi secara ketat. Jika terbukti ada kesalahan atau potensi bahaya, Maka Universitas berkewajiban untuk menghubungi badan / badan hukum yang relevan.

Studi ini telah di tinjau oleh Komite Etik School of Social and Political Science, University of Glasgow

**\*\*Perhatian, anda harus berusia minimal 18 tahun untuk berpartisipasi pada survey ini.**

Kontak untuk Informasi Lebih Lanjut :

2346101k@student.gla.ac.uk

Apabila anda memiliki pertanyaan lebih lanjut mengenai pelaksanaan proyek riset ini, anda bisa menghubungi kontak Administrator Etik dari Social and Political Sciences Postgraduate berikut ini :

Jakki Walsh,

email : [Jakki.Walsh@glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:Jakki.Walsh@glasgow.ac.uk).

#### **Disclaimer**

Saya telah membaca dan mengerti bagian Informasi Partisipan dari studi diatas, dan telah diberi kesempatan untuk bertanya.

Saya mengerti bahwa partisipasi saya sepenuhnya sukarela dan saya berhak untuk mundur kapanpun tanpa memberi alasan.

Saya mengetahui bahwa sebagai partisipan, tidak akan disebut namanya pada survey ini.

**\*\*Dengan mencentang kotak persetujuan dibawah, anda memberikan persetujuan untuk menjadi bagian dari studi ini. Kembalinya survey ini akan dianggap sebagai persetujuan dari anda untuk berpartisipasi.**

- Saya setuju untuk menjadi partisipan pada studi ini

- Saya setuju untuk memberi rincian nomor telepon genggam saya hanya untuk kesempatan mendapatkan hadiah undian (e-mail tidak akan digunakan sebagai bagian dari riset, dan semua data e-mail terkumpul akan dihapus setelah pemenang undian terpilih)

## Appendix 2. Question Items

Indicators	Items	Recoded	Bahasa	English	Source
working hours	-		Berapa lamakah jam kerja normal pada pekerjaan utama Anda dalam seminggu ?	How long is the normal working hour for your main job in a week?	European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), (2003)
contract type	-		Apakah pekerjaan Anda berbasis pada :	Is your work based on:	
secondary job	-		Selain pekerjaan utama Anda, apakah Anda memiliki pekerjaan sampingan dan/atau bisnis sampingan dalam jangka waktu empat minggu terakhir?	In addition to your main job, do you have a side job and / or a side business within the past four weeks?	
occupational status	-		Apakah pekerjaan Anda saat ini?	What is your current job?	
supervisory responsibilities	-		Pada pekerjaan utama Anda, apakah Anda memiliki tanggung jawab untuk mengawasi pekerjaan karyawan lain ?	In your main job, do you have the responsibility to oversee the work of other employees?	
fear of losing job	wc1	recoded	Menurut Anda, seberapa mungkin Anda akan kehilangan pekerjaan Anda dalam waktu 6 bulan berikut?	In your opinion, how could you lose your job within the next 6 months?	
psychological stress	wc2	recoded	"Pekerjaan saya menuntut terlalu banyak dan membuat saya stres"	My job demands too much and stresses me out	
rewards	wc3		"Saya dibayar dengan cukup"	I am well paid	
work autonomy	wc4		"Saya memiliki kebebasan kuat untuk menentukan bagaimana saya mengerjakan pekerjaan saya"	I have strong freedom to determine how I do my work	

intrinsically unrewarding	wc5	recoded	"Pekerjaan saya sangat membosankan"	My job is very boring	
career opportunities	wc6		"Pekerjaan saya memberikan prospek baik untuk kemajuan karir saya"	My job provides good prospects for the advancement of my career	
work intensity	wc7	recoded	"Saya selalu bekerja dengan deadline yang ketat"	I always work with tight deadlines	
physiological stress	wc8	recoded	"Saya bekerja pada situasi yang berbahaya dan/atau tidak sehat"	I work in dangerous and / or unhealthy situations	
time balance	wlb1		"Saya merasa bahagia dengan pekerjaan saya serta kehidupan diluar pekerjaan saya"	I feel happy with my work and life outside my work	Haar et al. (2013)
involved balance	wlb2		"Akhir-akhir ini, saya merasa menikmati kehidupan kerja dan kehidupan diluar pekerjaan saya"	Lately, I feel enjoy working life and life outside of my work	
satisfaction balance	wlb3		Saya berhasil menyeimbangkan tuntutan pekerjaan dan kehidupan pribadi / keluarga dengan baik	I managed to balance the demands of work and personal / family life well	
job satisfaction	js		Dalam skala 1 - 5 seberapa puaskah anda dengan pekerjaan utama anda?	On a scale of 1 - 5, how satisfied are you with your main job?	European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), (2003)
general satisfaction	sls1		Saya merasa puas dengan hidup saya.	I feel satisfied with my life.	Diener et al. (1985)

needs & wants satisfaction	sls2		Sejauh ini, saya telah mendapatkan apa yang saya mau didalam hidup saya.	So far, I have got what I want in my life.
life-change	sls3		Jika saya dapat mengulang kembali hidup saya, saya tidak akan merubah apapun.	If I can repeat my life, I will not change anything.
ideal life	sls4		Dalam berbagai hal, hidup saya sangat mendekati kehidupan yang ideal.	In many ways, my life is very close to an ideal life.

### Appendix 3. SPSS Output Tables

Equal Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
wc1	assumed	-5.19	130	0	-1.158	0.223	-1.6	-0.717
	not assumed	-5.647	115.521	0	-1.158	0.205	-1.564	-0.752
wc2	assumed	0.661	130	0.51	0.146	0.22	-0.29	0.581
	not assumed	0.691	104.126	0.491	0.146	0.211	-0.272	0.564
wc3	assumed	0.036	130	0.971	0.008	0.225	-0.438	0.454
	not assumed	0.036	96.449	0.971	0.008	0.222	-0.432	0.448
wc4	assumed	1.129	130	0.261	0.26	0.23	-0.196	0.715
	not assumed	1.213	112.08	0.228	0.26	0.214	-0.165	0.684
wc5	assumed	0.145	130	0.885	0.032	0.219	-0.401	0.465
	not assumed	0.149	99.376	0.882	0.032	0.213	-0.391	0.455
wc6	assumed	1.051	130	0.295	0.234	0.223	-0.207	0.675
	not assumed	1.112	107.865	0.268	0.234	0.21	-0.183	0.651

wc7	assumed	1.284	130	0.202	0.262	0.204	-0.142	0.666
	not assumed	1.311	97.767	0.193	0.262	0.2	-0.135	0.658
wc8	assumed	1.491	130	0.138	0.269	0.18	-0.088	0.626
	not assumed	1.397	76.717	0.166	0.269	0.193	-0.114	0.652
wlb1	assumed	-0.974	130	0.332	-0.169	0.173	-0.512	0.174
	not assumed	-0.971	91.107	0.334	-0.169	0.174	-0.514	0.177
wlb2	assumed	-0.39	130	0.697	-0.073	0.187	-0.442	0.296
	not assumed	-0.375	82.199	0.709	-0.073	0.194	-0.459	0.314
wlb3	assumed	-0.463	130	0.644	-0.082	0.177	-0.432	0.268
	not assumed	-0.468	95.216	0.641	-0.082	0.175	-0.429	0.265
js	assumed	0.841	130	0.402	0.154	0.183	-0.208	0.515
	not assumed	0.946	123.772	0.346	0.154	0.162	-0.168	0.475
sls1	assumed	1.211	130	0.228	0.187	0.154	-0.118	0.491
	not assumed	1.242	98.917	0.217	0.187	0.15	-0.111	0.485
sls2	assumed	1.114	130	0.268	0.223	0.2	-0.173	0.619
	not assumed	1.156	102.26	0.25	0.223	0.193	-0.16	0.606
sls3	assumed	-0.025	130	0.98	-0.006	0.24	-0.48	0.468

	not assumed	-0.027	108.308	0.979	-0.006	0.226	-0.454	0.442
sls4	assumed	0.405	130	0.686	0.072	0.178	-0.281	0.425
	not assumed	0.414	97.561	0.68	0.072	0.175	-0.274	0.419

**Table 1. T-Test Analysis 1**  
**Fixed-term and Permanent contract (n=132)**

**Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
wc1	Equal variances assumed	5.207	.024	- .833	124	.406	-.26486	.31797	-.89421	.36449
	Equal variances not assumed			-.716	26.850	.480	-.26486	.36995	-1.02412	.49440
wc2	Equal variances assumed	1.032	.312	2.409	124	.017	.66958	.27800	.11934	1.21982
	Equal variances not assumed			2.213	28.263	.035	.66958	.30259	.05002	1.28914
wc3	Equal variances assumed	2.590	.110	-1.223	124	.223	-.35315	.28865	-.92447	.21817
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.057	26.947	.300	-.35315	.33415	-1.03883	.33254
wc4	Equal variances assumed	.048	.826	-1.119	124	.265	-.34091	.30453	-.94366	.26184



	Equal variances not assumed			-1.073	29.328	.292	-.34091	.31769	-.99034	.30853
wc5	Equal variances assumed	1.227	.270	1.251	124	.213	.35752	.28586	-.20829	.92332
	Equal variances not assumed			1.118	27.646	.273	.35752	.31982	-.29798	1.01301
wc6	Equal variances assumed	6.386	.013	.715	124	.476	.20455	.28621	-.36195	.77104
	Equal variances not assumed			.574	25.679	.571	.20455	.35622	-.52813	.93722
wc7	Equal variances assumed	.004	.948	.564	124	.574	.15385	.27277	-.38605	.69374
	Equal variances not assumed			.538	29.175	.595	.15385	.28621	-.43137	.73906
wc8	Equal variances assumed	.008	.928	.444	124	.658	.11451	.25793	-.39601	.62503
	Equal variances not assumed			.445	30.592	.660	.11451	.25754	-.41103	.64006
wlb1	Equal variances assumed	.498	.482	-.935	124	.351	-.21241	.22708	-.66187	.23704
	Equal variances not assumed			-.874	28.674	.389	-.21241	.24298	-.70961	.28479
wlb2	Equal variances assumed	1.034	.311	.132	124	.896	.03147	.23921	-.44199	.50492
	Equal variances not assumed			.120	28.077	.905	.03147	.26247	-.50611	.56905
wlb3	Equal variances assumed	3.897	.051	-.538	124	.592	-.12587	.23413	-.58928	.33753
	Equal variances not assumed			-.469	27.124	.643	-.12587	.26861	-.67690	.42515
js	Equal variances assumed	8.669	.004	.122	124	.903	.02885	.23600	-.43827	.49596
	Equal variances not assumed			.094	25.080	.926	.02885	.30581	-.60087	.65857
sls1	Equal variances assumed	.983	.323	-1.094	124	.276	-.22902	.20937	-.64343	.18539

	Equal variances not assumed			-1.153	32.333	.257	-.22902	.19858	-.63335	.17531
sls2	Equal variances assumed	.386	.535	-1.413	124	.160	-.37762	.26727	-.90661	.15137
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.409	30.450	.169	-.37762	.26810	-.92482	.16957
sls3	Equal variances assumed	4.249	.041	-1.220	124	.225	-.37063	.30369	-.97171	.23045
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.059	27.029	.299	-.37063	.35010	-1.08893	.34767
sls4	Equal variances assumed	6.359	.013	-1.274	118	.205	-.29314	.23018	-.74895	.16267
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.075	26.771	.292	-.29314	.27266	-.85281	.26654

**Table 2. T-Test Analysis 2**  
**Written Contract and Without Written Contract (n=126)**

**ANOVA**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
wc1	Between Groups	44.885	5	8.977	5.973	.000
	Within Groups	189.380	126	1.503		
	Total	234.265	131			
wc2	Between Groups	9.554	5	1.911	1.337	.253
	Within Groups	180.082	126	1.429		
	Total	189.636	131			
wc3	Between Groups	5.371	5	1.074	.702	.623

	Within Groups	192.690	126	1.529		
	Total	198.061	131			
wc4	Between Groups	14.034	5	2.807	1.818	.114
	Within Groups	194.481	126	1.544		
	Total	208.515	131			
wc5	Between Groups	8.186	5	1.637	1.154	.336
	Within Groups	178.746	126	1.419		
	Total	186.932	131			
wc6	Between Groups	22.082	5	4.416	3.218	.009
	Within Groups	172.910	126	1.372		
	Total	194.992	131			
wc7	Between Groups	9.230	5	1.846	1.500	.194
	Within Groups	155.013	126	1.230		
	Total	164.242	131			
wc8	Between Groups	3.420	5	.684	.687	.634
	Within Groups	125.459	126	.996		
	Total	128.879	131			
wlb1	Between Groups	4.088	5	.818	.905	.480
	Within Groups	113.791	126	.903		
	Total	117.879	131			
wlb2	Between Groups	2.542	5	.508	.480	.790
	Within Groups	133.367	126	1.058		

	Total	135.909	131			
wlb3	Between Groups	1.463	5	.293	.305	.909
	Within Groups	120.718	126	.958		
	Total	122.182	131			
js	Between Groups	2.329	5	.466	.457	.808
	Within Groups	128.550	126	1.020		
	Total	130.879	131			
sls1	Between Groups	3.130	5	.626	.873	.501
	Within Groups	90.347	126	.717		
	Total	93.477	131			
sls2	Between Groups	6.631	5	1.326	1.106	.360
	Within Groups	151.028	126	1.199		
	Total	157.659	131			
sls3	Between Groups	17.506	5	3.501	2.137	.065
	Within Groups	206.403	126	1.638		
	Total	223.909	131			
sls4	Between Groups	7.399	5	1.480	1.598	.165
	Within Groups	116.685	126	.926		
	Total	124.083	131			

**Table 3. One-Way ANOVA (n=132)**

**Descriptives**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
wc1 Other	6	2.5000	.54772	.22361	1.9252	3.0748	2.00	3.00
internship	6	3.3333	1.36626	.55777	1.8995	4.7671	2.00	5.00
outsource	15	3.4000	1.05560	.27255	2.8154	3.9846	1.00	5.00
Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.1351	1.31576	.21631	2.6964	3.5738	1.00	5.00
Permanent contract	46	1.9348	.99782	.14712	1.6385	2.2311	1.00	5.00
Without contract	22	2.9091	1.63034	.34759	2.1862	3.6319	1.00	5.00
Total	132	2.6894	1.33727	.11639	2.4591	2.9196	1.00	5.00
wc2 Other	6	2.5000	1.04881	.42817	1.3993	3.6007	1.00	4.00
internship	6	3.1667	1.16905	.47726	1.9398	4.3935	2.00	5.00
outsource	15	2.8667	1.12546	.29059	2.2434	3.4899	1.00	5.00
Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.0000	1.29099	.21224	2.5696	3.4304	1.00	5.00
Permanent contract	46	2.9130	1.09191	.16099	2.5888	3.2373	1.00	5.00
Without contract	22	2.2727	1.31590	.28055	1.6893	2.8562	1.00	5.00
Total	132	2.8182	1.20316	.10472	2.6110	3.0253	1.00	5.00
wc3 Other	6	3.3333	1.03280	.42164	2.2495	4.4172	2.00	5.00
internship	6	3.0000	1.09545	.44721	1.8504	4.1496	1.00	4.00
outsource	15	2.8000	.67612	.17457	2.4256	3.1744	1.00	4.00
Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.1892	1.35068	.22205	2.7389	3.6395	1.00	5.00
Permanent contract	46	3.2174	1.19095	.17560	2.8637	3.5711	1.00	5.00
Without contract	22	3.5455	1.47122	.31367	2.8932	4.1978	1.00	5.00
Total	132	3.2121	1.22960	.10702	3.0004	3.4238	1.00	5.00
wc4 Other	6	4.1667	.98319	.40139	3.1349	5.1985	3.00	5.00
internship	6	4.0000	.00000	.00000	4.0000	4.0000	4.00	4.00

	outsource	15	3.2000	1.14642	.29601	2.5651	3.8349	1.00	5.00
	Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.0270	1.49975	.24656	2.5270	3.5271	1.00	5.00
	Permanent contract	46	3.6087	1.06413	.15690	3.2927	3.9247	1.00	5.00
	Without contract	22	3.5909	1.36832	.29173	2.9842	4.1976	1.00	5.00
	Total	132	3.4394	1.26163	.10981	3.2222	3.6566	1.00	5.00
wc5	Other	6	1.8333	1.32916	.54263	.4385	3.2282	1.00	4.00
	internship	6	2.0000	.63246	.25820	1.3363	2.6637	1.00	3.00
	outsource	15	2.4667	1.12546	.29059	1.8434	3.0899	1.00	5.00
	Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	2.8108	1.19810	.19697	2.4113	3.2103	1.00	5.00
	Permanent contract	46	2.5435	1.12953	.16654	2.2080	2.8789	1.00	5.00
	Without contract	22	2.3636	1.39882	.29823	1.7434	2.9838	1.00	5.00
	Total	132	2.5227	1.19455	.10397	2.3170	2.7284	1.00	5.00
wc6	Other	6	4.5000	.54772	.22361	3.9252	5.0748	4.00	5.00
	internship	6	4.1667	.40825	.16667	3.7382	4.5951	4.00	5.00
	outsource	15	2.6667	1.11270	.28730	2.0505	3.2829	1.00	5.00
	Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.2432	1.16441	.19143	2.8550	3.6315	1.00	5.00
	Permanent contract	46	3.4783	1.06956	.15770	3.1606	3.7959	1.00	5.00
	Without contract	22	3.0455	1.58797	.33856	2.3414	3.7495	1.00	5.00
	Total	132	3.3258	1.22004	.10619	3.1157	3.5358	1.00	5.00
wc7	Other	6	4.1667	.98319	.40139	3.1349	5.1985	3.00	5.00
	internship	6	3.0000	1.09545	.44721	1.8504	4.1496	1.00	4.00
	outsource	15	3.0000	1.06904	.27603	2.4080	3.5920	1.00	5.00
	Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.1622	1.11837	.18386	2.7893	3.5350	1.00	5.00
	Permanent contract	46	3.4130	1.06617	.15720	3.0964	3.7297	1.00	5.00
	Without contract	22	3.0000	1.23443	.26318	2.4527	3.5473	1.00	5.00
	Total	132	3.2424	1.11971	.09746	3.0496	3.4352	1.00	5.00
wc8	Other	6	2.0000	.63246	.25820	1.3363	2.6637	1.00	3.00

internship	6	1.5000	.83666	.34157	.6220	2.3780	1.00	3.00
outsource	15	1.6000	.91026	.23503	1.0959	2.1041	1.00	4.00
Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	1.6757	.85160	.14000	1.3917	1.9596	1.00	4.00
Permanent contract	46	1.9783	1.12525	.16591	1.6441	2.3124	1.00	5.00
Without contract	22	1.8182	1.09702	.23389	1.3318	2.3046	1.00	5.00
Total	132	1.8030	.99187	.08633	1.6322	1.9738	1.00	5.00
wlb1 Other	6	4.3333	.51640	.21082	3.7914	4.8753	4.00	5.00
internship	6	4.0000	.00000	.00000	4.0000	4.0000	4.00	4.00
outsource	15	3.6000	.73679	.19024	3.1920	4.0080	3.00	5.00
Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.6486	1.05978	.17423	3.2953	4.0020	1.00	5.00
Permanent contract	46	3.5870	.95629	.14100	3.3030	3.8709	1.00	5.00
Without contract	22	3.8182	1.05272	.22444	3.3514	4.2849	2.00	5.00
Total	132	3.6970	.94860	.08256	3.5336	3.8603	1.00	5.00
wlb2 Other	6	4.1667	.75277	.30732	3.3767	4.9567	3.00	5.00
internship	6	3.5000	.83666	.34157	2.6220	4.3780	2.00	4.00
outsource	15	3.4667	.83381	.21529	3.0049	3.9284	2.00	5.00
Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.6486	.97799	.16078	3.3226	3.9747	2.00	5.00
Permanent contract	46	3.5435	1.10969	.16361	3.2139	3.8730	1.00	5.00
Without contract	22	3.5455	1.14340	.24377	3.0385	4.0524	1.00	5.00
Total	132	3.5909	1.01856	.08865	3.4155	3.7663	1.00	5.00
wlb3 Other	6	4.0000	.63246	.25820	3.3363	4.6637	3.00	5.00
internship	6	3.6667	.51640	.21082	3.1247	4.2086	3.00	4.00
outsource	15	3.5333	1.06010	.27372	2.9463	4.1204	2.00	5.00
Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.7838	.94678	.15565	3.4681	4.0995	2.00	5.00
Permanent contract	46	3.6739	.94409	.13920	3.3936	3.9543	1.00	5.00
Without contract	22	3.8182	1.18065	.25172	3.2947	4.3417	2.00	5.00
Total	132	3.7273	.96576	.08406	3.5610	3.8936	1.00	5.00

js	Other	6	3.8333	.40825	.16667	3.4049	4.2618	3.00	4.00
	internship	6	3.6667	1.03280	.42164	2.5828	4.7505	2.00	5.00
	outsource	15	3.5333	.83381	.21529	3.0716	3.9951	2.00	5.00
	Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.3514	1.15989	.19068	2.9646	3.7381	1.00	5.00
	Permanent contract	46	3.6304	.74113	.10927	3.4103	3.8505	2.00	5.00
	Without contract	22	3.5000	1.37148	.29240	2.8919	4.1081	1.00	5.00
	Total	132	3.5303	.99954	.08700	3.3582	3.7024	1.00	5.00
sls1	Other	6	3.5000	.54772	.22361	2.9252	4.0748	3.00	4.00
	internship	6	3.8333	.40825	.16667	3.4049	4.2618	3.00	4.00
	outsource	15	3.4667	.99043	.25573	2.9182	4.0151	2.00	5.00
	Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	3.5676	.92917	.15276	3.2578	3.8774	2.00	5.00
	Permanent contract	46	3.8261	.79734	.11756	3.5893	4.0629	2.00	5.00
	Without contract	22	3.8636	.83355	.17771	3.4941	4.2332	2.00	5.00
	Total	132	3.7045	.84473	.07352	3.5591	3.8500	2.00	5.00
sls2	Other	6	3.3333	.81650	.33333	2.4765	4.1902	2.00	4.00
	internship	6	3.0000	1.09545	.44721	1.8504	4.1496	1.00	4.00
	outsource	15	2.9333	1.16292	.30026	2.2893	3.5773	1.00	5.00
	Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	2.8919	1.17340	.19291	2.5007	3.2831	1.00	5.00
	Permanent contract	46	3.3043	1.00818	.14865	3.0050	3.6037	1.00	5.00
	Without contract	22	3.4545	1.14340	.24377	2.9476	3.9615	2.00	5.00
	Total	132	3.1591	1.09704	.09549	2.9702	3.3480	1.00	5.00
sls3	Other	6	3.1667	1.32916	.54263	1.7718	4.5615	1.00	4.00
	internship	6	2.8333	1.72240	.70317	1.0258	4.6409	1.00	5.00
	outsource	15	1.6667	.72375	.18687	1.2659	2.0675	1.00	3.00
	Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	2.6486	1.35843	.22333	2.1957	3.1016	1.00	5.00
	Permanent contract	46	2.5870	1.14651	.16904	2.2465	2.9274	1.00	5.00
	Without contract	22	2.9091	1.54023	.32838	2.2262	3.5920	1.00	5.00



Total	132	2.5909	1.30738	.11379	2.3658	2.8160	1.00	5.00
sls4 Other	6	3.5000	.54772	.22361	2.9252	4.0748	3.00	4.00
internship	6	3.6667	1.03280	.42164	2.5828	4.7505	2.00	5.00
outsource	15	3.0000	.84515	.21822	2.5320	3.4680	2.00	5.00
Fixed-term <12 months contract	37	2.7838	.91697	.15075	2.4780	3.0895	1.00	5.00
Permanent contract	46	3.1304	.93354	.13764	2.8532	3.4077	1.00	5.00
Without contract	22	3.2727	1.20245	.25636	2.7396	3.8059	1.00	5.00
Total	132	3.0833	.97324	.08471	2.9158	3.2509	1.00	5.00

**Table 4. One-Way ANOVA Descriptives**