

Precarious Job and Union Tendencies among Women and Young Employees: The Relationships between Economic Constraints, Job Security and Trust in Employers

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The aim of this study is to examine whether having a precarious job (low job security) increases union tendencies among female workers and young workers. The study examines the relationship between economic constraints, trust in employers and union attitudes in terms of gender and age in the context of the antecedents and consequences of job security. Data were collected using a survey conducted among 804 Turkish employees working in various sectors and analysed through multi-group path models, t-tests and ANOVA to measure job security objectively and subjectively. Economic constraints increase the acceptance of low job security and decrease trust towards employers. The research also indicates that poorer job security does not affect collective and union tendencies. While precarious jobs are more intense among young and women employees, there is no difference in their union tendencies. This article used the decent work perspective to explore the consequences of having a precarious job among women and young workers in Turkey. We assumed that the perception of precariousness reduces trust towards employers and strengthens collective and union tendencies. We also argue that economic constraints play an important role in choosing precarious jobs. We also test whether women and young employees, as two prominent disadvantaged groups, have collective efficacy and union efficacy in precarious job conditions.

Keywords: *Precarious Job; Employment; Decent Work; Trust to Employer; Collective Efficacy; Union Membership.*

Introduction

Globally, an increasing number of employees suffer from precarious, uncertain, unpredictable and insecure working conditions. Although unemployment seems to be the most visible labour market problem in both developed and developing countries, the vast majority of working people do not have decent jobs with decent individual and collective socioeconomic rights and trust-based relations with their employers. Therefore, actually having a job is often no guarantee of having a decent life in many countries, and there are a growing proportion of precarious jobs offering poor job security.

The long-standing global financial and social crisis, affecting large areas of the globe since 2007, together with the devastating effects of the Covid 19 pandemic on labor markets, is one of the main reasons and the triggering factors for precarious working today. Due to the global crisis, more flexible but less secure jobs have become widespread, with the claim that a greater competitiveness will be achieved in this way. This marked decrease in job security, in which quantitative indicators rather than quality came to the fore in the struggle against unemployment, had profound effects on individual and social lives. In this sense, workers suffer from both future and career anxiety, poor working

conditions, lack of trust towards their employers and workplaces, lack of social security rights and health and safety regulations at work, as well as insufficient pay rates and social benefits embedded in precarious employment. The overall quality of working and living conditions for workers is deteriorating in both developing and developed country labour markets because of this widespread anxiety and lack of trust (Marin, 2013; ILO, 2011; ILO, 2012).

Moreover, precarious employment poses significant challenges towards trade unions and collective rights by encouraging subcontracts and individual contracts. Weak and insufficient legislative frameworks concerning the collective rights of workers in these types of jobs results in a significant legislative challenge, to both precarious workers and trade unions. Precarious job workers face visible and invisible barriers for organization under trade unions. The result is a definite and persistent decline in sectoral and national collective bargaining and in employers' responsibilities to their employees, as well as a rapid increase in insecurity, inequality and poverty, which altogether undermine the essential principles of decent work.

Considering this theoretical background, this study investigated precarious employment within the framework of decent work criteria and in the context of women and

young workers in Turkey and explored how precarious employment affects collective tendencies, trust in the employer and attitude towards trade unions. The innovative part of our study design is to add the concept of "employer trust" into existing models to investigate the way that trade union tendencies are affected. Moreover, our study also aimed to test whether being a member of a union provided employment protection under precarious job conditions. The article begins with a theoretical background and continues with the explanation of the hypotheses and the method. The last part of the report is composed of both the findings of the empirical work and their analysis and interpretation by relating them with the theoretical background discussed in the first section.

Theoretical Framework

Precarious employment is a framework concept to define atypical, uncertain, highly flexible, insecure and non-standard work found in today's labour markets (Quinlan, 2012:3; Vosko, Zukewich, & Cranford, 2003; Rodgers, 1989). In other words, it seems just the opposite of decent work. It is, at the same time, the indicator concept for the transformation of the work in the traditional sense and classical employment relations recently. In contrast to the once prevailing work conditions of stable, full-time jobs under a single employer with indefinite term contracts and certain career paths with substantial progress opportunities at a relatively earlier age and with solid and certain social security benefits and rights, today precarious employment has become more common (Evans & Gibb, 2009). A related decline in social security rights of workers have been legitimised through intensifying global competition, shrinking markets, and labour-saving technologies and innovations (ILS, 2012; Metal World, 2007; Evans & Gibb, 2009) and precarious employment is presented as the "new normal" in labour markets. It seems now to be more difficult than ever to maintain decent work conditions under the continuous growth of precarious employment over the years. Put clearly, precarious employment itself includes an infinite flexibility in that employers can continuously impose new, rights-deteriorating working conditions and loopholes in labour legislation to increase the overall profitability of their business initiatives.

While precarious employment leads to an increase in company profits, as well as in the flexibility in production process, it significantly undermines traditional trust-based employee-employer relations since it puts all the risks, such as lack of social security benefits, absence of control over the working conditions, inability to make long-term plans and, in particular, not be able to join a trade union, on the workers only (IUF, 2011a). Under these conditions, the deterioration of labour peace and the increase in conflicts at workplaces are inevitable.

Another core aspect of precarious employment is that it put too much pressure on workers to develop new skills continuously in order to meet the ever-increasing flexibility needs of employers. Otherwise, they face the threat of not being considered as "employable" anymore (Schier & Szymenderski, 2007; Sennett, 2006; Smithson & Lewis, 2000). The pressure to constantly please and satisfy the

employer in terms of being "employable" inevitably increases insecurity and antipathy towards the employer.

Considering all these negative aspects of precarious employment, workers in these types of jobs may be expected to be more inclined to organize under a trade union. However, current threats created by precarious employment make this difficult and in most cases even impossible (IUF, 2011b; Brophy, 2006). Therefore, precarious employment is also identified by low unionization rates due to insufficient or even a total absence of collective rights. Traditional organization of work is now so fragmented because of precarious employment that, in some cases, workers may not even know who their actual employer is. In contrast to the traditional vertically organized businesses, horizontal structures such as subcontractors, franchisers, and employment agencies are now the ever-increasing business types. In this sense, multilateral relationships rather than the traditional bilateral relationship between the worker and the employer has become a more common norm in both developed and developing country labour markets (Evans & Gibb, 2009; Fudge, 2006).

Other than these negative impacts on working life and collective rights of workers, precarious employment has also had a negative outcome on workers' daily lives. Unpredictability and not being able to make long-term plans because of insecure employment and income cause anxiety and stress, particularly among young precarious workers (Benach & Muntaner, 2007). Therefore, precarious employment has implications not only on the removal of collective rights of workers and thereby, weakening trade unions, but also can be considered as an effective way of limiting civic participation in daily life.

Actual or perceived job insecurity has negative impacts, both for the organization and for employees. In addition to individual negative impacts, such as reduced well-being and job satisfaction levels, organizational impacts include decreased performance and organizational commitment, which can also be observed amongst employees working under such conditions. Besides, there is a negative relationship between trust in the employer and job insecurity (Arnold & Staffebach, 2012; Allan *et al.*, 2021). According to the psychological contract theory, therefore, the trust in the employer will decrease due to the employment contract that creates mutual temporariness, which is one of the most obvious elements of the nature of precarious jobs (Rousseau, 1995; Rousseau *et al.*, 1998). However, union support has been reported to be beneficial in these conditions by reducing the negative effects of job insecurity (Hellgren & Chirumbolo, 2003). De Cuyper *et al.*, (2014) suggested that the variable of organizational commitment should also be examined, since it may affect the insecurity-union relationship. In this study, we aimed to investigate whether trade union tendencies were affected by other variables by including the concept of employer trust in the model. Moreover, we also aimed to test whether being a member of a union provided employment protection under precarious job conditions.

It is argued that there is a positive relationship between felt-insecurity (ie perceived insecurity) and union membership (Allvin & Sverke, 2000; Bender & Sloane, 1999; De Witte *et al.*, 2008; Cuyper *et al.*, 2014). However, De Cuyper *et al.* (2014) found that the relationship between job insecurity and union membership was stronger in temporary jobs. Accordingly, it can be argued that the increase in precarious working conditions will positively affect union attitudes (Burrows, 2013). However, although job insecurity among women, youth, white-collar workers, service sector workers, part-time workers and immigrant workers is at an extreme level, the rate of unionization has remained very low (Allvin & Sverke, 2000; Young, 2010; MacDonald, 2016; Sofritti *et al.*, 2020; Fiorito *et al.*, 2021). The fact that there has been a rapid increase in the number of non-traditional employment contracts makes it much more difficult for employees to organize has been blamed as the main driver for this. Accordingly, union membership is quite low among part-time and temporary workers (Goslinga & Sverke, 2003).

Moreover, it is stated that women are more disadvantaged than men are, because they receive less union protection and they work in more temporary jobs with lower wages (Young, 2010; De Ruyter & Warnecke, 2008). Despite the general claims that older people develop more positive attitudes towards unions than younger people (Allvin & Sverke, 2000; Bender & Sloane, 1999), recently it has been suggested that young people are developing more positive attitudes towards unions (Fiorito *et al.*, 2021). In the current situation, it is known that the unionization rate of young employees is much lower than that of older employees. The main reasons for this are the changes in values and attitudes between generations, individualized working conditions and the differentiation of working types from the past. However, it is also stated that unions have specific problems in reaching and organizing disadvantaged groups, such as women and youth especially when working in non-standard employment conditions (Vandaele, 2018).

Studies about the effects of precarious jobs on the individual's collective and union tendencies and trust in employers are very limited. In addition, the question of whether the situation differs in terms of gender and younger generations is not clearly answered. Whether these newer generations have individualist solutions to problems or whether their collective tendencies are strong, as well as whether impacts of economic constraints on the increase in the number of precarious jobs are conjunctural or a changing career path, seem important questions to answer in order to make add to the available relevant literature.

Thus, we can form the following hypotheses within this framework:

H1: Economic constraint relates positively to precarious job and negatively to trust in employers.

H2: Precarious job relates positively to union-favorable attitudes and negatively to trust in employer.

H3: There are differences between female and male workers in terms of the relationships between economic constraint and precarious job and union attitudes.

H4: There is difference between younger and older workers in terms of the relationships between economic constraint and precarious job and union attitudes.

H5: There is difference between unionized and non-unionized employees in terms of precarious job.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Much of the existing literature on decent work applies to the global labour market indices, including employment, unemployment and under-employment rates, child labour rates, discrimination at work, freedom of association and union density, working conditions, right of social security, and access to basic rights at work (Ghai, 2003; Standing, 2008; Webster *et al.*, 2015). In this context, in this study, the precarious work conditions of individuals working in the Marmara region, the largest industrial region of Turkey, were evaluated in the context of a range of variables. The sample of the study consisted of individuals between the ages of 15–64 years who had been working for at least six months. The data were obtained through a convenience sampling method within the scope of a social responsibility project and with the help of 40 university students residing in different regions of the Marmara region sending the questionnaires to the employees around them. At the end of the study, there were returns from 804 employees.

Participants in this study were 804 employees with a mean±standard deviation (SD) age of 28.78±9.258 years. Participants identified as male (n=436, 54.2%) or female (n=368, 45.8%). The sample was all employed, with (n=628) 78.1% employed full-time and (n=176) 21.9% employed in part-time jobs. Education levels consisted of primary school (n=45, 5.6%), high school graduate (n=296, 36.8%), trade/vocational high school (n=92, 11.4%), undergraduate degree (n=311, 38.7%), Masters level (n=53, 6.6%) and PhD (n=7, 0.9%). The average monthly household income (in Turkish Lira [TL] at the December 2020 wage level interpretations) was: less than minimum wage (<2500 TL; n=93, 11.6%), lower income (2501–5000 TL; n=275, 34.2%), lower-middle income (5001–7500 TL; n=206, 25.6%), middle income (7501–10000 TL; n=121, 15.0%), upper-middle income (10001–20000 TL; n=84, 10.4%), higher income (>20001 TL; n=25, 3.1%). These ratios were re-coded with 1 being the lowest and 6 the highest.

The current income level of participants was: living in poverty (n=189, 23.5%) (less than necessary to cover the bills), just enough for bills (n=283, 35.2%), and enough for bills and I can save some (n=332, 41.3%). Inability to find a job according to the skills and education level (overqualified) was reported by more than two fifths (n=330, 41.0%). The proportion working outside profession was 34.5% (n=277) and with insufficient hours was 21.5% (n=173). The unionized percentage was only 18.3% (n=147) while the percentage who had unionized parents was 24.1% (n=194).

Instruments

Economic constraints were measured through a 6-item scale developed by Duffy *et al.* in 2019. Participants responded using a format that five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "a great extent". Example items include "For as long as I can remember, I have had very limited economic or financial resources", "Throughout most of my life, I have struggled financially". All scores were

coded to indicate that a higher score reflected greater economic constraints. The estimated internal consistency reliability for this scale was Cronbach's $\alpha=0.85$

Precarious job was investigated using two separate measures. We tried to measure the concept of precarious job with both perceptual (subjectively) and some more objective indicators. Firstly, perception of precarious job was measured using the 12-item Job Precariousness Scale developed by Creed et al. 2020, which assesses four precariousness domains of job conditions “To what extent do you have a say in how many hours you work each week? (R)”, job remuneration “To what extent does your pay meet unexpected expenses? (R)”, job insecurity “To what extent are you concerned about losing your current job in the near future?” and job flexibility “To what extent are you able to take time off for a holiday or break from work without worrying about losing your job or being penalized? (R)”. All precarious job items were reverse coded except the job insecurity dimension. Participants responded using a format of a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "a great extent". All scores were coded to indicate that a higher score reflected a perception of more work precariousness. The estimated internal consistency reliability was $\alpha =0.857$ for job conditions, $\alpha =0.813$ for job remuneration, $\alpha =0.811$ for job insecurity, $\alpha =0.796$ for job flexibility, and $\alpha =0.83$ for the full scale.

Then, we investigated the precarious jobs through another instrument, the precarious work scale, which was used by Fiorito et al. (2021). This instrument is different from the previous one because the items are relatively objective, fact-based and about specific matters, and all are self-reports. Precarious work items; part-time (0=full-time, 1=part-time), income inadequacy (3=less than needed, 2=only enough for bills, 1=enough for bills and put some aside), job inadequacy (4=a lot of improvements needed, 3=some improvements needed, 2=small improvements needed, 1=fine as they are), overtime rate (yes=0, no=1), sick days (yes=0, no=1), family leave (yes=0, no=1), vacation (yes=0, no=1), health insurance (yes=0, no=1), overqualified (yes=0, no=1), working outside profession (yes=0, no=1), insufficient hours (yes=0, no=1).

Trust in employers; was measured by the question; “Generally speaking, how much would you say that you trust employers to treat employees fairly—do you trust them a great deal, quite a bit, just some, or not much at all?” 5-point scale for trust of employers; such that for the trust measure, 1 = minimum trust and 5 = maximum trust.

Collectivism efficacy; was measured by the question “Do you think that employees are more successful in getting workplace problems resolved with their employer when they bring these problems up as a group or when they bring them up as individuals?”. 4-point scale was used. 1 = more successful as individuals, 2 = makes no difference, and 3 = more successful as a group; 4=more successful with union.

Union efficacy; was measured by the question “Overall, do you think that employees who have a union are better off or worse off than employees in similar jobs who do not have a union?”. 3-point scale for union efficacy; 1 = unionized employees are worse off, 2 = makes no difference, 3 = unionized employees are better off.

Younger worker; There is no general criterion for defining young workers (Fiorito et al., 2021). In this study, we used both the “18–34 and above” classification and the “15–25 and above” classification accepted by TUIK (Turkish Statistics Institute) for comparison. In this sense, 1 = age between 18–34 years, 0 = age 35 years and above; and in TUIK criteria 1 = age between 15–25 years, 0 = above.

Union member; 1 = respondent is a union member; 0 otherwise.

Results

Psychometric Properties of Multi-Item Scales

We used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to evaluate the psychometric properties of multi-item scales such as economic constraints and precarious job. The study results showed good fit values ($\chi^2 = 323.833$, $df = 125$, $\chi^2/df = 2.591$, $p < 0.001$; GFI: 0.95; TLI: 0.96; CFI: 0.96; RMSEA: 0.04) in line with the suggested standard values (Hu and Bentler 1999; Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2010; Malhotra and Dash, 2011).

Table 1

Psychometric Properties of Multi-Item Scales

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	PFlexb	PreCond	PrecRem	PSecurity	EcoCons
PFlexb	0.796	0.566	0.334	0.796	0.752				
PreCond	0.859	0.670	0.334	0.862	0.578	0.818			
PrecRem	0.818	0.603	0.317	0.845	0.563	0.441	0.776		
PSecurity	0.822	0.610	0.181	0.854	0.311	0.074	0.280	0.781	
EcoCons	0.856	0.501	0.255	0.871	0.256	0.169	0.505	0.426	0.708

Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Maximum Shared Variance (MSV), and Average Shared Variance (ASV). Reliability: $CR > 0.7$, Convergent Validity: $AVE > 0.5$, Discriminant Validity: $MSV < AVE$, Square root of AVE greater than inter construct correlations

Results from the CFA met Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) guidelines and these are presented in Table 1. Assessment of convergent validity showed that all items loaded significantly onto their respective factors, with the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each latent construct exceeding 0.50. All measures in the analysis demonstrated acceptable construct reliabilities, with estimates that ranged

from 0.796 to 0.859. Additionally, the AVE for each latent construct must exceed the respective squared correlation between factors to provide stringent evidence of discriminant validity (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010; Malhotra & Dash, 2011; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1978; Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Descriptive Statistics

The correlations, means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha levels for the variables are presented in Table 2. Economic constraint ($M=3.06$) and precarious job ($M=3.02$) were at the mid-point, while trust in employer ($M=2.63$) was below average. On the other hand, collective efficacy with union option ($M=2.57$) and collective efficacy without union option ($M=2.13$) and union efficacy ($M=2.42$) were all above average. As seen in Table 2, precarious job moderately correlated with economic constraint ($r=0.405$), trust in employer ($r=-0.439$), household income ($r=-0.249$) and weakly correlated with collective efficacy ($r=0.074$) but did not correlate with union efficacy. In addition, union efficacy weakly correlated with economic constraint ($r=0.096$), age ($r=0.102$), household income ($r=-0.084$), education ($r=-0.085$) and precarious job condition ($r=0.086$).

Precarious Job and Unionism

In response to the question "Which option would you choose in solving workplace problems?", 23.5 % said union organization, while 37.9 % marked the option of "as a group and collectively". The percentage of people who believed that they could solve work place problems individually was 27.7 % of the entire sample. Only 10.9 % of the participants marked the "doesn't matter" option. Accordingly, individuality was not actually the prominent choice in problem solving. While the majority of the participants favored one of the collective options, it is noteworthy that the union option remained was chosen less frequently than the individual solution. In addition, 52.8 % of the participants did not see unionization as a solution, although they felt that union members were in a better situation. Only 9.9 % of the participants stated that union members were worse off in terms of their work place situation. While 18.3 % of the participants stated that they were union members, this rate was 24.1 % for their parents.

Does unionization provide protection for precarious job conditions?

To answer this question, we compared the situations of unionized and non-unionized employees with questions and statements on a fully subjective and semi-objective basis. There was no difference between unionized and non-unionized individuals in terms of perceived economic problems, which was measured in three different ways (for economic constraint $p=0.787$; for precarious job remuneration $p=0.539$; for income inadequacy $p=0.253$). This may be explained by a general dissatisfaction with wages in terms of perceived poverty. However, when income levels were examined, the average income level of the unionized people was 3.12, but the income level of non-unionized participants was 2.82. The difference between unionized and non-unionized individuals in terms of income level was significant ($p=0.011$). In addition, an important finding that emerged in the additional analysis is that in the comparison made between those with and without a unionized parent, the household income average of those with unionized parents was 3.11 and that of those without a unionized parent was 2.81, which was also significant

($p=0.004$). In terms of collective efficacy with union option among unionist attitudes, the average of those who have a unionized parent was 2.79, and the average of those who did not have a unionized parent was 2.50, which was again a significant difference ($p=0.001$). This suggests that a collective tendency may be related to the culture from the family. Hence, while parents of 44.9% of those who are members of a union ($n=147$) are also members of a union, only 19.5% of the parents of non-union members ($n=657$) are also members of a union.

As seen in Table 3, 5% of unionized workers work part-time, versus 25% of non-unionized workers, and this difference was significant ($p<0.001$). Interestingly, 33% of unionized workers think they are overqualified, versus 42% of non-unionized workers ($p=0.031$). Furthermore, 27% of unionized workers think they are working outside profession, versus 36% of non-unionized workers ($p=0.033$).

Unionized workers had significantly better conditions compared to non-unionized workers in terms of basic rights, such as no overtime rate (unionized=40%, non-unionized=56%, $p<0.001$), no sick days (unionized=28%, non-unionized=49%, $p<0.001$), no health insurance (unionized=10%, non-unionized=21%, $p<0.001$), no vacation (unionized=34%, non-unionized=48%, $p=0.002$), and no family leave (unionized=50%, non-unionized=61%, $p=0.011$). In addition, in terms of insufficient hours, non-unionized workers were working less than necessary at a higher rate (unionized=14%, non-unionized=23%, $p=0.008$).

Although non-unionized employees generally work in conditions that are more negative when measured as objectively as possible within the constraints of this study, unionized employees were in a more negative situation in terms of perceived working conditions. Thus there were differences between unionized and non-unionized individuals in terms of perceived precarious job condition (unionized=3.47, non-unionized=3.22, $p=0.023$) and job inadequacy (unionized=3.63, non-unionized=3.39, $p<0.001$). This can be explained by the expectation that the working conditions of the union members, whose basic rights have been met largely compared to the non-unionized workers, can be improved further, or that they are more aware of their rights.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analysis of the Variables

	M	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Age	28.78	9.25	804	1											
2. Household Income	2.88	1.28	804	.076*											
3. Education	3.06	1.14	804	.026	.265**										
4. Trust to Employer	2.63	1.08	804	.032	.134**	.022									
5. Economic Constrain	3.06	0.93	804	.088*	-.328**	-.101**	-.223**	.85							
6. Precarious Job	3.02	.78	804	-.042	-.249**	-.066	-.439**	.405**	.83						
7. Precarious Job Conditions	3.26	1.21	804	.061	-.082*	-.023	-.303**	.153**	.704**	.85					
8. Precarious Job Remuneration	3.06	1.01	804	-.025	-.316**	-.139**	-.394**	.419**	.716**	.364**	.81				
9. Precarious Job Insecurity	2.90	1.18	804	-.109**	-.165**	.000	-.191**	.366**	.581**	.082*	.244**	.81			
10. Precarious Job Flexibility	2.84	1.11	804	-.047	-.151**	-.034	-.347**	.205**	.787**	.479**	.454**	.267**	.79		
11. Collective Efficacy	2.57	1.12	804	.079*	.033	.010	-.069	.018	.074*	.043	.029	.065	.065		
12. Collective Efficacy (without union option)	2.13	.91	615	-.023	.048	-.033	-.095*	-.067	-.020	-.008	-.022	-.009	-.020	1.000**	
13. Union Efficacy	2.42	.66	804	.102**	-.084*	-.085*	-.067	.096**	-.068	.086*	.046	.034	.019	.207**	.063

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Internal reliabilities (Cronbach's α) for the constructs are shown in parentheses on the diagonal

Table 3

	Unionism				t-test results	
	Unionized n=147		Non-unionized n=657		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Precarious_job	2.98	.75	3.03	.79	-.706	.480
Precarious_job_condition	3.47	1.21	3.22	1.20	2.271	.023
Precarious_job_remuneration	3.01	.96	3.07	1.02	-.615	.539
Precarious_job_insecurity	2.62	1.22	2.96	1.16	-3.195	.001
Precarious_job_flexibility	2.80	1.16	2.85	1.10	-.530	.597
Part-time	.05	.22	.25	.43	-7.940*	.000
Income inedequacy	1.75	.78	1.83	.78	-1.145	.253
Job inedequacy	3.63	.56	3.39	.81	4.220*	.000
No overtime rate	.40	.49	.56	.49	-3.718	.000
No sick days	.28	.45	.49	.50	-4.990*	.000
No family leave	.50	.50	.61	.48	-2.550*	.011
No vacation	.34	.47	.48	.50	-3.153*	.002
No health insurance	.10	.30	.21	.41	-3.882*	.000
Overqualified	.33	.47	.42	.49	-2.168*	.031
Working outside profession	.27	.44	.36	.48	-2.144*	.033
Insufficient hours	.14	.35	.23	.42	-2.657*	.008
Economic constrains	3.04	.89	3.06	.94	-.281	.787
Household Income	3.12	1.19	2.82	1.29	2.554	.011

*Equal variances not assumed.

Precarious Job, Union Attitudes and Gender

Are Women's Precarious Job Conditions and Union Attitudes Different from Men's?

First, we conducted analyzes to examine the different aspects of women, who are considered one of the disadvantaged groups, in terms of precarious job compared to men. The results are presented in Table 4. No significant difference was found globally except for the dimension precarious job (male=2.94, female=3.11, $p=0.002$) and its sub-dimensions, precarious job remuneration (male=2.96, female=3.17, $p=0.003$) and flexibility (male=2.72, female=2.99, $p=0.001$). These results suggest that women tend to work in a more precarious environment and precarious job conditions. There was no difference between female and male individuals in terms of the felt-economic

problem variables (for economic constraint $p=0.787$ and for income inedequacy $p=0.253$). However, when the income levels (household income) were examined, while the average income level of men was 2.96 but the income level of women was 2.78. The difference between unionized and non-unionized individuals in terms of income level was significant ($p=0.049$) so that women appear to be poorer than men, in this cohort.

As can be seen in Table 4, which examines the gender differences in attitudes towards unions, women have less confidence in their employers to treat their employees fairly ($p=0.016$). There was no significant difference in terms of other variables. We found that 17% of female workers were unionized, versus 19% of male workers. However, this difference was not significant ($p=0.433$).

Table 4

	Gender				t-test results for gender	
	Male (n=436)		Female (n=368)		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Precarious_job	2.94	.798	3.11	.761	3.169	.002
Precarious_job_condition	3.21	1.25	3.33	1.15	1.368	.172
Precarious_job_remuneration	2.96	1.05	3.17	.958	2.932	.003
Precarious_job_security	2.85	1.15	2.96	1.20	1.307	.192
Precarious_job_flexibility	2.72	1.10	2.99	1.11	3.395	.001
Part-time	.19	.39	.24	.43	1.617	.106
Income inedequacy	1.79	.78	1.85	.78	1.032	.302

	Gender				t-test results for gender	
	Male (n=436)		Female (n=368)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Job inadequacy	3.40	.79	3.47	.75	1.316	.189
No overtime rate	.50	.50	.57	.49	1.821	.069
No sick days	.44	.49	.47	.50	1.074	.283
No family leave	.60	.49	.59	.49	-.167	.867
No vacation	.44	.49	.47	.50	.943	.346
No health insurance	.18	.38	.21	.40	1.012	.312
Overqualified	.42	.49	.38	.48	-1.157	.248
Working outside profession	.35	.47	.33	.47	-.712	.477
Insufficient hours	.21	.40	.22	.41	.312	.189
Economic constrains	3.11	.925	3.00	.952	-1.646	.100
Household income	2.96	1.33	2.78	1.20	-1.971	.049
Trust to Employer	2.71	1.09	2.53	1.07	-2.413	.016
Union Efficacy	2.43	.66	2.42	.66	-.154	.878
Collective Efficacy (without union option)*	2.14	.91	2.12	.92	-.160	.873
Collective Efficacy (with union option)	2.63	1.13	2.50	1.11	-1.699	.09
Union Membership	.19	.39	.17	.37	-.784	.433
Parents Union Membership	.24	.43	.23	.42	-.462	.644

*n: Male=320, Female=295

Precarious Job, Union Attitudes and Youth

Are Precarious job Conditions and Union Attitudes of Young People Different from those of Older People?

Our research results, in which we evaluated the effect of age in the context of the Turkish sample, showed two different situations based on two different classifications of "young people". First, we analysed the differences according to the classification used in other studies (Fiorito *et al.*, 2021; Miguel Carmo *et al.*, 2014), which considers the 18–34 age range as young (see Table 5). With this classification we found significant differences only in the context of part-time (younger=25%,

older=9%, $p < 0.001$), job inadequacy (younger=3.40, older=3.59, $p = 0.001$), no health insurance (younger=21%, older=11%, $p < 0.001$) and precarious job insecurity (younger=2.96, older=2.68, $p = 0.009$), in contrast to the findings reported by Fiorito. Young people report more unfavorable conditions in all areas except for job inadequacy. Although there was no significant difference according to this classification in terms of household income ($p = 0.353$), in the context of respondents own perceptions, older people say that they have more economic constraints throughout their lives than younger people ($p = 0.013$).

Table 5

Precarious Job and Union Attitudes Differences for Younger Versus Older Workers

	Age (18-34/35-highest)				Age (15-25/26-highest)							
	Younger n=642		Older n=162		t	p	Younger n=409		Older n=395		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD			M	SD	M	SD		
Precarious_job	3.02	.78	2.99	.79	.418	.676	3.01	.77	3.02	.79	-.200	.841
Precarious_job_condition	3.23	1.20	3.37	1.21	-1.312	.190	3.17	1.20	3.36	1.21	-2.210	.027
Precarious_job_remuneration	3.04	1.01	3.16	1.02	-1.345	.179	3.10	.99	3.02	.99	1.173	.241
Precarious_job_insecurity	2.96	1.15	2.68	1.24	2.618	.009	2.94	1.15	2.86	1.20	.996	.320
Precarious_job_flexibility	2.87	1.11	2.76	1.10	1.067	.286	2.83	1.11	2.86	1.11	-.291	.771
Part-time	.25	.43	.09	.29	-	.000	.34	.47	.09	.29	9.098*	.000
					5.541*							
Income inadequacy	1.82	.78	1.79	.79	-.468	.640	1.91	.79	1.72	.75	3.596	.000
Job inadequacy	3.40	.80	3.59	.61	3.318*	.001	3.38	.82	3.49	.71	-2.152*	.032
No overtime rate	.54	.49	.51	.50	-.572	.568	.53	.49	.54	.49	-.179	.858
No sick days	.46	.49	.41	.49	-1.261	.208	.50	.50	.40	.49	2.958*	.003
No family leave	.58	.49	.63	.48	1.090	.276	.62	.48	.56	.49	1.628*	.104
No vacation	.47	.49	.40	.49	-1.686	.092	.52	.50	.39	.48	3.531*	.000
No health insurance	.21	.41	.11	.31	-	.000	.27	.44	.11	.31	6.135*	.000
					3.076*							

	<i>Age (18-34/35-highest)</i>						<i>Age (15-25/26-highest)</i>					
	Younger n=642		Older n=162		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Younger n=409		Older n=395		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Overqualified	.42	.49	.35	.47	-1.919	.056	.45	.49	.35	.48	2.900*	.004
Working outside profession	34.	.47	.32	.47	-520	.603	.39	.48	.29	.45	3.150*	.002
Insufficient hours	.21	.41	.19	.39	-611	.541	.26	.44	.16	.37	3.464*	.001
Economic constrains	3.02	.93	3.22	.94	-2.501	.013	3.02	.94	3.09	.93	-1.116	.265
Household Income	2.86	1.29	2.96	1.22	.930	.353	2.73	1.24	3.04	1.29	-3.475	.001
Trust to Employer	2.62	1.08	2.66	1.10	-.359	.720	2.63	1.05	2.63	1.12	.004	.996
Union Efficacy	2.38	.66	2.59	.66	-3.545	.000	2.37	.67	2.48	.65	-2.441	.015
Collective Efficacy (without union option)**	2.12	.91	2.17	.93	-.477	.634	2.21	.90	2.03	.92	2.433	.015
Collective Efficacy (with union option)	2.52	1.11	2.75	1.15	-2.357	.019	2.56	1.07	2.58	1.17	-.282*	.778
Union Membership	.13	.34	.37	.48	-5.992	.000*	.07	.25	.29	.45	-8.653*	.000
Parents Union Membership	.23	.42	.26	.44	-.803	.422	.24	.43	.23	.42	.545	.586

*Equal variances not assumed. **n: Younger=505, Older=110 (for 15-34); **n: Younger=330, Older=285 (for 15-25)

Secondly, when we looked at the differences according to the TUIK classification of young people which takes into account the societal characteristics of Turkey (younger worker between 15-25 years old), the results showed more consistency and similarity with Fiorito et al. (2021) (see Table 5). In all areas, except for no overtime rate ($p=0.858$) and no family leave ($p=0.104$), young people work in more precarious job conditions than older people. According to this classification, 34 % of the young people worked part-time, while 9 % of the older people work part-time ($p<0.001$). Fully 50% of young people under the age of 26 said that they do not have sick leave. It also emerged that unionized employees were in a significantly better situation than non-unionized employees in terms of basic rights, such as no sick days (younger=50 %, older=40 %, $p=0.003$), no health insurance (younger=27 %, older=11 %, $p<0.001$), and no vacation (younger=52 %, older=39 %, $p<0.001$). In addition, in terms of insufficient hours, younger employees work less at a higher degree (younger=26 %, older=16 %, $p=0.001$). Nearly half of of younger workers (45 %) think they are overqualified, versus 35 % of older workers. Also difference is statistically significant ($p=.004$). Nearly two fifths (39 %) of younger workers think they are working outside their chosen profession, versus 29 % of older workers ($p=0.033$).

Older workers thought more improvement in working conditions was needed compared to younger workers (job inadequacy for younger=3.38, older=3.49, $p=0.032$). Similarly, when we measured the evaluation of work schedule and conditions in terms of precarious job condition, older workers complained more than the young workers did (younger=3.17, older=3.36, $p=0.027$). These results suggest that, in general, unionized and older workers are more demanding of job improvements than younger and non-unionized workers, and their level of awareness about working conditions is also higher.

According to the 15–25 age classification, as opposed to the 18-34 age classification, young workers are poorer in terms of household income (younger=2.73, older=3.04, $p=0.001$). Likewise, young workers are in more unfavorable conditions in terms of income inadequacy (younger=1.91, older=1.72, $p<0.001$). In terms of economic constraint, there

was no significant difference between young and old workers ($p=0.265$).

When the young-old distinction was assessed in terms of union attitudes, there was no significant difference between employer trust and distrust by either classification. On the other hand, the perception that union members enjoy better working conditions was significantly more prevalent in older workers than in young workers (union efficacy for 18–34 younger=2.38, older=2.59, $p<0.001$; for 15–25 younger=2.37, older=2.48, $p=0.015$). According to both classifications, although it was generally lower among young workers than older workers, it was felt that unionized workers enjoyed better working conditions with a higher than average rate. However, when collective efficacy was measured according to the TUIK young worker classification, there was no difference when the union option is presented as a solution for the young compared to the older workers (collective efficacy with union option for 15-25 and older, $p=0.762$), while when those who choose the union option are excluded, the non-unionized but collective solution was more popular among young workers compared to older workers (collective efficacy without union option for 15-25 younger=2.21, older=2.03, $p=0.006$). When the union option was included as a solution to work place problems older workers (aged 35 years and over) tend to favor collective solutions more than young workers (collective efficacy with union option for 18-34 younger=2.52, older=2.75, $p=0.019$). There was no difference in terms of the situation where one of the families was unionized, regardless of the young people classification used.

In both classifications, it was found that older workers are 3-4 times more likely to be union members than the young are. According to the 18–34 age classification, 13% of young workers were union members, while 37% of older workers were in a union ($p<0.001$). Using the Turkish age classification, this difference was even greater with 7% of the young and 29 % of the older workers being in a union ($p<0.001$).

Research Model Hypotheses testing

We analyzed the variables as observed indicators with their mean values, and we used AMOS 22 to test the research model. This model fitted the data well; CMIN: 4.980, df: 2, CMIN/df: 2.490, $p=0.083$; GFI=0.99; TLI=0.95; CFI=0.99; RMSEA=0.04). Table 6 depicts the specific statistical hypotheses examined. Results partially supported the hypotheses. Although economic constraint ($\beta = 0.405$, $p<0.001$) was a predictor of precarious job, it was not a significant predictor of trust in employer (H1 was partially

supported). In the same way, although precarious job ($\beta = -0.418$, $p<0.001$) was a predictor of trust in employer, it was not a significant predictor of collective efficacy and union efficacy (H2 partially supported). In addition, collective efficacy (with union option) ($\beta = 0.202$, $p<0.001$) was a predictor of union efficacy. Squared multiple correlation values were: precarious job =0.164; trust in employer =0.195; collective efficacy =0.007; and union efficacy =0.047. Union efficacy accounted for only 5% of variance for the full model (As seen Figure 1).

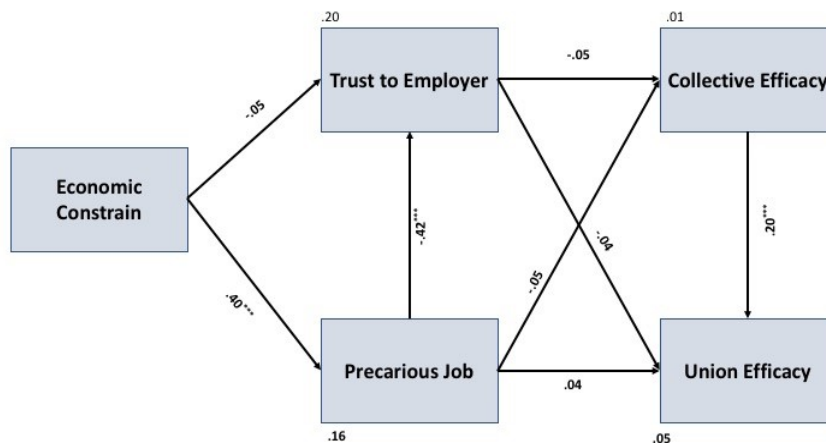


Figure 1. Path Diagram of the Research Model

Table 6

Hypothesis Testing from Path Model

Hypothesis paths	Std. Beta	p	Results
Economic Constrain→Precarious Job	.405	.000	Supported
Economic Constrain → Trust Employer	-.053	.122	Unsupported
Precarious Job→ Trust Employer	-.418	.000	Supported
Trust to Employer →Collective Efficacy	-.045	.246	Unsupported
Precarious Job→Union Efficacy	.037	.341	Unsupported
Precarious Job→Collective Efficacy	.054	.171	Unsupported
Trust to Employer →Union Efficacy	-.037	.340	Unsupported
Collective Efficacy→Union Efficacy	.202	.000	Supported

To investigate the effect of moderating variables, we followed multi-group analysis procedure (Kraemer & Gouthier, 2014; Byrne, 2016). As the first step of multi-group analysis we divided the data into two sub-samples according to the moderating variable, one for gender with the sub-samples women (n= 368) and men (n= 436), and one for age with the sub-samples younger (n=409) and older worker (n=395). Next, we estimated the same path model for each subsample. Finally, to test for the moderating effects, we conducted a χ^2 difference test. Accordingly, each hypothesis was confirmed only if the difference in the path coefficients was statistically significant.

Multi-group Path Analysis Results for Gender Effects

Results showed that the coefficient in the path between trust in employer and union efficacy had a statistically significant difference between male and

female [$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.296$, $p<0.05$]. For the male group, the standardized regression weight was $\beta = .05$, $p>0.05$, whereas for the female group, it was $\beta = .11$, $p<0.001$. This suggests that the relationship between trust in employer and union efficacy seems to be significantly stronger in women compared to men. Additionally, the coefficient in the path between economic constraint and trust in employer had a statistically significant difference between male and female [$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 10.10$, $p<0.001$]. For the male group, the standardized regression weight was $\beta = .18$, $p<0.001$, whereas for the female group, it was $\beta = .05$, $p>0.05$. This suggests that the relationship between economic constraint and trust in employer seems to be significantly stronger in men compared to women. The other path coefficients were found to be invariant across the samples (see Figure 2 and Table 7). Accordingly, H3 was partially supported.

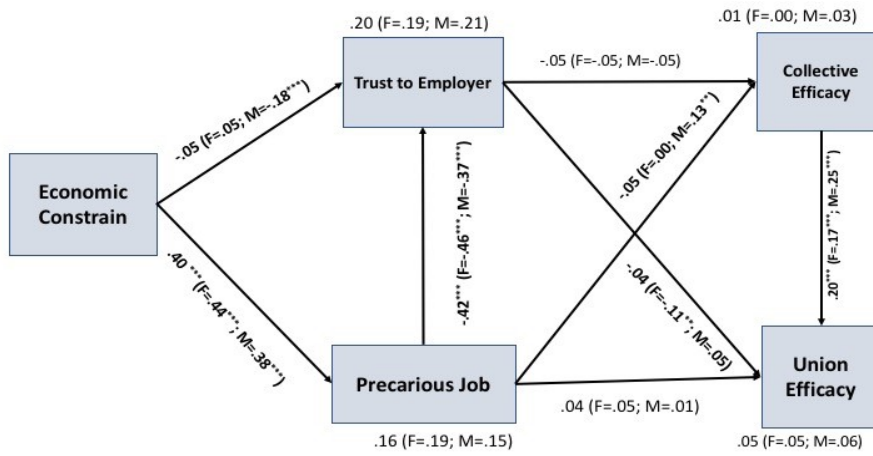


Figure 2. Multi-Group Analysis with Gender as a Moderator

Note. Standardized coefficients are reported. Coefficients above the parentheses are for the full sample. In the parentheses, coefficients in front of the slash are for the female group and the others are for the male group.

Table 7

Multi-group Path Analysis Results for Gender Effects

Models	χ^2	χ^2/df	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	TLI	RMSEA	CFI	AIC
1. Unconstrained model	8.714	2.179	4	-	.93	.03	.98	60.714
2. Eco. Const.→Precarious Work	10.651	2.130	5	1.937(1) ns	.94	.03	.98	60.651
3. Trust Emp. →Union Efficacy	13.010	2.602	5	4.296(1) *	.91	.04	.97	63.010
4. Eco. Const.→ Trust Employer	18.814	3.763	5	10.10(1) **	.85	.05	.96	68.814
5. Precari Work.→ Trust Employer	9.953	1.991	5	1.239(1) ns	.94	.03	.98	59.953
6. Precari Work→Union Efficacy	8.970	1.794	5	.256(1) ns	.95	.03	.99	58.970
7. Precari Work→Collect Efficacy	11.714	2.343	5	3.000(1) ns	.92	.04	.98	61.714

Multi-group Analysis Results for Age Effects

Results showed that the coefficient in the path between trust in employer and union efficacy was significantly different between younger and older workers [$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 9.967, p < 0.05$]. For the younger group, the standardized regression weight was $\beta = .09, p > 0.05$, whereas for the older

group, it was $\beta = .16, p < 0.001$. This suggests that the relationship between trust in employer and union efficacy seems to be significantly stronger in older compared to younger workers. The other path coefficients were found to be invariant across the samples (see Figure 3 and Table 8). Accordingly, $H4$ was partially supported.

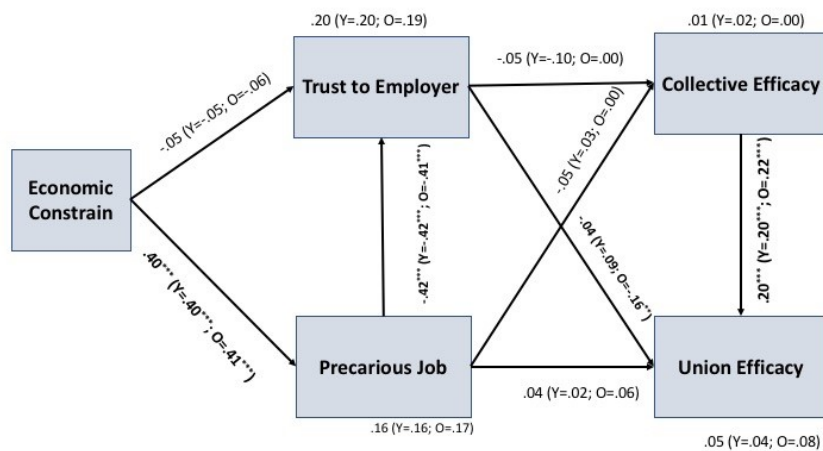


Figure 3. Multi-Group Analysis Results for Age Effects

Note. Standardized coefficients are reported. Coefficients above the parentheses are for the full sample. In the parentheses, coefficients in front of the slash are for the younger group and the others are for the older group.

Multi-group Path Analysis Results for Age Effects

Models	χ^2	χ^2/df	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	TLI	RMSEA	CFI	AIC
1. Unconstrained model	6.714	1.678	4	-	.96	.02	.99	58.714
2. Eco. Const.→Precarious Work	6.805	1.361	5	.091(1) ^{ns}	.98	.02	.99	56.805
3. Trust Emp. →Union Efficacy	16.681	3.336	5	9.967(1)**	.87	.05	.96	66.681
4. Eco. Const.→ Trust Employer	6.737	1.347	5	.024(1) ^{ns}	.98	.02	.99	56.737
5. Precari Work.→ Trust Employer	6.722	1.344	5	.008(1) ^{ns}	.98	.02	.99	56.722
6. Precari Work→Union Efficacy	6.924	1.385	5	.210(1) ^{ns}	.97	.02	.99	56.924
7. Precari Work→Collect Efficacy	7.159	1.432	5	.210(1) ^{ns}	.97	.02	.99	57.159

Discussion

In this study, we considered economic constraints as a precursor to precarious work, including perceptions of trust in the employer, and belief in collective and union competence. We examined whether this situation differed in terms of gender and age. As we were looking for answers to these basic questions, we did additional analyzes to see what caused the differences. In these additional analyzes, we examined precarious work not only perceptually but also through fact-based questions. We looked at whether these fact-based indicators differ in terms of age, gender, and unionization variables. The results of this study partially supported the initial hypotheses developed. These results are basically consistent with previous studies, with some differences.

While economic constraints emerge as a precursor of precarious work, precarious work also affects trust in employers. These results are consistent with the literature (Rousseau *et al.*, 1998; Arnold & Staffelbach, 2012; Allan *et al.*, 2021). However, precarious work did not explain the findings in terms of beliefs in collective competence and union competence. Furthermore, we found some differences in terms of gender and age. According to the findings of our study, economic constraints affect precarious job. When we compare the study of Duffy *et al.* (2019), which examined the relationship between economic constraint and decent work, the findings of our study showed that economic constraints affect precarious working, which often involves the opposite working conditions found in employment deemed decent work.

The low level of relationship between collective competence and union competence showed that although the employees want to solve their problems collectively, they do not see a union as the only way to do so. Hence, in additional analyzes, we found that although the prevalent opinion that unionized people enjoy better working conditions and the preference for collective problem solving is much higher than individual problem solving, perception that unionization would provide the solution was less prevalent than individual problem solving with no collectivism at all. This rate was close to the percentage of currently unionized employees.

While our findings support the literature suggesting that precarious jobs are more likely to be filled by women and women have lower levels of security than men (Young, 2010), different results also emerged. Although women thought they were in conditions that were more precarious perceptually, they did not differ from men when measured using fact-based questions, with the exception of the perception of their household income. This suggests that the

perception of insecurity was stronger than the reality, at least among female respondents. Likewise, it indicated to what extent real income is a determinant in terms of perceived precarious job. In addition, there was no difference in terms of union membership and attitude towards unionization, the difference was only in the trust of the employer. As women's trust in their employers decreased, their perceptions of union competence increased. In men, on the other hand, as economic constraints increase, the trust in the employer decreased. However, this was not associated in a belief that unionization would help resolve the perceived problems.

While there was no relationship between trust in employers and union competence among young workers, our findings show that as the trust of older employees in their employers decreased, their belief that union competency increased. Although employees trust their employers less in precarious work conditions, they do not see collective competence or union competence as a support source. The relationship between seniority and union membership, albeit weak, explains the union efficacy attitude of older employees with reduced trust in the employer. This association was not significant in young employees. There are important differences between young and old employees in terms of precarious job conditions. Especially for young employees under the age of 25 who work in part-time jobs, they tend to have poorer household income, and they work in much more unfavorable conditions in terms of fundamental rights, such as health insurance, sick leave, paid leave and this was more prevalent than for older employees. When we included all respondents under 35 years old, they still perceived themselves to be in a more poorer working situation than older employees in terms of health insurance, part-time work and perceived precarious job insecurity. However, there was no significant difference between young employees and older employees in terms of household income when the age limit of 35 was used. As the precarious conditions improved, the income level also increased.

In terms of precarious job conditions, unionized employees are better off than non-unionized in terms of variables measured in this study and have higher income levels. This result is also consistent with the relevant literature (Hellgren & Chirumbolo, 2003). Accordingly, *H5* hypothesis was supported in general and being unionized provides protection.

De Cuyper *et al.* (2014) did not find a relationship between union membership and job insecurity, but found a positive relationship between job insecurity and union membership for temporary workers. The same study also found that union membership increased as working hours

increased. In our study, a similar result emerged between working hours and union membership. However, the fact that the perception of precarious job was not related to both collective efficacy and union efficacy may indicate some differences. In our population, the perception of having a precarious job did not lead employees to collective or union solutions. As stated in previous studies (Klandermans, 1986; De Cuyper *et al.*, 2014), the reason for union membership and participation is not dissatisfaction with the job, but a strong family tradition of unionization (Fiorito *et al.*, 2021) and/or a strong influence in the current sector. Hence, one of the findings of our study was that among young employees, those with unionized families were union members at a higher rate than those with non-unionized families. In other words, the disappearance or transformation of sectors with a strong trade union tradition and jobs becoming more precarious may be the reason for the decline in union membership. The fact that individuals working under precarious job conditions cannot see any unionized co-workers around them confirms that they do not consider the option of membership at all. Attitudes towards unions should not be examined only from the point of view of employees, but also the perspective of unions towards people working under precarious conditions. The prejudices of unions that these employees may be more costly due to their inability to pay membership fees regularly, having equal voting rights and short-term employment in different organizations as well as long periods of unemployment may be the reasons for a negative union view of employees in precarious jobs. The fact that union voting and election systems tend to exclude precarious workers is a concrete example of this (Kerkhof, Winder & Klandermans, 2005; Goslinga & Sverke, 2003; De Cuyper *et al.*, 2014). However, in the current economic context, where a significant part of the workforce has precarious jobs and the service sector is getting stronger, leaving these employees unprotected remains a problem. Employees who feel insecure may need support for their precarious situation. Unions can play a role in many areas for people working under precarious job conditions, such as social assistance, information about unemployment insurance, free legal support, help with job searches, advice on rights and public support that they are not aware of. Studies suggesting that perceived job insecurity causes more union membership in permanent workers (Bender & Sloane, 1999; De Cuyper *et al.*, 2014) actually hint that attitudes towards unions may stem from the permanent or precarious nature of the job. While this situation can be explained by the claim that precarious employees are more inclined to be individualistic, it is also possible that unions do not have effective strategies to organize precarious employees or do not know how to reach them at all.

Conclusion

This study, which initially began with the idea that precarious jobs, economic difficulties and trust in employers will increase union and collective competence, has provided different results. These variables, which were expected to be

predictors of collective and union competence under normal circumstances, emerged as having little effect. The fact that workers in this fragile labor market do not prefer to join unions or other collective movements for secure employment conditions, even at a time that precarious working conditions have increased, can be interpreted as the acceptance of insecurity as a new reality and these employees perceive precarious conditions as a personal career struggle. The fact that the problem of trust in the employer, albeit a small one, especially among older employees, affects the union competence and whether they see their jobs as insecure or not, that the issue of trust in the employer leads to union solutions for older employees rather than younger employees may be new data regarding the transformation of employee-employer relations. However, this cannot be explained solely by individual reasons. Other significantly important points in terms of decent working conditions are the encouragement of precarious employees to become union members, participation of temporary workers in collective bargaining and representation, as well as precarious employees' perception of unions as a solution to their problems. It is extremely important for trade unions to see increasingly widespread precarious job workers as a target group, both for the future of the unions and for all vulnerable employee types.

Limitations

It is necessary to interpret the results of this study within the framework of the following limitations. First, the results from the study were obtained through cross-sectional data. Second, the context-specific undesirable effects of unionization have been ignored. Employers who prefer precarious workers to avoid collective bargaining and high wages, and the possibility of staying away from unions in hopes of finding a job may cause precariousness not to lead to union or collective attitudes. The ideological division of the unions and the possibility that employees who do not want to be involved in an ideology may stay away from the union should also be considered. Third, in societies and countries where trade union culture and tradition is dominant and socially approved, the situation may differ. In this respect, the subject can be examined further in terms of trade union culture and tradition in future studies. In addition, it is useful to investigate whether the desire of the young generation (the "generation Z" or the "millennial generation") to take an apolitical stance affects union attitudes. In addition, the effects of unions on the formation of the union tendency of employees should be examined in the context of the membership acquisition strategies of unions and whether they have precarious employees in their target groups.

Within the scope of this research, the model we examined was in the context of the antecedents and consequences of precarious job. While examining the effect of economic difficulties on trust towards employers, the mediating role of insecure jobs and the moderating role of trust in employers between precarious job and union attitudes should be examined in future studies.

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