Domestic Work as Decent Work: An Empirical Test of the Predictors of Decent Work To Extend the Psychology of Working Theory

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Compulsory Declaration:

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works of other people has been attributed, cited and referenced.

Signature: Signed by candidate

Date: 09 January 2020

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Abstract

The Psychology of Working Theory (PWT) focuses specifically on the work-based experiences of low-income workers. It is thus a suitable theoretical framework to predict and explain the work experiences of individuals performing domestic work, one of the largest work sectors in South Africa. The purpose of this study was to determine whether the theoretically derived predictors of decent work, in the PWT, could be empirically supported. Domestic workers, in Cape Town and Johannesburg, participated in a self-report survey (N = 139), which consisted of several measures. These participants were accessed through a variety of convenience and snowball sampling techniques. As expected, exploratory factor analysis revealed that the scales used to measure marginalisation, economic constraints, work volition and proactive personality were one-dimensional, and the decent work scale was five-dimensional (complementary values, access to health care, adequate compensation, free time and rest, and safe work conditions). Unexpectedly, the social support scale showed two dimensions (i.e. support from the community or friends and support from a special person or family). The findings supported the proposition that greater economic constraints were related to less decent work experiences, but marginalisation experiences were not related to the degree to which work was seen as decent, nor to work volition (mediator variable). The non-significant relationship between marginalisation, work volition and decent work changed when considering proactiveness as a moderator, however, this was only at low levels of proactiveness. None of the dimensions of social support served as moderators, though social support from the community or friends predicted work volition, and social support from a special person or family predicted the degree to which domestic workers experienced their work as decent. While there were mixed results, the findings of this study suggest that the PWT's antecedents and moderators may work differently in the domestic work sector. Future research should investigate this in the domestic work sector and other low-income samples.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The role of work is considered a fundamental aspect in individuals' lives, as it provides a source of structure, a means of survival, connection to others, and it is a means of self-determination (Blustein, 2013). When work is dignified and meaningful, it has the potential to create a life that is satisfying for individuals, a life, in which they can support themselves, their values as well as their interests, thereby empowering individuals and providing them and their families with social protection (Blustein, 2013; Blustein, Kenny, Di Fabio, & Guichard, 2019a). The importance of work has been highlighted in counselling and vocational psychology, with several theories attempting to explain work, careers, occupational choices, well-being, satisfaction, as well as work-related issues and challenges. These traditional theories include Gottfredson's (2005) theory of circumscription and compromise, Holland's (1997) theory of vocational personalities and work environments, Super's (1980) theory of vocational development, and Lent, Brown, and Hackett's (1994) social-cognitive theory.

1.1. The Limitation of Traditional Vocational Theories

These and other vocational theories focus on individuals who perceive themselves as having a choice in making career decisions (i.e. work volition) and thereby neglect the work-based experiences of individuals who do not have the same choices. These are often individuals who have low social status, low-income, are low-skilled, and marginalised workers (Blustein, 2013; Blustein, Olle, Connors-Kellgren, & Diamonti, 2016; Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016). This implies that structural and contextual factors (e.g. financial resources), social identities as well as societal prejudices and discrimination (e.g. based on gender, race and social class) tend to be underemphasised in traditional vocational theories, even though these factors have resulted in severe barriers in individuals' daily and work experiences (Coutinho, Dam, & Blustein, 2008; Duffy et al., 2016; Kenny, Blustein, Liang, Klein, & Etchie, 2019). This, in turn, has given rise to a call for more inclusive theories to predict individuals' psychological well-being at work (Blustein, 2013).

1.2. The Psychology of Working Theory as a More Inclusive Vocational Theory

Consequently, Duffy et al. (2016) developed the Psychology of Working Theory (PWT), which is considered to be a more inclusive theory that integrates social and contextual factors with individual-level factors posited by traditional vocational theories. The

PWT focuses on the experiences of all workers, particularly those who experience barriers and limited access to job opportunities. Within the PWT, contextual variables that are related to social status and marginalisation experiences are considered to be primary drivers in individuals' ability to secure decent work, and overall fulfilment (Duffy, Autin, England, Douglass, & Gensmer, 2018a). The PWT postulates several mediating and moderating variables that should be considered, as it influences how individuals manage their contextual challenges, and thus ultimately experience work. Work that is dignified, meaningful and secure is important, as it influences individuals' overall well-being (i.e. mental and physical health), work fulfilment, and results in the satisfaction of several human needs as well as cohesion within communities (Blustein et al., 2016; Duffy et al., 2016). However, decent work opportunities are not necessarily available, accessible and affordable to every individual.

1.3. Globalisation and the Availability of Decent Work

While globalisation has contributed to increased access to job opportunities, it has, at the same time, resulted in a decline in the availability of decent work and an increase in precarious work (Blustein et al., 2019a; Kenny et al., 2019). Although the variety and flexibility afforded by precarious work could be attractive, its instability has adverse effects on the physical, social and psychological well-being of individuals, their families as well as communities (Kenny et al., 2019). A reason for this could be because precarious work lacks the security and benefits of secure employment (e.g. contract stating employment conditions, health benefits and retirement plans), and it is characterised by wages that are generally lower than the cost-of-living, thereby rendering it indecent work (Carr et al., 2018). Precarious workers often lack agency and are exposed to oppressive labour conditions, which provide them with a minimal choice other than to abide by the market forces or face consequences such as unemployment (Blustein et al., 2016; Theodore, Gutelius, & Burnham, 2019). This has resulted in increased competition within the market, thereby intensifying the exclusion of those in less powerful positions and those that have limited access to resources (International Labour Organization [ILO], 2018; Kenny et al., 2019).

1.4. Research Problem

While the PWT seeks to understand the work experiences of individuals in less powerful positions, Duffy et al. (2018a) noted that studies regarding the PWT have predominantly focused on populations with relatively high education levels and yearly

incomes (e.g. Allan, Sterling, & Duffy, 2019; Malan, 2018). This implies that most empirical studies surrounding the PWT may not be inclusive of the work experiences of those in less powerful positions, particularly marginalised individuals.

1.5. Motivation for Domestic Work as the study context

As the PWT is concerned with individuals that face greater contextual and structural barriers, the domestic work sector would be a suitable sample to use the PWT's theoretical framework to predict and explain the work experiences of individuals performing domestic work.

Domestic work is one of the largest work sectors in South Africa (ILO, 2011), as there are approximately 1.1 million domestic workers employed in private South African households, the majority of whom are women (Leppan, 2019). Domestic work was often not regarded as 'real work', as it is located in an unconventional workplace – the home. Moreover, domesticity duties (e.g. cooking, cleaning and child-care) were usually performed by family members, as opposed to being recognised as a form of employment (D'Souza, 2010; ILO, 2012). This has contributed to the exploitation that domestic workers are at risk of, despite the economic value they provide in ensuring that households run effectively (ILO, 2011; Mirugi-Mukundi, 2012). The domestic work sector absorbs a large number of individuals who belong to low-income, poor segments of society, often those who have minimal access to employment and educational opportunities (ILO, 2012). Domestic work could, therefore, be considered as an important source of wage for a large number of individuals in South Africa. Hence, the domestic work sector could be a good starting point in utilising the PWT in understanding the work-based experiences of a low-income sample.

1.6. Research Question

Based on the above, the present study sought to address the following research question: To what extent can the theoretically derived predictors of decent work, in the PWT, explain the work experiences of domestic workers in South Africa?

1.7. Dissertation Structure

This chapter presented the background to the current study and outlined the rationale and research question. The following chapter provides a review of the existing literature and a outline of the PWT to derive a conceptual framework and plausible hypotheses. Thereafter,

the research design, participants and sampling, measures, procedure, ethical considerations and statistical analyses are described in the methods chapter. The empirical findings are then presented in the results chapter. These empirical results are interpreted in relation to the hypotheses and existing research, and the psychometric scale properties are examined in the discussions chapter. Finally, the theoretical contributions and practical implications are discussed, and an overview of the study's limitations and recommendations for future research are provided. The dissertation concludes with a summary of the study's findings.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter presents an overview of the Psychology of Working Framework, which served as the foundation for Duffy et al.'s (2016) PWT (Section 2.1). An overview of the PWT (Section 2.2) and decent work (Section 2.3) is provided. Thereafter, research relating to the variables in the PWT are reviewed in Section 2.4 – 2.6. The outcomes of decent work are presented in Section 2.7. Finally, this chapter concludes with a summary and presentation of the study's conceptual framework (Section 2.8), and the study's hypotheses (Section 2.9).

2.1. An Overview of the Psychology of Working Framework

In his 2013 article, Blustein outlines the history of vocational theory. In the early 20th century, the study of work was intended to broaden our understanding of the role of work in individuals' lives. Vocational scholars and practitioners were interested in assisting individuals to make choices that benefit their future as well as enhance the meaning and satisfaction of their work lives. Personnel psychologists were concerned with the organisation's perspective, namely, the person-environment fit, with a focus relating to productivity, work tenure and job satisfaction. A common theme underlying vocational and personnel psychology was the psychological study of work from an individual and organisational perspective. Contemporary vocational and industrial/organisational psychology generally focus on the work lives of people who tend to have a choice in terms of how they engage in their work lives. They are designed with privileged individuals in mind that have, for example, access to relatively stable jobs. The experiences of workers who find themselves at the lower end of the social class spectrum and those who have marginalisation experiences were often neglected (Blustein et al., 2019a; Duffy et al., 2016). Scholars who work in the disciplines of feminism, race and culture adopted alternative epistemologies to the positive paradigm and raised critiques around the external barriers and sources of oppression and their influence on individuals' behaviours and well-being.

For instance, feminist thinkers highlighted that vocational theory ignored the lives of women who faced challenges in gaining access to dignified work, as it did not consider the multiple life roles women often occupy. Similarly, ascribed racial group memberships could constrain opportunities for individuals' in different cultures, and access to work could be unfairly distributed as a result of racism and social oppression. Such views resulted in a greater understanding of how culture influences individuals' work and career. Likewise,

individuals may face discrimination as a result of their sexual orientation and disability. The stigma that, for example, non-heterosexual and disabled individuals face results in challenges that affect individuals' access to work as well as their work-based experiences. Blustein (2013) stipulates that each of these critiques established a foundation for the Psychology of Working Framework (PWF), which seeks to provide a more inclusive perspective.

The PWF, therefore, reflects decades of critiques towards the traditional assumptions and perspectives regarding individuals' work and career(s) (Blustein, 2006). It was developed to supplement existing vocational psychology theories whilst emphasising the role of social class and identities. It demonstrates how social class influences individuals' experiences of work, the impact that discrimination and marginalisation have on career development, and how barriers and work volition affect individuals' career decisions and fulfilment (Duffy et al., 2016). The PWF is thus more inclusive, as it considers workers who have been invisible, such as the previously unemployed, working poor, migrant workers, marginalised and oppressed workers (Blustein et al., 2019a). Blustein et al. (2019a, p. 5) summarise the assumptions that guide the PWF as follows:

1. work functions as a major context for individual well-being and the welfare of communities;
2. work shares psychological space with other salient life domains (e.g. cultural background, family context and social identities) with mutual and recursive impact;
3. access to work is constrained by powerful social, economic, political and historical forces;
4. working includes efforts in the marketplace and in caregiving contexts; and
5. psychological and systemic interventions need to include those who work and those who want to work.

The PWF, therefore, conceptualises the work-based experiences of individuals that have limited privilege and volition. It does not, however, seek to provide a testable model. Duffy et al. (2016), used specific elements of the PWF as the foundation for a testable theory, that is a theory which blends the psychological theories of work and career, with sociological and macro-level, psychological perspectives (see also MacLachlan, 2014; Vallas, 2011). The blend between psychological and sociological approaches could generate research that fosters effective, evidence-based theory building, practices that assist individual well-being and ultimately inform policies (Duffy et al., 2016). The PWT is outlined in the following section.

2.2. An Overview of the Psychology of Working Theory

An important attribute of the PWT is the inclusion of social and economic factors as determinants of individuals' work experiences. Including these factors provides not only a realistic but also an inclusive way of understanding individuals' work and career. The theory contains 32 propositions that capture the way(s) in which individuals secure decent work and experience the outcomes of it. Particular focus is directed toward individuals that have restricted career choices as a result of economic constraints and marginalisation experiences. The PWT considers decent work as a central component to the theory, which connects theory-driven predictors and outcomes. Duffy et al.'s (2016) main goals of the PWT are highlighted below:

a) capture the experience of work for all workers;
b) locate contextual factors as the main element in the experience of work;
c) articulate, define and contextualise each construct in the theory; and
d) develop a simple theoretical model for empirical investigation.

The PWT model (see Figure 1) proposes two main contextual variables (economic constraints and marginalisation experiences) that predict decent work. That is, individuals who experience greater economic constraints and greater levels of marginalisation are posited to have less decent work experiences and lowered access to it. The theory also postulates two mediating psychological strengths (work volition and career adaptability) that are deemed as vital factors for individuals in managing the contextual challenges of seeking decent work. Hence, these contextual and psychological variables could hinder individuals' perceived sense of career choice (i.e. work volition), and thus decrease access to decent work opportunities (Blustein et al., 2019b; Kenny et al., 2019). The theory proposes several moderators (proactive personality, critical consciousness, social support and economic conditions) that influence the relationship between the contextual factors and individual strengths, and decent work. In addition, decent work is positioned as a central component in the theory, as it is hypothesised to lead to work fulfilment and overall well-being through fulfilling three critical human needs, namely economic survival, social connection and self-determination (Duffy et al., 2016; Kenny et al., 2019).

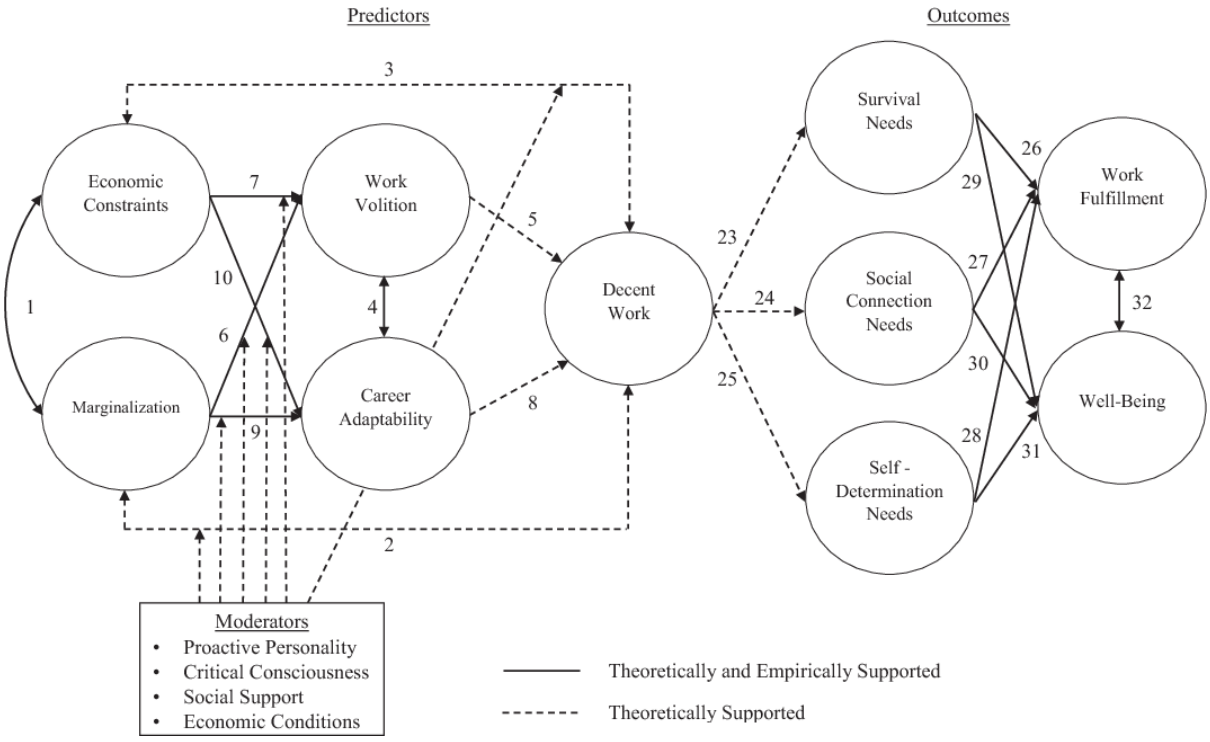


Figure 1. The conceptual framework of the PWT. Source: Duffy et al. (2016, p. 129).

A number of empirical studies exist relating to the assumed mediating pathways (Douglass et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2018a; Tokar & Kaut, 2018, see Section 2.5) as well as the outcomes of decent work (Duffy et al., 2019; Eshelman & Rottinghaus, 2019; Kim, Fouad, Maeda, Xie, & Nazan, 2018; Malan, 2018, see Section 2.7). Parts of the PWT have been empirically tested in western (Buyukgoze-Kavas & Autin, 2019; Di Fabio & Kenny, 2019; Dodd, Hooley, & Burke, 2019; Duffy, Autin, England, Douglass, & Gensmer, 2018a; Masdonati, Schreiber, Marcionetti, & Rossier, 2019) and non-western contexts (Autin, Douglass, Duffy, England, & Allan, 2017; Kim, Duffy, Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2019; Malan, 2018; Wang, Jia, Hou, Xu, Zhang, & Guo, 2019). The theory has also been tested in a variety of populations, including university students (Allan et al., 2019), working adults (Duffy et al., 2018b), sexual minority adults (Douglass, Velez, Conlin, Duffy, & England, 2017) and ethnically diverse working adults (Duffy et al., 2018a). Although the contexts and populations in these studies appear to be diverse, Duffy et al. (2018a) noted that participants tended to have higher education levels and yearly income, which may not accurately represent the work-based experiences of low-income, marginalised workers.

An extensive literature search, conducted for this dissertation, revealed that the moderators of the PWT appear to be the least empirically supported aspect of the PWT, as only two studies were found which had empirically tested these pathways, a qualitative study

(Kossen & McIlveen, 2018) and a quantitative study (Wang et al., 2019, see Section 2.6). Hence, Duffy et al. (2019) suggest that further research should examine the moderating pathways.

As indicated in Figure 1 above, decent work is a central aspect to the PWT, which is discussed in the following section.

2.3. Decent Work

As decent work has the potential to lead to work fulfilment and overall well-being, Duffy et al. (2016) position decent work as a central component in the PWT. Duffy et al. (2016) proposed that decent work exists when individuals perceive their work to provide five conditions, namely 1) physically and interpersonally safe working conditions, 2) free time and adequate rest 3) complementary organisational, family and social values, 4) adequate compensation, and 5) access to healthcare.

A brief discussion of each of the five components of decent work is provided below concerning the South African context and/or the domestic work sector.

2.3.1. Safe working conditions. In the PWT, safe working conditions measure the degree to which individuals' work environments are physically and emotionally safe (Duffy et al., 2017). As guided by the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 (1993), South Africa has a framework that guides employers in creating work environments that are physically, environmentally and psychologically safe for all workers, which include farm, state and domestic workers. Although employers are legally required to protect their workers, they continue to be at risk. For example, global statistics suggest that there are more than 2 million work-related deaths and approximately 300 million non-fatal occupational accidents and diseases that occur annually (ILO, n.d.). In the case of domestic workers, the employer's home is the domestic worker's workplace. Employers thus need to ensure that their homes are free from hazards, which include ensuring that chemicals, appliances and equipment are safe to use. However, as work occurs in private households, it may be challenging for domestic workers to contest unfair practices regarding health and safety risks (Theodore et al., 2019). In South Africa, legislations have been introduced to provide vulnerable workers with greater protection. For instance, domestic workers can claim for benefits under the Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act 30 (1993) if they have been injured on duty. Previously, domestic workers were only able to claim from the Unemployment

Insurance Fund. While employers are encouraged to conduct regular safety audits, South Africa has under-resourced government inspection systems and poor penalties for organisations or employers that breach occupational health and safety laws. Moreover, there appears to be a lack of guidance in relation to the laws concerning employee health and wellness, particularly psychological health in South Africa organisations (Sieberhagen, Rothmann, & Pienaar, 2009). Thus, there is minimal monitoring and enforcement of compliance to safe working conditions in South Africa and the domestic work sector.

2.3.2. Free time and adequate rest. This component assesses the degree to which individuals have free time and rest outside of work (Duffy et al., 2017). There is substantial literature that supports the notion that workers with greater work-life balance report more positive attitudes (Guest, 2002; Kalysh, Kulik, & Perera, 2016; Lewis, 2003). In South Africa, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 (1997) entitles workers to 21 consecutive days annual leave, or 1 day for every 17 days worked. Employees may not work more than 45 hours in a week, nine hours per day if the employee works for five days or less, or eight hours a day if the employee works more than five days. However, the nature of domestic work makes it challenging to ensure that employers abide by these laws, coupled with the fact that many domestic workers are informally employed – they are not bound to a formal work contract (Theodore et al., 2019). For instance, 'live in' domestic workers stay on the workplace premises which can blur the line between work and rest times. It may, thus, be difficult to establish fair working time arrangements, as some employers may expect their domestic worker to be available at all times (ILO, 2012).

2.3.3. Complementary values. Complementary values relate to the degree to which individuals' workplace values align with that of one's family and community values (Duffy et al., 2017). Personal and organisational values tend to drive individuals' priorities and actions and can result in increased job engagement if they are aligned (Duffy et al., 2019). In a qualitative study conducted by de Villiers and Taylor (2019), domestic workers considered the relationship that they had with their employer as a vital factor in positive work-based experiences. In cases where values are not aligned, employees tend to 1) express workplace dissatisfaction, 2) change the workplace values, or 3) resign (Dodd et al., 2019).

2.3.4. Adequate compensation. This component considers individuals' perceptions regarding whether their income is acceptable (Duffy et al., 2017). The ILO (2016) stated that the poverty levels, particularly in African countries, remain high, with work deficits and

income inequalities maintaining a divide that prohibits economic as well as social progression. Successful poverty eradication is largely dependent on government and civil society (Aliber, 2003). As guided by the new National Minimum Wage Act 9 (2018), the minimum wage for domestic workers is R15 per hour whereas the national minimum wage for the average worker is R20. Although the South African government has attempted to ensure that all workers earn a minimum wage, statistics reveal that wage inequality has increased from 1994 to 2011 (Wittenberg, 2017). The Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit developed an income comparison tool, which indicates that 46% of South Africans bring home less than R1 000 a month, approximately 81% of South Africans have a monthly budget of R4 000 per person, and individuals that earn R7 300 a month are considered to be part of the top 10% of South African earners (Head, 2018). However, the wage amount which would allow for a decent life (i.e. 'living wage') is estimated to be approximately R12 000 per month, thus based on a 45-hour work week, the hourly living wage is approximately R67 (Carr et al., 2018). This suggests that even though employees could be earning a minimum wage, a large portion of South African earners do not earn a wage that permits them to live decent lives.

2.3.5. Access to healthcare. This measures the degree to which healthcare is accessible through one's workplace. In western contexts, workplaces tend to be a common source of healthcare for working adults (Duffy et al., 2017). The South African healthcare system was constructed in such a way that it is accessible to all individuals by providing free healthcare (Seekoe, 2007). Given this system, South African employers are not obliged to provide healthcare insurance (or benefits) to their employees, though some employers voluntarily include (or provide an option to elect) medical aid benefits/cover for their employees to access private healthcare as part of their remuneration package. Most South Africans, including the majority of domestic workers, depend on the under-resourced, tax-funded healthcare system (McIntyre & Ataguba, 2012). Health service facilities provided by the state are commonly overcrowded, and there are long queues to see medical professionals (Seekoe, 2007). Herman (2015) found that most employers of domestic workers believed that the provision of medical aid cover was expensive or did not see it as their responsibility. This implies that the majority of domestic workers may not have access to healthcare through their employers.

In summary, there appear to be mixed findings relating to the components of decent work, specifically in South Africa. Regarding safe work conditions, there seems to be minimal monitoring and enforcement of compliance to safe working conditions as well as a lack of guidance concerning the laws around employees' psychological health. Domestic workers also tend to be informally employed, which makes it challenging to ensure that they acquire their legal paid leave and work fair hours. Complementary values could be viewed as a more subjective experience, nonetheless, it is important to consider in domestic workers' work-based experiences. Although there are legislations that guide employers in paying minimum wages, a large portion of South Africans do not earn a wage that enables them to live decent lives. Lastly, a large portion of South Africans depends on tax-funded healthcare systems, as opposed to having access to healthcare facilities through their employers. Therein, this suggests that South Africans, particularly domestic workers, may not experience all five components of decent work.

To grasp a comprehensive understanding of the PWT, a discussion is provided on the various pathways (predictors, mediators, moderators and the outcomes of decent work).

2.4. Predictors of Decent Work in the Psychology of Working Theory

Cole's (2009) intersectionality approach frames Duffy et al.'s (2016) proposed contextual antecedents of securing decent work. The PWT foregrounds inequality, power and accessibility while bearing in mind the complexities of individuals' social identities. These social identities are founded, for example, on race, social class, gender and sexuality. Social identities are socially constructed through historical events and they are embedded through ongoing social practices (Cole, 2009; Duffy et al., 2016). Each identity, in isolation or combination, confers some level of privilege or experiences of marginalisation. Each individual has multiple social identities that affect their everyday experiences, and thus their work experiences. In the PWT, one's social class (i.e. economic hierarchy) is regarded as a primary factor in determining access to privileges, social capital, economic and social resources, or the lack thereof (Kozan, Isik, & Blustein, 2019). Using the intersectionality perspective, therefore, allows one to capture individuals' lifetime experiences, as opposed to individuals' experiences at present or one point in time. Importantly, social identities and experiences are often interwoven, with the one influencing the other (Duffy et al., 2016; Tokar & Kaut, 2018). Duffy et al. (2016) highlight two specific interwoven contextual inputs; marginalisation experiences and economic constraints.

2.4.1. Marginalisation. Marginalisation is the relegation of people, or a number of people, to an inferior position in society (Duffy et al., 2016). Individuals are marginalised because they may, for example, be members of a specific group, have a particular identity based on gender, race, religious beliefs and physical appearance, and/or due to their overall life history (Duffy et al., 2019). Duffy et al. (2019) note that the PWT is specifically concerned with lifelong marginalisation experiences, as the relegation of people begins early in life and affects a variety of life domains. Marginalisation may thus be an obstacle and threat to securing decent work, as marginalisation may decrease or prohibit individuals from accessing certain resources, which could influence their experiences of work (Duffy et al., 2016). For example, the majority of the domestic work sector are almost exclusive black[1] or coloured females (ILO, 2011; Theodore et al., 2019), it could be expected that domestic workers are often marginalised, as they do not always obtain the social recognition and legal protection that other workers are afforded, largely because their work is considered to be invisible.

Tokar and Kaut (2018) and Douglass et al. (2017) found strong support for the influence that marginalisation experiences had on an individual's perceived ability to attain decent work. Therein, marginalisation experiences could be viewed as a primary barrier in individuals' pursuit of decent work. Moreover, marginalisation experiences are also negatively associated with vocational outcomes and affect career trajectories (Douglass et al., 2017). For instance, one's marginalisation experiences may not only influence their decent work experiences but may also influence their perception of choice related to their career decision-making abilities.

2.4.2. Economic constraints. Duffy et al. (2016) define economic constraints as limited economic resources due to low household income and family wealth. Economic constraints have an impact on an individual's ability to invest or access resources, such as stimulating experiences, materials and obtaining decent and fulfilling work (Duffy et al., 2016; Duffy et al., 2018a). The PWT, therefore, proposes that higher levels of economic constraints reduce the likelihood of securing decent work (Duffy et al., 2016). A reverse causal link is possible: less decent work experiences could be accompanied by low-income, which could then create greater economic hardships (Kraay & McKenzie, 2014). Individuals

[1] "Black" = Black African, "Coloured" = Mixed race and "White" = Caucasian are perceived racial categories that are socially constructed in South Africa, where individuals use it as a cultural identification (Campbell, 2000).

would thus be trapped in a poverty cycle as a result of reinforcing mechanisms that make it challenging for them to transition to experiences and work that provides them with adequate income, and their current work experiences, in turn, aggravate economic constraints. Considering that the minimum wage is R15 per hour (see Section 2.3.4), domestic workers face a significant barrier, as the low minimum wage may constrain them and ultimately limit, for instance, their ability to acquire adequate compensation and access to healthcare, which ultimately reduces their decent work experiences.

As with marginalisation, Tokar and Kaut (2018) found, in their data, that greater economic constraints were indeed related to lowered levels of decent work and work volition. Their finding thus corroborated the PWT's assumption that individuals' economic constraints could be a barrier in securing decent work. Other studies, however, found no direct relationship between individuals' levels of economic constraints and the degree to which their work was decent (Duffy et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2019). Hence, Duffy et al. (2019) proposed that the role of economic constraints, for accessing decent work, should be explored further in cross-sectional and longitudinal research.

2.5. Mediator Variables in the Psychology of Working Theory

The PWT assumes that contextual factors, i.e. marginalisation and economic constraints reduce the likelihood of securing decent work, as outlined above. It further suggests that the reason that these contextual factors affect the extent to which an individual can access decent work is because they influence the individual's perception of choice in their career decisions (i.e. work volition) and the evolution of self-regulatory career strengths (i.e. career adaptability), which in turn are considered to affect the securing of decent work (Duffy et al., 2016).

2.5.1. Work volition. Work volition is an individual's perception of choice in their career decision-making, despite constraints that they may experience (Duffy et al., 2016). Work volition is linked to a variety of positive outcomes, which include experiencing greater meaning in work, higher person-environment fit, and job and life satisfaction (Duffy, Autin, & Bott, 2015). Therefore, individuals that experience high levels of work volition are more likely to engage in work that is meaningful and fulfilling (Duff et al., 2016). However, the PWF/PWT recognises that a significant portion of workers do not have freedom of choice in relation to their career decision-making, as a result of structural and contextual barriers

(Duffy et al., 2015). Duffy et al. (2015) found that work volition mediated the relationship between socioeconomic status and fulfilling work, as individuals that were from high-status social groups were more likely to experience fulfilling work because they had higher work volition. Moreover, individuals with higher perceived work volition also experienced greater work satisfaction (Duffy et al., 2015).

2.5.2. Career adaptability. Career adaptability represents an individual's resources to cope with workplace demands, tasks, transitions and trauma (Autin et al., 2017; Duff et al., 2016). It consists of four subcomponents (concern, control, curiosity and confidence), which are thought to strengthen individuals' self-regulatory systems and resources, thereby enabling individuals to develop positive attitudes with regards to their present and future career (Autin et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2016; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Concern allows individuals to consider their vocational future and anticipate the following step in their career. Individuals who have control can manage their lives and surroundings through self-discipline, effort and persistence. Curiosity relates to individuals' exploration of potential career opportunities. This builds confidence in individuals' abilities and thus ensures that they actualise their goals and overcome obstacles. While these four adaptabilities can be measured separately, they are posited to represent a global indicator of career adaptability (Douglass et al., 2017). Individuals with high levels of career adaptability are thus more likely to secure decent work, as there is greater job satisfaction, career success, career performance, work fulfilment and person-environment fit (Autin et al., 2017; Douglass et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2016). Therefore, career adaptability is considered to mediate the relationship between the contextual variables and decent work (Duffy et al., 2016). Douglass et al. (2017) and Duffy et al. (2018b), however, found that empirically, career adaptability did not mediate the link between the contextual variables and decent work. Duffy et al. (2018b) thus assumed that career adaptability might need to be removed from the PWT, as other variables (e.g. work volition) may account for greater variance. Furthermore, career adaptability tends to be less studied among marginalised working adults, as it is often positioned as a predictor of career development among students preparing to enter college and/or undergraduate studies (Douglass et al., 2017). The conceptualisation of career adaptability may not be as applicable to employed adults. For this reason, career adaptability was not considered as a variable in this study.

2.6. Moderator Variables in the Psychology of Working Theory

Duffy et al. (2016) state that there are three psychological variables and one economic variable that change the strength and/or direction of the relationship between the contextual variables on work volition, career adaptability, and the likelihood of securing decent work. These are proactive personality, critical consciousness and social support, which is encapsulated in a societal context. The economic variable refers to the economic conditions in the context in which individuals seek work.

2.6.1. Proactive personality. Proactive personality is a stable personality trait, which allows an individual to take personal initiative to influence their environment and achieve their goals (Bakker, Tims, & Dirks, 2012; Caniëls, Semeijn, & Renders, 2017; Duffy et al., 2016; Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010). Individuals who have proactive personalities are unlikely to wait for opportunities but rather use their initiative, which results in various cognitions and behaviours, such as new ideas to improve work processes and skills. This has shown to be related to job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviours, as individuals are more likely to create favourable conditions that result in success at work, which benefits the individual and the organisation (Li et al., 2010). The PWT, therefore, proposes that having a proactive personality is likely to buffer the effects of marginalisation and economic constraints on feelings of work volition, career adaptability, and thus the likelihood of securing decent work (Duff et al., 2016). Bakker et al. (2012) found that employees who actively engaged with their environment managed to stay engaged with their work and performed well. Moreover, considering that employers (or managers) may not always be physically visible in the workplace, workers are generally expected mobilise their work demands and resources through proactive job crafting behaviour (Bakker et al., 2012). In other words, individuals with greater proactiveness tend to create opportunities and overcome barriers that enable them to effectively manage their job and personal resources.

2.6.2. Critical consciousness. Critical consciousness facilitates oppressed and marginalised individuals' capacity to analyse and surpass structural and contextual constraints, and ultimately attain desired outcomes (Duffy et al., 2016; Watts, Diemer, & Voight, 2011). Critical consciousness contains three components: critical reflection, political efficacy and critical action. Critical reflection is when individuals view social inequities and issues (e.g. racial and gender discrimination) systematically. Political efficacy is an individual's and/or collective's perceived capacity to achieve social and political change.

Critical action is when individuals (or collectively) seek to change aspects of society (e.g. unjust policies) (Watts et al., 2011). Ultimately, critical consciousness may assist marginalised individuals to engage in pathways that lead to social mobility. The PWT proposes that critical consciousness buffers the effect that marginalisation and economic constraints have on feelings of work volition, career adaptability, and securing decent work (Duff et al., 2016).

While critical consciousness would, in theory, apply to the domestic work sector, the researcher was cognizant of the fact that domestic work is rarely regarded as a form of formal employment, hence there are additional proposed moderators that may be more applicable to the domestic work sector (e.g. proactive personality). For this reason, critical consciousness was not considered as a moderator in the present study.

2.6.3. Social support. Social support is the extent to which individuals believe and feel that they are supported by their families, friends, spouses, and communities in relation to the stressors and hardships related to various contextual and structural barriers (Duffy et al., 2016). This has a vital contribution to how individuals control contextual stressors, even more so when individuals are in unfamiliar environments and workplaces. The PWT postulates that relationships contribute to career decision-making and provide a form of support to individuals throughout their careers (Duffy et al., 2016). Numerous studies found that career-related support enhanced self-efficacy, outcome expectations and decreased perceptions of career barriers (see Duffy et al., 2016). In the PWT, social support is seen, firstly, to contribute to how individuals manage various contextual barriers and, secondly, to support work-related experiences (Duffy et al., 2016). The PWT, therefore, proposes that social support buffers the effects that marginalisation and economic constraints have on feelings of work volition, career adaptability, and the likelihood of securing decent work (Duff et al., 2016).

2.6.4. Economic conditions. Duffy et al. (2016) are cognizant of the fact that access to decent work and the outcomes of it are influenced by general economic conditions, which are generally beyond an individual's control. Economic conditions have a vital role in how individuals develop lives that are meaningful and secure decent work. This can, for example, be achieved through access to living wages, training opportunities, low unemployment levels, increase in full-time work, and other economic factors. Economic constraints as antecedents to decent work examine how personal economic factors influence the individual, whereas

economic conditions examine macro-level factors that moderate the relationships in the PWT (Duffy et al., 2016). The PWT thus proposes that favourable economic conditions buffer the effects of marginalisation and economic constraints on feelings of work volition, career adaptability, and the likelihood of securing decent work.

As domestic workers generally earn salaries lower than the cost of living (see Section 2.3.4), the researcher, of this study, assumed that domestic workers' access to macro-level economic factors would be limited. Therefore, economic conditions were not considered as a moderator in the present study.

2.7. Outcomes of Decent Work

Individuals who experience decent work ultimately have the capacity to meet three needs: survival needs, social connection needs and self-determinations needs, which in turn enhance work fulfilment and well-being (Blustein et al., 2016; Duffy et al., 2016). Survival needs comprise of work characteristics that enable individuals to survive and ensure that they have access to resources (Duffy et al., 2016). For instance, job security, job stability, a living wage and healthcare benefits are work characteristics that ensure that individuals' survival needs are fulfilled. Through a dependable income, safety and security (available through decent work), individuals can access resources for survival. Social connection needs are the aspects of work that provide a sense of connection (i.e. relationships) to other individuals and society (Blustein et al., 2016). Work fulfils this need through supportive environments and policies that provide time and resources which enable individuals to maintain relationships outside of the workplace. Lastly, work should fulfil the need for self-determination, in that workplaces should generate opportunities for autonomy, relatedness and competence (Bluestein et al., 2016). In essence, individuals who internalise their work are more likely to experience meaningful work, as they are self-motivated. Individuals who are able to locate as well as utilise resources that create positive work experiences are likely to develop greater self-determination. As noted by Duffy et al. (2016), a large portion of the global population has limited access to decent work. For those individuals, work may be a platform of further oppression, marginalisation and exploitation. In such an environment, survival, social connection and self-determination needs are stunted, which could have detrimental effects on individuals' overall well-being. When survival, social connection and self-determination needs are fulfilled through work, it can enhance psychological health, fulfilment and well-being among workers (Duffy et al., 2016).

2.8. Conceptual Framework

The theoretical and empirical work conducted on the PWT, and outlined in this literature review, has shown that workers with greater contextual barriers are less likely to experience and secure decent work, as contextual barriers limit an individual's perception of choice in their career decisions. Certain psychological variables can change the strength and/or direction of these pathways. In the case of domestic workers, two psychological variables (i.e. proactive personality and social support) seem most applicable. As domestic work occurs in private households, one would assume that domestic workers would utilise proactive job crafting behaviour that assists them in approaching their work demands and resources. Domestic workers could also rely on their social support networks to manage contextual stressors that they might experience.

While some of these pathways have been supported by empirical data, there is minimal knowledge regarding whether the assumed relationships would apply to vulnerable workers – despite that the PWT was developed specifically to include these vulnerable working individuals. This study thus seeks to test the assumptions in relation to the antecedents of decent work, made in the PWT, among domestic workers, one of the largest low-income and mostly informal work sector in South Africa. The conceptual framework is depicted in Figure 2.

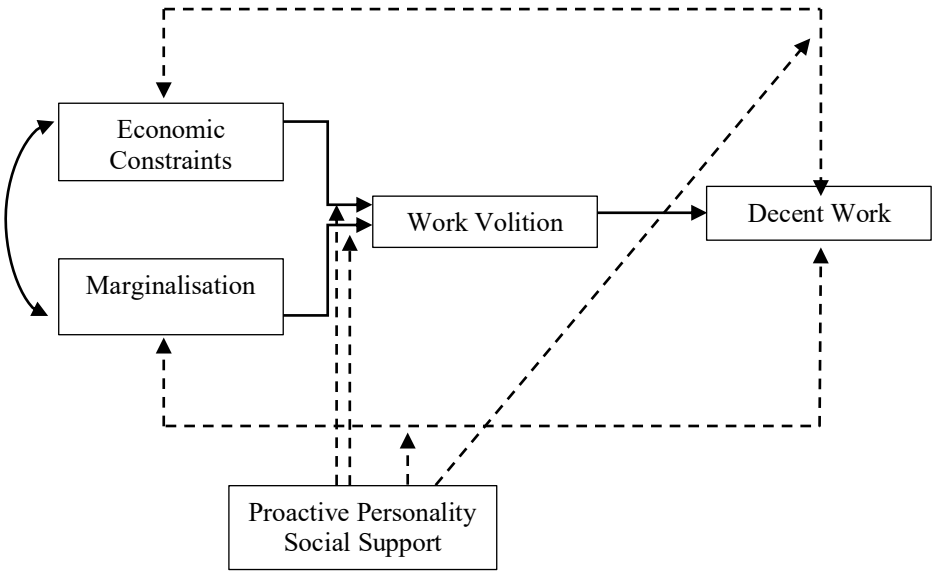


Figure 2. The conceptual framework for the present study.

2.9 Hypotheses

Based on the literature and conceptual framework discussed above, the following hypotheses are posited as tentative answers to the research question ("To what extent can the theoretically derived predictors of decent work, in the PWT, explain the work experiences of domestic workers"):

- **H_1**: Higher levels of marginalisation experiences are linked to domestic workers having less decent work experiences.
- **H_2:** Higher levels of economic constraints are linked to domestic workers having less decent work experiences.
- **H_3:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' marginalisation experiences and decent work experiences.
- **H_4:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' economic constraints and decent work experiences.
- **H_5**: A proactive personality buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on work volition.
- **H_6**: A proactive personality buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition.
- **H_7**: A proactive personality buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on decent work experiences.
- **H_8**: A proactive personality buffers the effect that economic constraints have on decent work experiences.
- **H_9**: Social support buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on work volition.
- **H_{10}**: Social support buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition.
- **H_{11}**: Social support buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on decent work experiences.
- **H_{12}**: Social support buffers the effect that economic constraints have on decent work experiences.

The hypotheses were tested empirically as outlined in Chapter 3 (Methods).

Chapter 3: Method

This chapter describes the method used to gather and analyse empirical data to test the hypotheses. It includes six subsections, which describe the study design (Section 3.1), its sampling approach and participants (Section 3.2), the survey instrument (Section 3.3), procedure (Section 3.4), ethical considerations (Section 3.5) and the statistical analyses employed (Section 3.6).

3.1. Research Design

To effectively answer the research question, the study utilised a quantitative, descriptive cross-sectional research design with a correlational approach. Data collected from participants at one point in time, allowed the researcher to estimate population parameters from the characteristics of a sample (Walker, 2005). The study used a correlational approach, as it sought to examine naturally occurring relationships, as opposed to introducing an intervention (Walker, 2005). While the chosen design cannot assess the stability of these relationships over an extended period or draw causal conclusions, given that the nature of the research question was to empirically test the pathways of the PWT, a cross-sectional and correlational design was deemed appropriate. This also ensured that it was possible to complete the study within the stipulated period of the researcher's Master's degree, i.e. in one year.

Quantitative data was collected using a self-report questionnaire. The population of interest were domestic workers. As domestic work is low-income work, the researcher assumed that not all potential participants would have access to an internet-enabled device, data to access the internet or be familiar with completing a survey on a web-based tool. Therefore, a paper-and-pencil survey was developed and distributed.

3.2. Participants and Sampling

The sample for this study comprised of employed domestic workers who worked in South African households at the time of the study. Random sampling techniques would have been ideal because it would have enabled the researcher to generalise the findings to the wider population, as every individual in the population would have had an equal opportunity to participate in the study (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis, & Bezuidenhout, 2014; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2013). For instance, probability sampling methods could have been employed in

private residential areas, wherein major suburbs and street addresses could have been geographically divided into clusters (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2013). The researcher could then have randomly drawn participants from each cluster. Alternatively, the researcher could have approached domestic worker agencies and organisations and requested a database with all the employees listed. Each employee could have been allocated a number, and participants would have been selected based on a numbering system, for example, asking all even-numbered employees to participate in the study (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al., 2014; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2013). However, these random sampling techniques are complicated, timely and costly and exceeded the scope of a Master's dissertation. Therefore, non-probability sampling techniques were employed, namely a variety of convenience and snowball sampling techniques. How these were employed is discussed in greater depth in the procedure subsection of this chapter (Section 3.4). Participants were recruited in two large urban areas, Cape Town and Johannesburg. An advantage of recruiting participants from two geographic locations were greater potential diversity in marginalisation experiences and economic constraints.

A total of 149 domestic workers completed the questionnaire. The data of nine participants were removed, as their responses followed a particular sequence, suggesting that the answers provided were not based on item content (i.e. random responses). The responses of an additional participant who had failed to complete at least one questionnaire scale was removed too. Therefore, the final sample consisted of 139 domestic workers. Participants' ages varied from 21 to 69 (M = 41.01, SD = 11.21). Respectively, the sample comprised of more females (91.04%, n = 127) than males (8.60%, n = 12). This is representative of the South African domestic work sector, which employs almost exclusively females (D'Souza, 2010). Approximately half the participants had either Grade 11 (26.60%, n = 37) or Grade 12 (23.70%, n = 33) as their highest level of education. A small portion of participants had a post matric qualification (certificate = 2.20%, n = 3; diploma = 4.30%, n = 6; Bachelor of Technology degree = 70%, n = 1; Honours degree = 70%, n = 1). Participants tended to work either five days (33.80%, n = 47) or three days per week (17.30%, n = 24), and their monthly salaries varied from R500 to R6 500 (M = R2 465.81, SD = R1 211.30). Additional income (e.g. grants, pensions and rent) that participants received varied from R150 to R1 800 (M = R807.50, SD = R527.90). Furthermore, participants indicated that they would need between R1 500 and R15 000 (M = R5 535.05, SD = R2 208.68) to have enough income to live and survive. Table 1 includes further demographic information of the sample.

Table 1
Demographic Statistics of the Study Sample of Domestic Workers (N = 139)

		Frequency	Percentage
Race	Black	123	88.50%
	Coloured	14	10.10%
	White	1	.70%
	I prefer not to answer	1	.70%
Source of Employment	Own Network	101	72.70%
	Agency	36	25.90%
	Smartphone Application	17	12.20%
Days Worked per Week	One Day/Week	12	8.60%
	Two Day/Week	15	10.80%
	Three Day/Week	24	17.30%
	Four Day/Week	13	9.40%
	Five Day/Week	47	33.80%
	Six Day/Week	19	13.70%
	Seven Day/Week	9	6.50%
Highest Education[2]	Grade 1	1	.70%
	Grade 4	6	4.30%
	Grade 5	1	.70%
	Grade 7	5	3.60%
	Grade 8	9	6.50%
	Grade 9	4	2.90%
	Grade 10	18	12.90%
	Grade 11	37	26.60%
	Grade 12	33	23.70%
	Certificate	3	2.20%
	Diploma	6	4.30%
	Bachelor of Technology Degree	1	.70%
	Honours	1	.70%
	Ordinary Level	5	3.60%
	Advanced Level	1	.70%
	Level 1	1	.70%
	Form 4	3	2.2%
	Form 6	1	.70%
	Missing	3	2.2%

3.3. Measures

Existing scales were compiled into a questionnaire to measure the variables of interest. As these scales were developed in western contexts, the wording of some items were adapted to suit the sample and context of this study – that of a low-income sample in South Africa. To identify which items required rewording, four individuals independently reviewed the questionnaire and pointed out items that may have been difficult to understand. Appendix A provides an overview of the adjustments made to item wordings.

[2] This sample comprised of a variety of domestic workers, of which a number of participants may have been foreigners. There are thus education levels (i.e. Ordinary Level, Advanced Level, Level 1, Form 4 and Form 6) that differ to the South African norm. However, as this study did not ask participants to disclose the place and/or country in which they obtained their education from, it was not possible to provide the South African norm equivalent for certain education levels.

Past studies utilising these scales had collected participants' responses on seven-point Likert scales. As participants in this study were likely unfamiliar with the Likert-type format, they might have found it difficult to understand. For example, on a seven-point Likert scale, some individuals may not have been able to differentiate between "very strongly agree" and "strongly agree". Hence, the number of response categories were reduced into a five-point Likert scale and a label provided for each answer category ("*no, never*", "*no, not often*", "*I am not sure*", "*yes, often*" and "*yes, always*").

The questionnaire was provided in English only. While it might have been beneficial to translate the survey so that participants, whose home language was not English, could have completed the questionnaire in their mother tongue, translation can be subjective, especially in contexts with diverse cultures and languages. In addition, there are not always translations for specific concepts, such as marginalisation (Douglas & Craig, 2007).

The questionnaire was preceded by a cover page (see Appendix B). This page contained information regarding the purpose of the study and highlighted that there were no known risks associated with participating in the study and no direct benefits for participants - other than receiving an incentive for participation. The cover letter also stipulated that all information collected was anonymous and confidential, and participation in the study was voluntary. The researcher's contact details were also provided. Finally, participants were informed that their decision to complete and submit the survey would be seen as an indication of their consent to participate in the study.

The final scale items are listed in Appendix C. The different survey subsections are detailed below.

3.3.1. Demographic information. The questionnaire commenced with questions relating to basic demographic information, such as participants' gender, age, education level, racial group, total number of households that the participant worked for, the days of the week on which they performed domestic work, as well as their monthly salary, what they believed they needed to earn, and additional income that participants received.

3.3.2. Marginalisation. The first scale presented was Duffy et al.'s (2019) four-item Lifetime Experiences of Marginalisation Scale (LEMS). It was assumed that the term 'marginalisation' might have been an unfamiliar term for some participants. Therefore, the scale items were preceded by Duffy et al.'s (2019, p. 203) definition of marginalisation:

"*Marginalisation means being powerless in society. It means being excluded or having little access to resources because of your gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, disability, religious beliefs, physical appearance or any other characteristic*". This definition was meant to ensure that all participants answered the items with the same understanding of the concept 'marginalisation'.

The LEMS was selected, as it captures individuals' perceptions of feeling marginalised as a result of their identity status, i.e. gender, race, ethnicity and sexual orientation. Even though the LEMS was a newly developed measure and had not yet been used in a South African sample, its advantage was that it assesses lifelong feelings of marginalisation, as conceptualised in the PWT, as opposed to individuals' current marginalisation experiences.

In their research, Duffy et al. (2019) had dropped one item from the scale ("I have been unable to escape feeling marginalised"), as the item's factor loading of .78 failed to meet their set cut-off of .80. They found excellent internal consistency for the 3-item LEMS in their sample of racial/ethnic minority working adults in the United States ($\alpha = .93$). As the factor loading of the item removed by Duffy et al. (2019) had been .78, and thus close to .80, the researcher of this study decided to administer all four LEMS items. Three of these items were simplified to suit the population of interest (see Appendix A). Examples of items are "I have felt marginalised in different places in my community for as long as I can remember" and "I cannot escape feeling marginalised". A high score on the scale indicated a high level of marginalisation experiences.

3.3.3. Economic constraints. Participants' economic constraints were measured using Duffy et al.'s (2019) six-item Economic Constraints Scale (ECS). Here, too, Duffy et al. (2019) had dropped one item ("Throughout most of my life, I have had fewer economic resources than most people"), as the factor loading was < .80. The internal consistency reliability of the ECS was found to be $\alpha = .94$ in Duffy et al.'s (2019) sample of racial/ethnic minority working adults. The researcher again decided to retain all six-items of the ECS in the present study, as the factor loading of the removed item had been .79 in Duffy et al.'s (2019) study.

This measure was selected as the ECS assesses constraints over an individual's lifetime. Duffy et al. (2019) noted that other measures of individuals' financial positions primarily focused on economic constraints/resources at present, as opposed to their lifetime.

Five of the six original scale items were adapted to reduce confusion (see Appendix A). Examples of the final items are "For as long as I can remember, I have had very little money", "For most of my life I have struggled financially" and "For most of my life, I have had less money than most people". High scores on the scale indicated a high level of economic constraints.

3.3.4. Work volition. Work volition was measured using the four-item Volition subscale of Duffy, Diemer, and Jadidian (2012)'s Work Volition Scale (WVS), which Duffy et al. had found to have adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .78$) in a sample of employed and unemployed adults. The Volition subscale is considered to best encompass work volition in the way in which it is understood within the PWT, as it relates to individuals' perceived capacity to make occupational choices (Douglass et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2012). Furthermore, this scale was selected, as it is the only known measure to test individuals' career decision-making capabilities, and it has been consistently used to measure work volition in studies that tested the PWT (Douglass et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2018b; Tokar & Kaut, 2018). Three of the four original scale items were slightly adapted (see Appendix A). Example items include "I can do the work I want, despite the obstacles in my life" and "I feel that I have control over my job choices". A high score on the scale indicated a high level of work volition.

3.3.5. Decent work. Decent work was measured using Duffy et al.'s (2017) 15-item Decent Work Scale (DWS). The DWS has five subscales, which assess the components of decent work: 1) safe working conditions, 2) access to healthcare, 3) adequate compensation, 4) free time and rest, and 5) complementary values. Each subscale comprises of three items. Negatively worded items, specifically within the free time and rest, and adequate compensation subscale, were adapted, as negatively worded items tend to confuse participants thereby reducing validity and reliability (Colosi, 2005; see Duffy et al., 2015). For example, the item "I am not properly paid for my work" was changed to "I am paid enough for my work" in the adequate compensation subscale. The item "I have no time for rest during the work week" in the free time and rest subscale was changed to "I have time to rest during the work week" (see Appendix A). Example items include "At work, I feel safe

from abuse of any kind" (safe working conditions), "I get good healthcare benefits from my work" (access to healthcare), "I am paid enough based on my qualifications and work experience" (adequate compensation), "I have enough time for non-work activities" (free time and rest) and "The values of my work match the values of my community" (complementary values). Considering that domestic workers may have had several employers, participants were asked to choose one employer when they were answering the DWS items. Moreover, to account for the fact that domestic workers are generally employed by individuals (as opposed to an organisation), the word "organisation" was removed from the complementary values subscale items and replaced with the term "work". For example, "The values of my organisation match my family values" was changed to "The values of my work match my family values".

Duffy et al. (2017) found sound internal consistency reliability for the total DWS (α = .86) and for each of the subscales: α = .79 for safe working conditions, α = .97 for access to healthcare, α = .87 for adequate compensation, α = .87 for free time and rest, and α = .95 for complementary values. This measure was selected, as the DWS is the only known measure that assesses all five components of decent work, including the perceived quality of one's work-life. Moreover, all but the access to healthcare subscale was found to be reliable in a South African sample, with internal consistencies of $\alpha > .70$ (Malan, 2018). Hence, it was assumed that the DWS would also be a reliable measure in this study.

3.3.6. Social support. Social support was measured using the 12-item Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS) (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988). The MSPSS has three subscales with four items each, namely 1) family, 2) friends, and 3) special person, which accounts for three of the four sources of perceived social support in the PWT. The researcher added a fourth subscale (i.e. community) to ensure that social support was conceptualised as it is in the PWT. The fourth subscale items followed the remaining MSPSS scale items. They were: "My community really tries to help me", "I get the emotional help and support I need from my community", "I can talk about my problems with my community" and "I can count on my community when things go wrong". Following this, adjustments were made to four of the original scale items in the special person and friend subscales (see Appendix A). Examples of items in the other three subscales include "I have a special person who is around when I am in need" (special person), "My

family really tries to help me" (family) and "I can count on my friends when things go wrong" (friends). The amended MSPSS comprised of 16 items with four items per subscale.

This measure was used, as Zimet et al. (1988) had found high internal consistency for the overall MSPSS (α = .88,) and α = .87 for the family, α = .85 for the friends, and α = .91 for the special person subscale. Furthermore, this scale has been used in a number of South African samples in which it had been consistently reliable (Bruwer, Emsley, Kidd, Lochner, & Seedat, 2008; Hendricks et al., 2015; Nair & Muthukrishna, 2009; Petersen, Hancock, Bhana, & Govender, 2014; Pingo, van den Heuvel, Vythylingum, & Seedat, 2017). High scores on this scale indicated greater social support.

3.3.7. Proactive personality. Proactive personality was measured using Claes, Beheydt, and Lemmens' (2005) shortened six-item version of Bateman and Crant's (1993) Proactive Personality Scale (PPS). The shortened version of the PPS was selected, as it was considered to capture the broad construct without item redundancy. Four of the original six items were amended to enhance clarity (see Appendix A). Examples of items include "If I see something I don't like, I fix it", "I am good at identifying opportunities" and "I am always looking for better ways to do things". A high score on the scale indicated a high level of proactive personality.

The six-item PPS version was the only internally consistent measure of proactive personality in Belgium (α = .79), Finland (α = .78) and Spain (α = .86) in Claes et al's (2005) cross-cultural study, as opposed to a four-item and 10-item version (Claes et al., 2005). This measure was selected, as the six-item PPS version has been used in several South African samples which reported acceptable internal consistency reliabilities (α > .70) (Maingard, 2019; van der Westhuizen, 2014; Vermooten, Boonzaier, & Kidd, 2019).

3.4. Procedure

Gathering data from a large sample of domestic workers is time-consuming, as domestic work occurs in different households. For this reason, the researcher employed a variety of methods to recruit participants. Firstly, the researcher contacted other researchers, employee unions, agencies and companies that were affiliated with domestic workers to inform them about the study and enquired whether they would be interested in participating. Several stakeholders replied, however, only one domestic work agency indicated its willingness to participate in the study. At this agency, the owner transported domestic

workers to their work locations – there was no single/common meeting point. The researcher met with the owner of the agency and ensured that the owner understood the nature of the study and what was required. Thereafter, the owner of the agency distributed and collected the questionnaires from participants, and the researcher collected the questionnaires from the owner several days later.

Secondly, the researcher asked friends, family and community leaders to distribute questionnaires to domestic workers known to them. Before these individuals recruited participants, they were informed of the nature of the study as well as the sample of interest. In these cases, it was either organised that a group of domestic workers would meet the researcher or one of the aforementioned individuals, at an agreed upon date, time and location to complete the survey or the questionnaires were distributed, completed and collected on a one-on-one basis. Through word-of-mouth, this method led to additional potential participants and employers of domestic workers contacting the researcher and enquiring about the study. As for these individuals it was not always possible for the researcher to administer the questionnaire in person, as such, employers sometimes provided the questionnaire to the participant, collected it at a later date and then delivered it to the researcher.

Thirdly, a post indicating the nature of the study was posted on a Facebook domestic worker group. Domestic workers who were interested in participating provided their details in response to the post and were contacted by the researcher. The researcher informed these individuals about the nature of the study. Those who were interested in participating organised a location and time to meet the researcher. It was vital that the location and time would be convenient for the participant and that they did not occur incur additional transport costs, as the researcher wanted to ensure that the survey was easily accessible. As most of these participants indicated that they knew of other interested domestic workers, often more than one questionnaire was distributed at the designated meeting point. The questionnaires were either completed at that time or collected at a later date.

Lastly, the researcher approached domestic workers for participation in residential areas when they were on their way to work in the morning. Domestic workers took questionnaires with them and returned them once finished with their work.

In each of these cases, participants were informed on the voluntary nature of the study and that they may withdraw from the study if they wished to. Depending on the language proficiency of participants, the survey took 15 – 30 minutes to complete. Although participants were informed that they needed to have adequate English literacy, a few participants indicated their willingness to complete the survey even though they had limited English literacy. Consequently, participants sometimes asked for clarification on items, and in other cases asked a community member to translate certain items to their mother tongue. For this reason, the researcher attempted to ensure that either the researcher or an individual that had sound knowledge of the study was present while participants completed the questionnaire.

Each participant received an incentive (a R60 Shoprite voucher) for completing and submitting the questionnaire, which was based on the hourly living wage amount in South Africa (see Section 2.3.4). Once it was established that the participant had completed the questionnaire adequately, participants were handed a voucher and signed for its receipt.

Data collection was carried out over approximately four weeks between 09 August 2019 and 06 September 2019. Data collection occurred mostly on Saturdays or Sundays, as most of the participants worked during the week.

3.5. Ethical Considerations

The ethical guidelines for conducting research on human participants, stipulated by the University of Cape Town's Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee, were strictly adhered to throughout the study. The approval letter has been provided in Appendix D. Participants were informed about the voluntary nature of participating in the study. It was important that participants had a realistic expectation of the aims of the study and understood that the researcher did not have power or influence over their employment policies and regulations. Thus, it was emphasised that this study did not, in any way, guarantee that participants would acquire or secure decent work. However, participants did at times enquire if the researcher was able to assist in securing additional work, as they indicated that they were unable to find work every day of the week. Participants were also informed that there were no direct threats or harms that the study posed and that the data would not be used without their consent. Participants' rights to refuse to participate and/or withdraw their consent, at any time, was respected. Confidentiality was upheld throughout the study, as the

hardcopy information collected was stored in a file and the information that was captured was stored on a password protected computer, both of which only the researcher had access to (see Section 3.6).

To comply with the university's finance policy, participants were asked to provide their names, surnames and signatures when signing for receipt of the incentive. Although this could have compromised participants' anonymity, participants provided this information on a separate page that was not attached to the questionnaire. This ensured that participants' names, surnames and/or signatures could not be linked to their questionnaire responses. Hence, individual responses were not linked with participants' identity and, thus, ensured that participants' anonymity was protected.

It could be argued that the study was not entirely voluntary, as participants could have felt compelled to complete the questionnaire to receive the incentive, which could have biased the results (Grant & Sugarman, 2004; Phillips, Reddy, & Durning, 2016). There is concern that incentives are essentially used to coerce individuals in participating in a study that they would not usually participate in (Bentley & Thacker, 2004). Moreover, it could be viewed as a form of inducement that leads participants to lie, deceive and/or conceal information that would have excluded them from the study had the researcher(s) known about it. For example, participants that were not domestic workers could have lied about their occupation upon learning about the incentive. While this posed a risk that could not be completely ruled out, this was mitigated against by asking questions related to individuals' occupation before handing out a questionnaire.

Despite the concerns about incentives, the researcher deemed it appropriate to offer an incentive in exchange for participants' time and willingness to complete the survey, especially considering that this study related to decent work in a low-income sample. An incentive amount that is not excessive and that is calculated on the basis of the individuals' time and contribution could be considered as an indication of respect toward the contributions of the participant (Grady, 2001). This is because incentives may ultimately enhance the perception of value, trust, reciprocity and appreciation on the perspective of the respondent (Cook et al., 2016). Nevertheless, it was emphasised that this study was voluntary and that participants could withdraw at any time. Careful attention was also devoted to ensuring that participants understood the research expectations so that they could make an informed decision about whether or not they wanted to participate.

3.6. Statistical Analyses

The researcher captured the hardcopy data in IBM's Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25. This data was placed in a private folder, on a password-protected computer, as well as on an external drive to ensure that the data was backed up – only the researcher had access to this information. Cross-examinations were conducted to ensure the data captured on SPSS corresponded with the responses provided on the hardcopy questionnaires. Thereafter, the dataset was examined to determine whether all the items had been completed and whether there were responses that were undoubtedly unrealistic (see Section 3.2 above). Once this was completed, validity analyses were conducted using principal axis factoring (PAF). Scale reliability was examined using Cronbach's alpha and corrected item-total correlations. Descriptive statistics were utilised to explore participants' response tendencies. The hypotheses were then tested using multiple regression and moderated mediation analyses via Hayes' PROCESS macro for SPSS.

The related results are presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter presents the study's findings in five subsections. The scales' construct validity (Sections 4.1) and internal consistency (Sections 4.2) are presented. This is followed by the descriptive statistics relating to each of the study's variables (Section 4.3). Thereafter, the results of the multiple regression, moderation and mediation analyses are outlined (Section 4.4). Finally, this chapter concludes with a summary of the results (Section 4.5).

4.1. Scale Validity

Preliminary analyses were conducted to establish whether the scales measured what they were theoretically intended to measure. To this end, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to identify the underlying theoretical constructs comprised in each scale. This technique enabled the researcher to determine the extent to which the identified constructs were indicative of the variables of interest (Henson & Roberts, 2006). Taking into account that these scales were developed and validated in western contexts as well as considering that the items were adapted to suit a South African population, an exploratory process was deemed appropriate, as there was no firm a priori expectations regarding the composition of the scales (Floyd & Widaman, 1995).

Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) was used to extract factors. This method of factor extraction was selected, as it focuses on the shared variance between items, which essentially emphasises the underlying latent factors comprising each scale (Floyd & Widaman, 1995; Henson & Roberts, 2006). Kaiser's (1960) criterion was applied to decide how many factors to assume: factors that produced eigenvalues larger than 1.00 were regarded to be significant and were thus retained.

Oblique rotation, specifically direct oblimin rotation, was selected to facilitate the interpretation of the extracted factors. Theoretical evidence suggests that certain underlying factors in the scales may be correlated, hence it was appropriate to select oblique as opposed to orthogonal rotation (Field, 2013). Oblimin rotation was selected as it is a frequently used form of oblique rotation (Henson & Roberts, 2006). Items that, after rotation, had factor loadings greater than .30 were considered to load significantly and were retained (Field, 2013). Items that loaded significantly on more than one factor, with an absolute difference of less than .25 suggested cross-loading and were thus omitted from further analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

The data needed to satisfy two conditions before PAF was conducted. Firstly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value must be greater than .50, as this indicated that the data was distributed adequately (Field, 2013; Kaiser, 1974). A KMO value of .50 is considered adequate, but mediocre, whereas KMO values > .70 are considered to be good, as they indicate sampling adequacy (Field, 2013). Secondly, it was essential that Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .05$), as this demonstrated that scale items were correlated with each other (Bartlett, 1950). As outlined in the following sections, these assumptions were met for all scales.

The four scales that were expected to be unidimensional, indeed each revealed one underlying factor (see Section 4.1.1), while more than one factor emerged for the scales that were assumed to be multidimensional (see Section 4.1.2).

4.1.1. Unidimensional scales. The scales measuring marginalisation, economic constraints, work volition and proactive personality were expected to be unidimensional. The data met the required assumptions for PAF (KMO value > .05 and significant Bartlett's test) and the PAF supported each scale's unidimensionality (see Table 2), hence the scales were assumed to measure the aforementioned variables of interests in the present study. The complete PAF results are provided in Appendix E for the unidimensional scales (see Table E1 and E3 – E6).

Table 2
Rotated KMO, Bartlett's Test, Eigenvalues, Explained Variance and Factor Loadings for Each Scale

Scale	KMO	Bartlett's test	Eigenvalue	% Variance explained	Factor loadings
Marginalisation	.75	$X^2_6 = 132.33, p < .001$	2.32	58.06	$.52 < r < .79$
Economic Constraints	.79	$X^2_{15} = 278.31, p < .001$	3.22	53.58	$.59 < r < .75$
Work Volition	.73	$X^2_6 = 94.05, p < .001$	2.23	53.15	$.54 < r < .68$
Proactive Personality	.79	$X^2_{15} = 214.25, p < .001$	2.90	48.23	$.41 < r < .75$

4.1.2. Multidimensional scales. The decent work scale was expected to produce five factors and social support was expected to produce four factors.

4.1.2.1. Decent work. As expected, the PAF (KMO = .79; $X^2_{105} = 1002.74$, $p < .001$) revealed five distinct factors underlying the decent work scale that together explained roughly three-quarters of the variance for decent work. The eigenvalues and rotated factor loadings for each factor have been provided in Table 3 and the unrotated solutions have been provided in Appendix E (see Table E2). To ascertain if these factors represented the expected

five dimensions of decent work, the rotated pattern matrix was consulted. All items loaded distinctly on only one of the five factors, and the factors represented the five sources of decent work, namely complementary values, access to healthcare, adequate compensation, free time and rest, and safe work conditions (see Table 3). The EFA results thus supported Duffy et al.'s (2017) multidimensional conceptualisation of decent work, and the scale was, therefore, deemed to be an appropriate measure to use in this study.

Table 3
Pattern Matrix Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Direct Oblimin Rotation of the Decent Work Scale

Item	Factors				
	Complementary Values	Access to Healthcare	Adequate Compensation	Free Time and Rest	Safe Work Conditions
The values of my work match my family values.	.71				
My work's values align with my family values.	.99				
The values of my work match the values of my community.	.56				
I get good healthcare benefits from my work.		-.79			
I have a good healthcare plan at work.		-.96			
My work provides acceptable options for healthcare.		-.68			
I am paid enough for my work.			.78		
I am paid enough based on my qualifications and work experience.			.92		
I am rewarded adequately for my work.			.50		
I have enough time for non-work activities.				.53	
I have time to rest during the work week.				.72	
I have free time during the work week.				.81	
I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work.					.34
At work, I feel safe from abuse of any kind.					.69
I feel physically safe interacting with people at work.					.68
Eigenvalue	5.51	1.79	1.32	1.18	1.11
% Variance explained	36.76	11.91	8.83	7.85	7.38
% Cumulative variance	36.76	48.68	57.51	65.35	72.73

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 9 iterations required; Rotated method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser normalisation; Loadings < .30 omitted.

After computing participants' mean scores for complementary values, access to healthcare, adequate compensation, free time and rest, and safe work conditions, a second EFA was conducted across those five new variables. This served to determine whether the five decent work subscales could be grouped into one factor. The KMO value (.77) and

Bartlett's test (X^2_{10} = 147.70, p < .001) indicated suitability for PAF across the five subscales. As anticipated, each of the subscales loaded significantly on one factor. This factor had an eigenvalue of 2.50 and explained 50.01% variance in the DWS (factor loadings: .45 < r < .72). Therefore, it was concluded that the five facets of decent work could be summarised into an overall decent work score. The factor matrix is shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Decent Work Scale

Subscale	Factor
	Decent Work
Adequate compensation	.72
Complementary values	.71
Access to healthcare	.59
Free time and rest	.58
Safe work conditions	.45
Eigenvalue	2.50
% Variance explained	50.01
% Cumulative variance	50.01

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 6 iterations required; Rotated method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser normalisation; Loadings < .30 omitted.

4.1.2.2. Social support. The KMO value of .83 was acceptable and Bartlett's test (X^2_{120} = 1586.86, p < .001) was significant, which confirmed the suitability of the data in the 16-item social support scale (i.e. MSPSS) for PAF. The MSPSS had originally been developed as a three-dimensional scale, measuring social support from friends, special person and family (Zimet et al., 1988). As social support from the community had been added as a fourth subscale in this study, four factors were expected to emerge. The PAF did reveal a four-factor structure (see Appendix E, Table E2 for the unrotated solution). Each item in the rotated pattern matrix loaded significantly on one factor, except for the item "My friends really try to help me", which loaded on the "friends" and "community" factors (Appendix E, Table E7). This is reasonable as friends may be seen to form part of one's community. As the item could not be allocated clearly to one factor, the PAF was rerun without this item.

It again revealed four distinct factors, with each item loading significantly on one of the factors (KMO = .81; X^2_{105} = 1489.74, p < .001). As indicated in Table 5, the factors indicated support from family, special person, friends and community.

Table 5
Pattern Matrix Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Direct Oblimin Rotation of the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

Items	Factors			
	Family	Special Person	Friends	Community
My family really tries to help me.	.80			
I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.	.91			
I can talk about my problems with my family.	.76			
My family is willing to help me make decisions.	.86			
I have a special person who is around when I am in need.		-.56		
There is a special person in my life that I can share my joys and troubles with.		-.92		
I have a special person in my life who is a source of comfort to me.		-.92		
I have a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.		-.78		
I can count on my friends when things go wrong.			.74	
I have friends that I can share my joys and troubles with.			.87	
I can talk about my problems with my friends.			.82	
My community really tries to help me.				.79
I get the emotional help and support I need from my community.				.78
I can talk about my problems with my community.				.81
I can count on my community when things go wrong.				.88
Eigenvalue	5.90	3.05	1.60	1.23
% Variance explained	39.35	20.32	10.66	8.22
% Cumulative variance	39.35	59.66	70.32	78.54

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 7 iterations required; Rotated method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser normalisation; Loadings < .30 omitted.

In order to determine whether the subscales could be grouped into one social support factor, another round of EFA was conducted. Four social support scores were formed, where participants' mean scores for family, special person, friends and community were computed. The results revealed an acceptable KMO (.57) and a significant Bartlett's test ($X^2_6 = 102.21$, $p < .001$). Unexpectedly, two factors emerged, which together explained 75.54% of the variance (see Table 6). The first factor was labelled as support from *community-friends*, as the community and friends subscales loaded onto this factor. The second factor comprised of the special person and family subscales and was labelled support from *special person-family*.

In all subsequent analyses, social support was thus summarised into two higher order factors, namely, support from community/friends and special person/family.

Table 6
Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

Subscale	Factor	
	Community-Friends	Special Person-Family
Community	.92	
Friends	.49	
Special person		.81
Family		.59
Eigenvalue	1.99	1.03
% Variance explained	49.76	25.78
% Cumulative variance	49.76	75.54

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 6 iterations required; Rotated method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser normalisation; Loadings < .30 omitted.

4.2. Reliability

Cronbach's alpha (α) was used to test the internal consistency of each scale. Consistent with Nunnally (1978), the following guidelines were utilised when interpreting Cronbach's alpha: $\alpha < .50$ = unacceptable internal consistency, $.50 > \alpha > .60$ = questionable internal consistency, $.60 > \alpha > .70$ = acceptable internal consistency, $.70 > \alpha > .80$ = good internal consistency, $\alpha > .90$ = excellent internal consistency. Corrected item-total correlations were also examined to ascertain the degree to which each item correlated with the total score. Scale items that had corrected item-total correlations < .30 were omitted, as this suggested that those items did not correlate well with the overall scale (Field, 2013).

As presented in Table 7, each scale demonstrated good internal consistency apart from the safe work conditions subscale in the DWS, which demonstrated questionable internal consistency. Reasons for this may be because of a low number of items and poor inter-relatedness between items (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Considering that the remaining decent work subscales, with the same number of items (i.e. three items), demonstrated good internal consistency, it seemed unlikely that the low number of items resulted in the questionable internal consistency. Moreover, in the overall DWS one safe work condition item ("I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work") had a corrected item-total correlation of .29, which was relatively close to the .30 cut-off (see Appendix F, Table F3). Nevertheless, as all the scales had revealed good validity and all items had adequate corrected item-total correlations, including the safe work conditions subscale, it was seen as appropriate to use the subscale in further analyses.

For the item-total statistics of the scales and subscales, see Appendix F.

Table 7
Reliability Analyses Results for Each Scale

Scale	Cronbach's alpha (α)	Corrected item-total correlations
Marginalisation	.76	$.46 < r < .65$
Economic Constraints	.82	$.54 < r < .66$
Decent Work	.87	$.29 < r < .63$
Complementary Values	.88	$.70 < r < .83$
Access to Healthcare	.88	$.74 < r < .81$
Adequate Compensation	.83	$.60 < r < .76$
Free Time and Rest	.74	$.49 < r < .61$
Safe Work Conditions	.60	$.32 < r < .47$
Volition	.70	$.44 < r < .53$
Social Support		
Community-friends	.89	$.59 < r < .80$
Special Person-family	.90	$.54 < r < .73$
Proactive Personality	.77	$.37 < r < .62$

4.3. Descriptive Statistics

The mean scores, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores as well as the skewness and kurtosis of each scale was examined.

Each scale's mean score was analysed in relation to the scale's midpoint. As all of the scales were measured on five-point scales, the midpoint was 3. An average score higher than the midpoint demonstrated greater levels of the variable of interest whereas scores lower than the midpoint demonstrated lower levels of the variable of interest. As illustrated in Table 8, only work volition ($M = 2.92$) had an average score lower than the midpoint, which suggested that participants, on average, experienced medium levels of work volition. The average scores for marginalisation, economic constraints, decent work, community-friends, special person-family and proactive personality were higher than the midpoint and, thus, demonstrated high levels of those particular variables. In the decent work dimension, with the exception to safe work conditions ($M = 3.74$), participants experienced slightly lower levels of access to healthcare ($M = 2.85$) and adequate compensation ($M = 2.61$), and average levels of complementary values ($M = 2.97$) and free time and rest ($M = 3.04$). As the average scores for access to healthcare, complementary values, and free time and rest were relatively close to the midpoint, it suggested that participants neither experienced their work conditions as decent nor not decent when it related to those components.

To examine the normality of the data, the skewness and kurtosis of the distribution were assessed. Skewness alludes to the symmetry of the distribution whereas kurtosis relates to the shape of the distribution, specifically its width and height (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2016).

Distributions that have values above or below 0 indicate deviations from normality or the Gaussian curve (Field, 2013). Similarly, the closer the skewness and kurtosis are to zero, the more the data points are regarded to be normally distributed. As noted by Pallant (2016), many scales and measures used in fields such as social sciences tend to have scores that are either positively or negatively skewed. However, the statistical techniques used in SPSS are highly robust – even in cases where the data is not normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

In terms of normality, as shown in Table 8, the distributions of the scores for decent work, volition and support from community/friends were positively skewed, suggesting that the scores were clustered to the left. Two dimensions within decent work, free time and rest and safe work conditions, were slightly negatively skewed. Marginalisation, economic constraints, support from special person/family and proactive personality were negatively skewed, suggesting that scores were clustered toward the right – scores were towards the higher end. The economic constraints, special person-family and proactive personality distribution scores were leptokurtic compared to the Gaussian curve. The distribution scores of marginalisation, decent work, volition and community-friends were more platykurtic than the Gaussian curve.

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics of the Scales

					Skewness		Kurtosis	
	M	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
Marginalisation	3.24	1.08	1.00	5.00	-.35	.21	-.70	.41
Economic Constraints	3.99	.84	1.50	5.00	-.98	.21	.45	.41
Decent Work	3.04	.91	1.00	5.00	.10	.21	-.57	.41
Complementary Values	2.97	1.34	1.00	5.00	.03	.21	-1.32	.41
Access to Healthcare	2.85	1.52	1.00	5.00	.12	.21	-1.53	.41
Adequate Compensation	2.61	2.33	1.00	5.00	.51	.21	-.83	.41
Free Time and Rest	3.04	1.25	1.00	5.00	-.10	.21	-1.19	.41
Safe Work Conditions	3.74	1.06	1.00	5.00	-.63	.21	-.29	.41
Work Volition	2.92	1.13	1.00	5.00	.16	.21	-.98	.41
Social Support								
Community-Friends	3.02	1.16	1.00	5.00	.01	.21	-.96	.41
Special Person-Family	4.08	.97	1.00	5.00	-1.23	.21	1.07	.41
Proactive Personality	4.32	.65	2.00	5.00	-.90	.21	.23	.41

Notes. $N = 139$; M = mean; SD = standard deviation; min = minimum; max = maximum; SE = standard error.

As illustrated in the inter-correlation matrix in Table 9 below, marginalisation did not have statistically significant relationships with any of the variables. Economic constraints had the strongest, statistically significant negative relationship with decent work ($N = 139$; $r = -.20$, $p < .05$), specifically with two decent work components: access to healthcare ($N = 139$; r

= -.20, $p < .05$) and adequate compensation ($N = 139$; $r = -.31$, $p < .01$). This suggested that the greater individuals' economic constraints, the less decent they tended to perceive their work – particularly with regards to access to healthcare and adequate compensation, although, these relationships were weak according to Cohen's (1988) conventions. Work volition had the strongest statistically significant relationship with decent work ($N = 139$; $r = .49$, $p < .01$), which implied that as work volition increased, so did participants' experiences of decent work. Within the decent work components, complementary values, access to healthcare, adequate compensation, free time and rest and safe work conditions had the strongest relationship with volition ($N = 139$; $.27 < r < .46$, $p < .01$). Social support from community and friends was most strongly associated with proactive personality ($N = 139$; $r = .25$, $p < .01$). The same was the case for social support from a special person/family ($N = 139$; $r = .35$, $p < .01$). According to Cohen (1988), these relationships suggest a small to medium effect size. This suggested that the greater the support from one's community/friends and special person/family, the higher one's proactiveness. Alternatively, it suggested that the more proactive one tended to be, the more they tended to draw on social support.

Table 9
Inter-correlation Matrix of All Variables

Variable	Marginalisation	Economic Constraints	Decent Work	Complementary Values	Access to Healthcare	Adequate Compensation	Free Time and Rest	Safe Work Conditions	Work Volition	Community-friends	Special Person-family
Economic Constraints	.11										
Decent Work	.08	**-.20***									
Complementary Values	.08	-.11	**.76****								
Access to Healthcare	.08	**-.20***	**.73****	**.38****							
Adequate Compensation	-.01	**-.31****	**.77****	**.47****	**.53****						
Free Time and Rest	.03	-.08	**.69****	**.47****	**.31****	**.39****					
Safe Work Conditions	.10	.05	**.57****	**.37****	**.21***	**.31****	**.27****				
Work Volition	.08	-.09	**.49****	**.28****	**.35****	**.37****	**.46****	**.27****			
Social Support											
Community-friends	.08	-.06	**.29****	.11	**.28****	**.21***	**.21***	**.19***	**.24****		
Special Person-family	-.05	-.01	**.28****	**.24****	**.17***	.14	**.29****	.16	.08	**.34****	
Proactive Personality	.14	.15	**.24****	.15	**.25****	.15	.16	.15	**.21***	**.25****	**.35****

Notes. $N = 139$; Significant correlations are provided in boldface.
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

4.4. Testing of Hypotheses

The study's hypotheses have been displayed in Table 10 for ease of reference. To test hypotheses 1 and 2 (Model 0), a multiple regression analysis was conducted. The remaining hypotheses were tested through four moderated mediation analyses (i.e. conditional process analyses). Preliminary analyses confirmed that the data met the assumptions underlying the regression procedures. The results of these analyses are presented in Appendix G.

Table 10
Summary of Conceptual Models and Hypotheses

Model	Hypotheses
0	**H_1**: Higher levels of marginalisation experiences are linked to domestic workers having less decent work experiences. **H_2**: Higher levels of economic constraints are linked to domestic workers having less decent work experiences.
1	**H_3:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' marginalisation experiences and decent work experiences. **H_5**: A proactive personality buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on work volition. **H_7**: A proactive personality buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on decent work experiences.
2	**H_4:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' economic constraints and decent work experiences. **H_6**: A proactive personality buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition. **H_8**: A proactive personality buffers the effect that economic constraints have on decent work experiences.
3	**H_3:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' marginalisation experiences and decent work experiences. **H_{9a}**: Community-friends buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on work volition. **H_{9b}**: Special Person-family buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on work volition. **H_{11a}**: Community-friends buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on decent work experiences. **H_{11b}**: Special Person-family buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on decent work experiences.
4	**H_4:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' economic constraints and decent work experiences. **H_{10a}**: Community-friends buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition. **H_{10b}**: Special Person-family buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition. **H_{12a}**: Community-friends buffers the effect that economic constraints have on decent work experiences. **H_{12b}**: Special Person-family buffers the effect that economic constraints have on decent work experiences.

4.4.1. Multiple regression analysis. A multiple regression analysis was used to explore the relationship between the two independent variables (marginalisation and economic constraints) and decent work as the dependent variable. Both independent variables were entered simultaneously.

The overall model was statistically significant, F (2, 136) = 3.45, $p < .05$. Though significant, the R^2 value of .05 signified that marginalisation and economic constraints explained a mere 5% of the variance in the decent work variable. The adjusted R^2 value of .03 indicated that if this model were to be derived from the domestic work population, it would account for approximately 2% less variance in decent work. As this adjusted R^2 is relatively close to the R^2, it suggested strong generalisability for the model (Field, 2013).

As shown in Table 11 economic constraints explained a significant amount of unique variance in decent work scores (β = -.21, $p < .05$), but not marginalisation (β = .10, p = .23). This result was expected, as the bivariate correlation between marginalisation and decent work was non-significant, while a small negative bivariate correlation between economic constraints and decent work was present in the data. It implied that domestic workers who experienced higher levels of economic constraints tended to experience lower levels of decent work than domestic workers who experienced lower levels of economic constraints.

A post-hoc power analysis was conducted using G*Power to determine whether sufficient power was found to detect effects that could have existed (Field, 2013). Power values > .80 suggest that there is sufficient power to detect effects that truly exist, thereby decreasing Type II error (i.e. the belief that there is no effect when in fact there is one; Field, 2013). Power coefficients smaller than .80 suggest that more participants should be included in the study to increase power (Field, 2013).

The results produced an observed power coefficient of .67 (input parameters: N = 139; α error probability = .05). According to Cohen (1988), this yielded a small effect size (f^2 = .05). This suggested that the study may not have had sufficient power to detect effects that existed, thus, there was an increased risk of making Type II error.

Table 11
Multiple Regression Results with Marginalisation and Economic Constraints as Independent Variables and Decent Work as Dependent Variable; F (2, 136) = 3.45, p < .05

	b	*SE b*	β	*t*	95% CI	
					LL	UL
Intercept	3.66	.42		**8.76*** **	2.83	4.48
Marginalisation	.09	.07	.10	1.22	-.05	.23
Economic Constraints	-.22	.09	-.21	**-2.45***	-.41	-.04
R^2			.05			
Adjusted R^2			.03			

Notes. *N* = 139; *b* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE b* = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient; β = standardised beta coefficient; CI = confidence interval for unstandardised beta coefficients; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; Significant factor loadings are indicated in boldface.
*$p < .05$, ***$p < .001$

4.4.2. Conditional process analysis. Four conditional process analyses were conducted on the remaining hypotheses, testing for mediated and moderated relationships in the same analysis.

Mediation analysis examines the direct and indirect pathways through which an independent variable (*X*) transmits its effects on a dependent variable (*Y*) through one or more mediator variables (*M*). An example is whether or not the relationship between economic constraints (*X*) and decent work (*Y*) is fully or partly due to the relationship between economic constraints and work volition (*M*), which in turn is related to decent work (*Y*). Moderation analysis, on the other hand, examines the change in the relationship between variables as a function of a third set of variables (Field, 2013; Hayes, 2018).

Hayes (2013) termed the analytical combination of mediation and moderation analysis as conditional process modelling/analysis. Conditional process analysis is employed when "one's research goal is to describe and test the conditional nature of the mechanism(s) by which a variable transmits its effect on another" (Hayes, 2018, p. 10). In other words, it tests if the relationship between two variables connected by a mediator variable is different at – or conditional on – different levels of one or more moderator variables. For instance, whether the relationship between economic constraints (*X*) and work volition (*Y*) is different for individuals with strong proactive personality than for individuals with low proactive personality (*W*). It thus allows one to estimate and interpret the conditional nature (moderated component) of the direct and indirect effects (mediated component) on the relationship between the independent and dependent variable (Hayes, 2018). Thus, conditional process analysis examines a mediated relationship between an independent and dependent variable at different levels of one or more moderation variables. It results in an index of moderated

mediation, which quantifies the association between a mediated (= indirect) effect and a moderator (Hayes, 2015). If zero does not fall between the lower and upper limit of the 95% confidence interval around the moderated mediation index, one can infer that the indirect effect was conditional on the level of the moderator variable (Hayes, 2015, 2018).

To run the conditional process analysis Hayes' (2013, 2018) PROCESS tool for SPSS version 3.4 was used. The PROCESS macro allows for the testing of models with a maximum of one independent and one dependent variable, two moderator variables and numerous mediators. The original conceptual model in Figure 2 (p. 18) included two independent variables (marginalisation and economic constraints), one dependent variable (decent work), one mediator variable (work volition), and two moderator variables (proactive personality and social support). To test the relationships outlined in Figure 2 would have required two conditional process analyses, one with marginalisation and one with economic constraints as the independent variable. However, considering that a two-factor structure had been found for the social support items (support from community-friends and support from special person-family), the number of moderator variables had increased to three (proactive personality and two social support variables). This indicated that not all moderator variables could be tested at the same time.

Therefore, a total of four moderated mediation models were analysed, namely Hayes' (2013, 2018) model 8 (permits one moderator = proactive personality) and model 10 (permits two moderators = support from community-friends and support from special person-family). These models are conceptually displayed in Figure 3 with the corresponding hypotheses.

Importantly, the data was mean-centred to render the independent and moderator variables as interpretable as possible and to obtain meaningful results. This assisted in making decisions about whether the related hypotheses should be supported or not (Hayes, 2018).

The results of the four conditional process analyses have been reported according to Hayes' (2013, 2018) guidelines and recommendations.

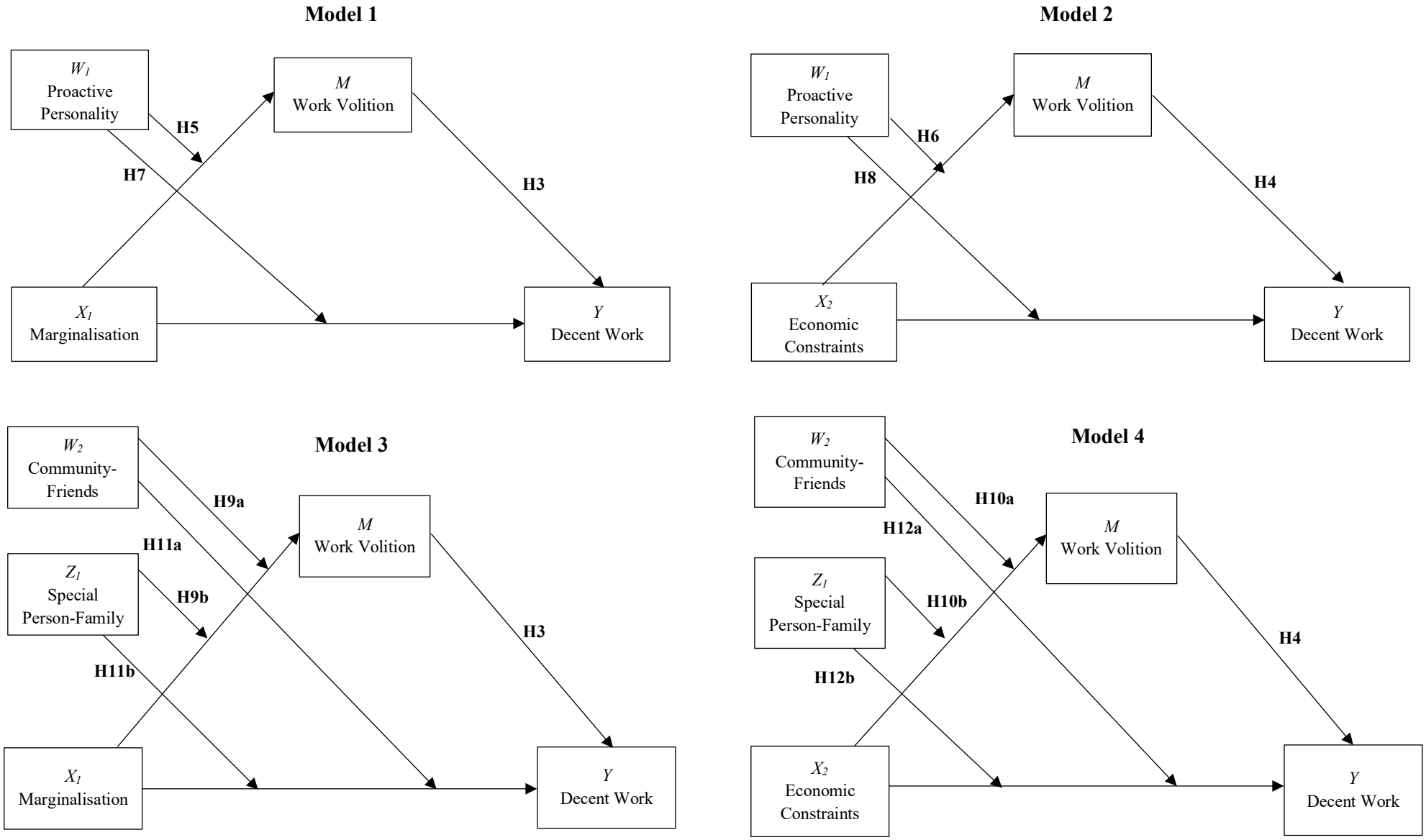


Figure 3. Conceptual models and hypotheses tested through conditional process analyses; X = independent variable; M = mediator variable, Y = dependent variable, W = moderator variable; Z = moderator variable. Model numbers correspond to the models and associated hypotheses presented in Table 13.

4.4.2.1. Model 1[3]**.** The coefficients of the conditional process analysis for Model 1 are summarised in Table 12 and visually presented in Figure 4 below.

Table 12
Model 1 Coefficients for the Conditional Process Model

Variables		Consequent				
		Work Volition (*M*)			Decent Work (*Y*)	
		b	*SE b*		*b*	*SE b*
Marginalisation (X_1)	a^a	.11	.09	*c'*	.01	.07
Work Volition (*M*)		-	-	*b*	**.39*** **	.06
Proactive Personality (W_1)		**.31***	.14		.21	.11
Marginalisation x Proactive Personality (X_1 x W_1)		**-.37***	.15		.13	.11
Constant		**2.95*** **	.09		**1.91*** **	.20
		R^2 = .09			R^2 = .27	
		$F(3, 135) = 4.47$, $p < .01$			$F(4, 134) = 12.30$, $p < .001$	

Notes. Bootstrap sample size = 5000; X_1 = independent variable; *M* = mediator variable; W_1 = moderator variable; X_1 x W_1 = interaction between independent and moderator variable; Y = dependent variable; *b* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE* = = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient
Significant results are indicated in boldface; *$p < .05$, ***$p < .001$
[a] indicates path in Figure 4, where *a* = effect of marginalisation on work volition; *b* = effect of work volition on decent work; *c'* = direct effect of marginalisation on decent work

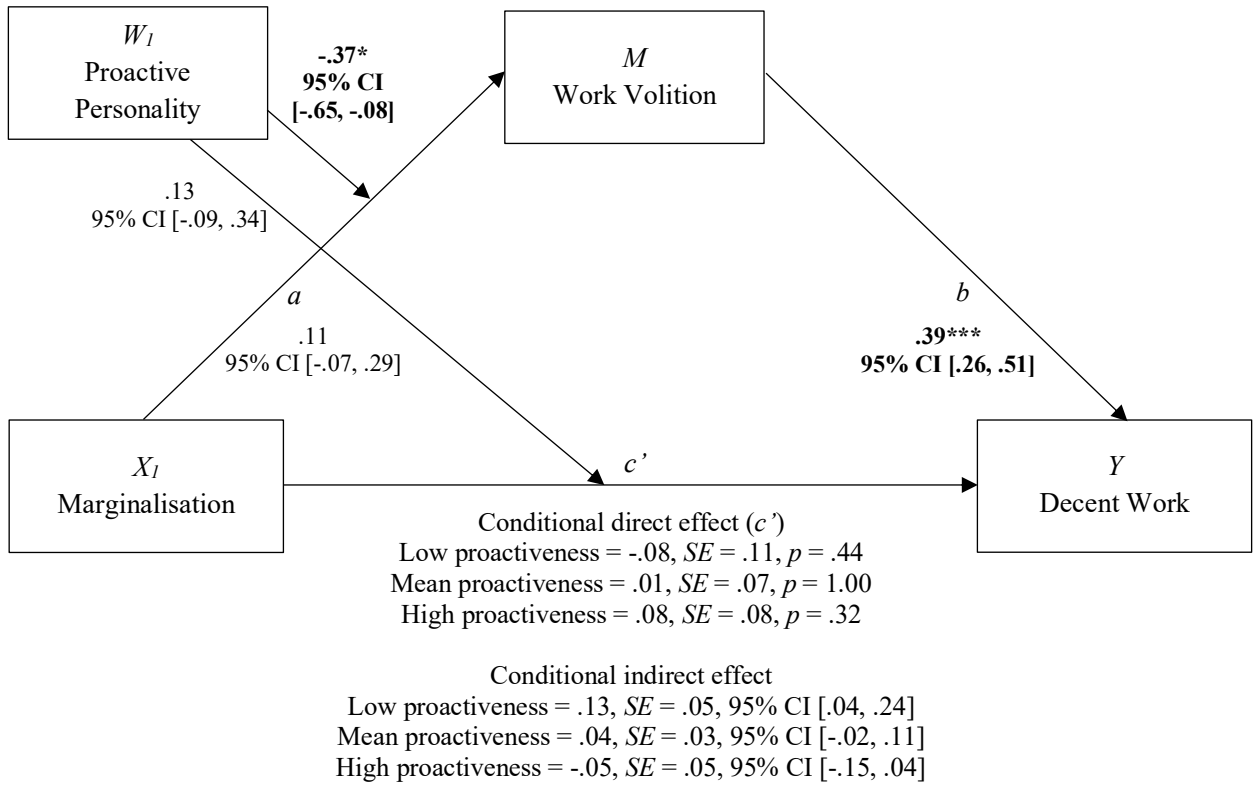


Figure 4. Model 1 conditional process analysis results for the relationship between marginalisation and decent work, mediated by work volition, and moderated by proactive personality.
* Significant effects are in boldface; *$p < .05$, ***$p < .001$

[3] The model numbers correspond to the conceptual models provided in Figure 3.

The conditional process analysis indicated that the relationship between marginalisation and decent work mediated through work volition. Although this was because the relationship was moderated by proactive personality, as zero did not fall within the bootstrapped confidence intervals around the moderated mediation index of -.14 (95% CI [-.25, -.04]). This implied that the indirect effect of marginalisation on decent work was conditional on the level of proactive personality. A simple slopes analysis was conducted to probe the nature of the conditional indirect effects of marginalisation on decent work (see Figure 5). The indirect effect at low levels of proactiveness was the only positive and significant effect (index = .13, 95% CI [.04, .24]). This implied that for domestic workers with low proactiveness, greater experiences of marginalisation were related to lowered decent work experiences due to the relationship between marginalisation and work volition. This was not the case for individuals with mean (index = .04, 95% CI [-.03, .11]) and high (index = -.05, 95% CI [-.15, .04]) proactiveness, as for those domestic workers, marginalisation was not related to decent work via its relationship with work volition.

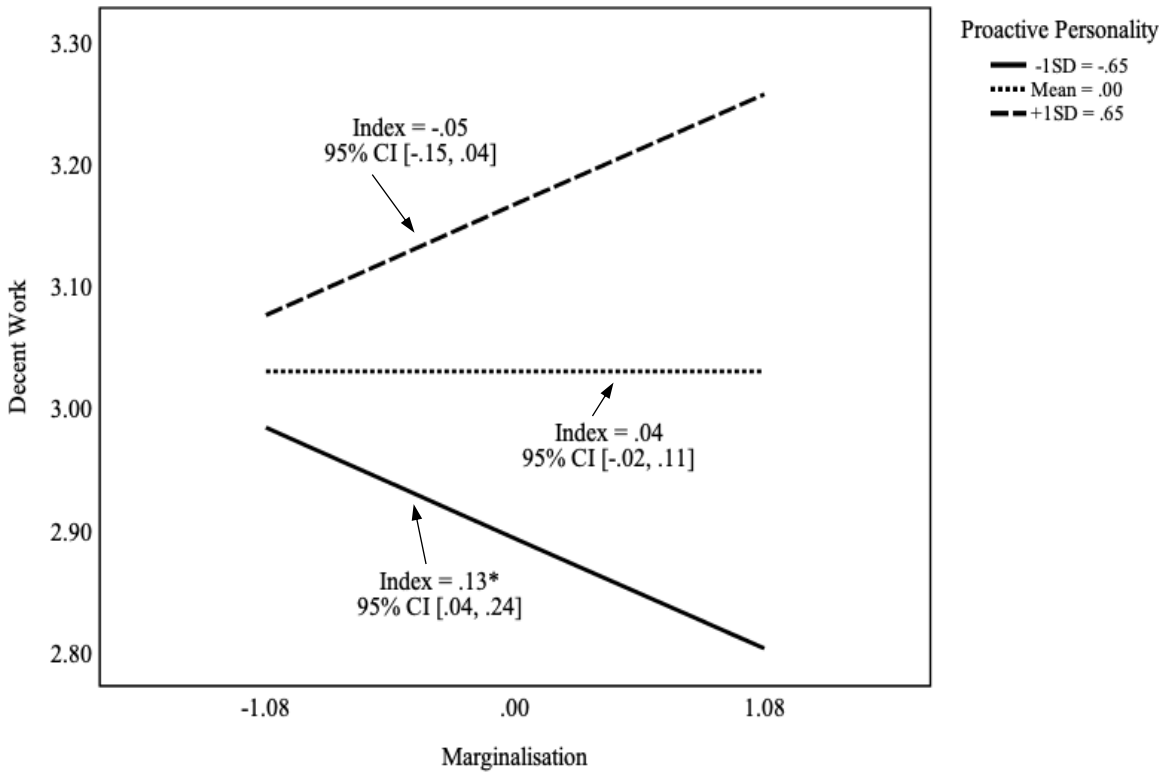


Figure 5. Simple slopes analysis at low, average and high levels of proactive personality.

Marginalisation as an independent variable did not predict the mediator, i.e. work volition, b = .11, p = .23 (path *a* in Figure 4), only the interaction with proactive personality (b = -.37, p < .05). This suggested that proactive personality moderated the effects of

marginalisation on work volition. Figure 6 provides an interpretive aid to understand the moderation effect. Opposite to what would have been expected, at low levels of proactiveness, marginalisation was positively and significantly related to work volition, b = .35, p < .05. This implied that for individuals with low proactiveness, greater marginalisation experiences were related to higher work volition. At the mean level (b = .11, p = .23) and at high levels of proactiveness *(*b = -.13, p = .26) there was no relationship between marginalisation and work volition.

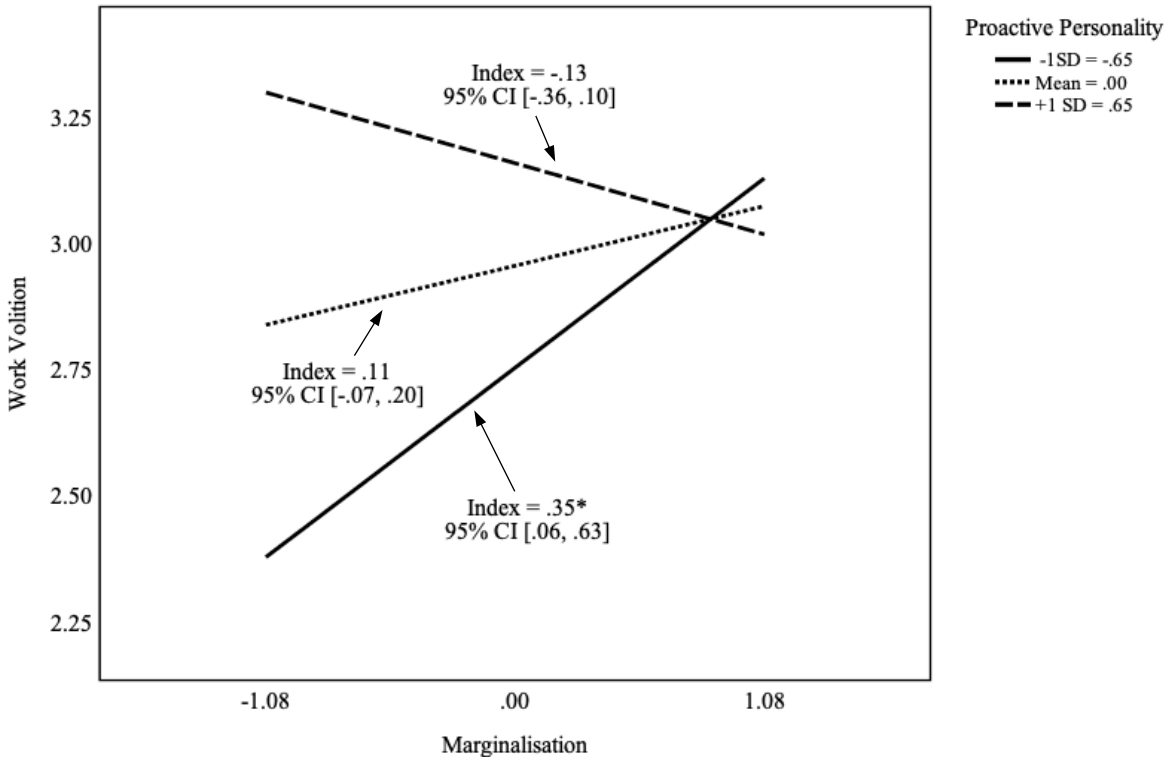


Figure 6. Simple slopes analysis at low, average and high levels of proactive personality.

As expected, the mediator (work volition) was a significant predictor of decent work, b = .39, p < .001 (path b). This suggested that the greater domestic workers' work volition, the more they tended to experience decent work.

As illustrated in the c'-path in Figure 4, the direct effect of marginalisation on decent work was not statistically significant, b = .01, p = 1.00. Marginalisation was thus neither related to the mediator, nor to the outcome variable. Equally so, proactive personality did not moderate the relationship between marginalisation and decent work, as the interaction between marginalisation and proactive personality was a non-significant predictor of decent work, b = .13, p = .24.

Proactive individuals tended to experience greater work volition (b = .31, p < .05) and their work as more decent (b = .21, p = .052), although the latter result was only bordering on significance.

In summation: even though proactiveness moderated the relationship between marginalisation, decent work and work volition, this was only at low levels of proactiveness, which the hypotheses did not set out to test. Hence, the analyses revealed no support for the hypotheses, as work volition did not mediate the relationship between marginalisation and decent work, and being proactive did not moderate the direct relationship between marginalisation, work volition and decent work.

4.4.2.2. Model 2. The conditional process analysis for Model 2 revealed that proactiveness did not moderate the indirect effect of economic constraints on decent work, as zero was included in the bootstrapped confidence intervals (index = -.03, 95% CI [-.18, .10]). The remaining results are summarised in Table 13 and visually presented in Figure 7.

Table 13
Model 2 Coefficients for the Conditional Process Model

Variables		Consequent				
		Work Volition (*M*)			Decent Work (*Y*)	
		B	*SE b*		*b*	*SE b*
Economic Constraints (X_2)	a^a	-.16	.12	*c'*	**-.18***	.08
Work Volition (*M*)		-	-	*b*	**.35*****	.06
Proactive Personality (W_1)		**.39****	.15		**.22***	.11
Economic Constraints x Proactive Personality (X_2 x W_1)		-.07	.17		-.14	.12
Constant		**2.93*****	.10		**2.03*****	.19
		R^2 = .06 F(3, 135) = 3.00, p < .05			R^2 = .30 F(4, 134) = 14.29, p < .001	

Notes. Bootstrap sample size = 5000; Mean centered = proactive personality and economic constraints; X_1 = independent variable; *M* = mediator variable; W_1 = moderator variable; X_1 x W_1 = interaction between independent and moderator variable; Y = dependent variable; *b* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE* = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient;
Significant factor loadings are in boldface; *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001
[a] indicates path in Figure 4, where *a* = effect of economic constraints on work volition; *b* = effect of work volition on decent work; *c'* = direct effect of economic constraints on decent work

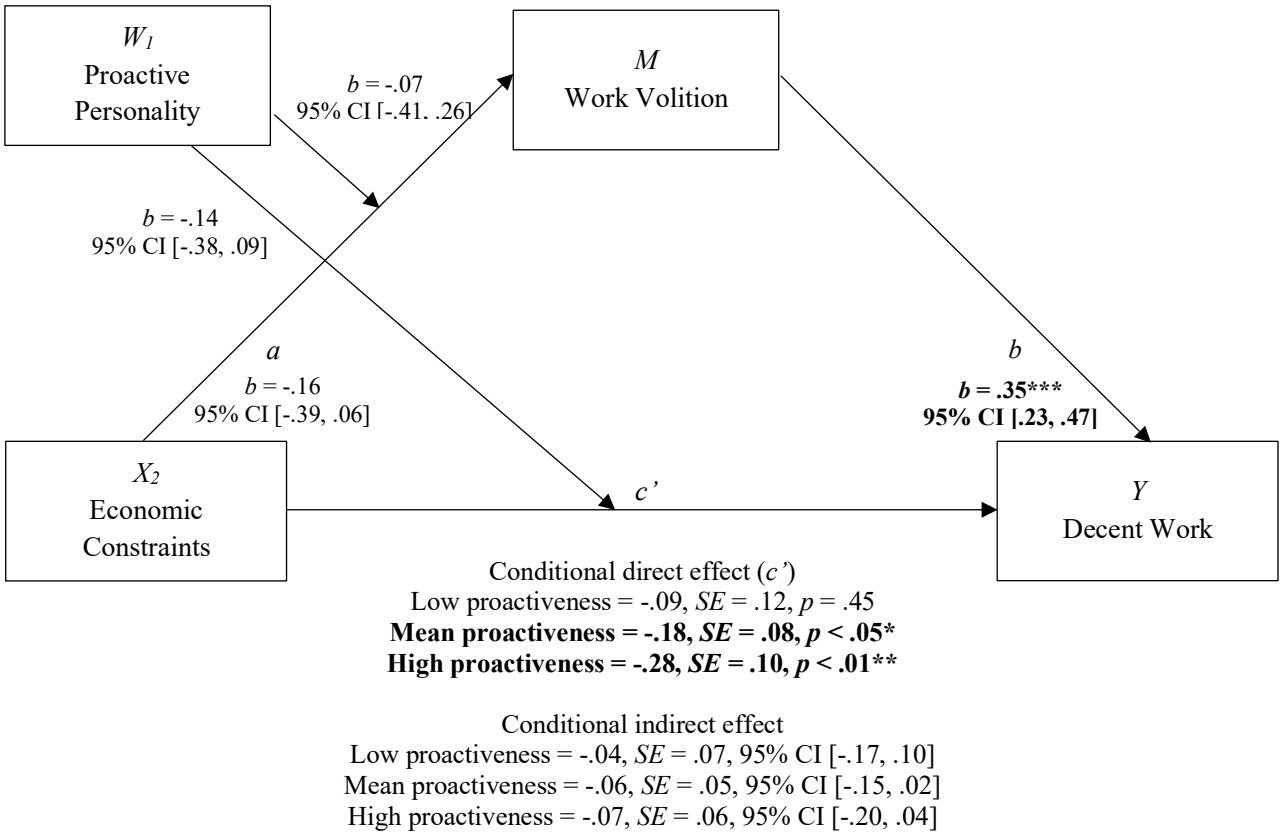


Figure 7. Model 2 conditional process analysis results between economic constraints and decent work, mediated by work volition, and moderated by proactive personality.
* Significant effects are in boldface; *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Domestic workers' economic constraints were not a predictor of work volition, $b = -.16$, $p = .15$. As revealed in Model 1, the relationship between proactive personality and work volition was statistically significant, $b = .39$, $p < .01$, with domestic workers with high levels of proactiveness having higher levels of work volition. The interaction between economic constraints and proactive personality was non-significant, which suggested that proactiveness did not moderate the effects of economic constraints on work volition ($b = -.07$, $p = .67$) and decent work ($b = -.14$, $p = .24$).

As with Model 1, work volition predicted decent work, $b = .35$, $p < .001$, as did proactive personality ($b = .22$, $p < .05$). Economic constraints ($b = -.19$, $p < .05$) was also a significant predictor. The negative relationship between economic constraints and decent work suggested that those who had higher levels of economic constraints experienced less decent work.

Contrary to the researcher's expectations, the hypotheses set for Model 2 were not supported, as work volition did not mediate the relationship between economic constraints

and decent work, nor did a proactive personality buffer the effects that economic constraints had on work volition and decent work in Model 2.

4.4.2.3. Model 3. Neither social support from community and friends (index = -.04, 95% CI [-.10, .01]) nor from a special person or family (index = .05, 95% CI [-.03, .12]) moderated the indirect effects of marginalisation on decent work.

As indicated in Table 14, the results revealed that only support from community and friends (b = .22, p < .05) was a significant predictor of work volition. This implied that greater support from their community and friends related to higher levels of work volition. Marginalisation (b = .08, p = .41), social support from a special person and family (b = .01, p = 1.00), as well as the interaction terms (community-friends: b = -.12, p = .10; special person-family: b = .14, p = .20) were not predictors of work volition.

Table 14
Model 3 Coefficients for the Conditional Process Model

Variables		Consequent				
		Work Volition (*M*)			Decent Work (*Y*)	
		B	*SE b*		*b*	*SE b*
Marginalisation (X_1)	a^a	.08	.09	*c'*	-.01	.06
Work Volition (*M*)		-	-	*b*	**.36*** **	.06
Community-Friends (W_2)		**.22***	.09		.10	.06
Marginalisation x Community-Friends (X_1 x W_2)		-.12	.09		.06	.05
Special Person-Family (Z_1)		.01	.10		**.19****	.07
Marginalisation x Special Person-Family (X_1 x Z_1)		.14	.11		.13	.07
Constant		**2.94*****	.09		**1.99*****	.19
		R^2 = .09 $F(5, 133) = 2.52, p < .05$			R^2 = .34 $F(6, 132) = 11.33, p < .001$	

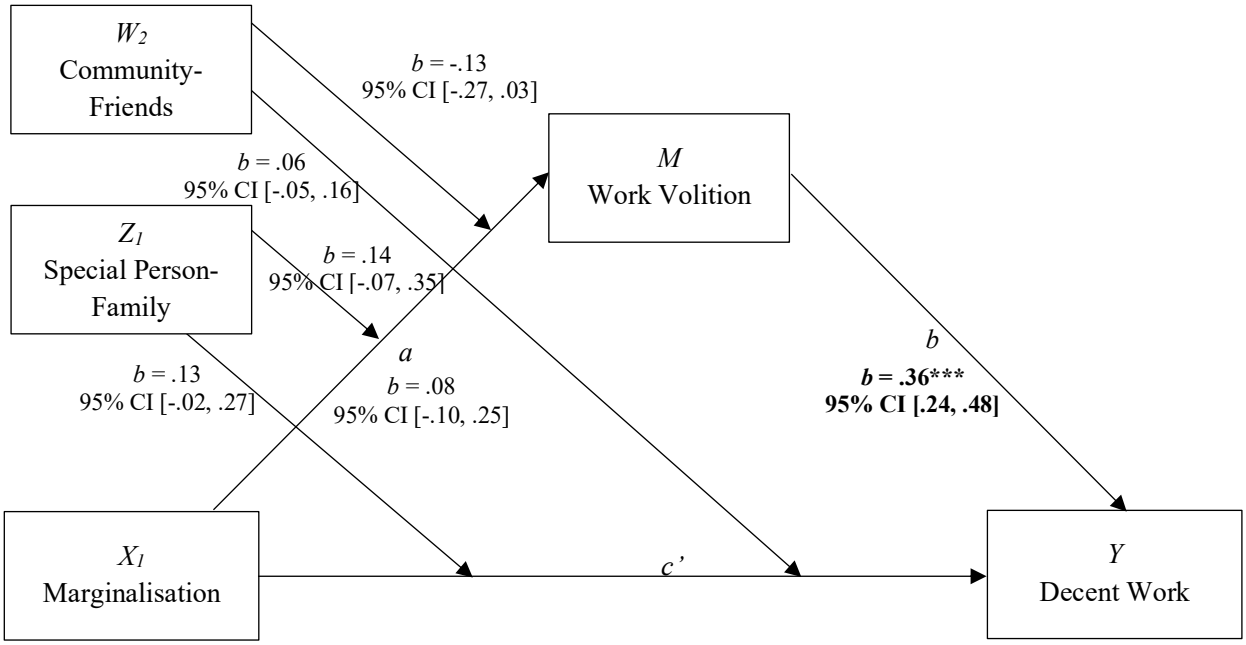
Notes. Bootstrap sample size = 5000; Mean centered = community-friends, special person-family and marginalisation; X_1 = independent variable; *M* = mediator variable; W_1 = moderator variable; X_1 x W_1 = interaction between independent and moderator variable; Y = dependent variable; *b* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE* = = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient
Significant factor loadings are in boldface; *p < .05, ***p < .001
[a] indicates path in Figure 4, where *a* = effect of marginalisation on work volition; *b* = effect of work volition on decent work; *c'* = direct effect of marginalisation on decent work

The results revealed that work volition predicted decent work (b = .36, p < .001), as had been the case in Models 1 and 2. Social support from a special person or family members also predicted decent work, b = .19, p < .01. This positive relationship implied that the more support from a special person or family domestic workers had, the more they tended to experience their work as decent. Marginalisation (b = -.01, p = .99), social support from the community or friends (b = .10, p = .12), as well as all interaction terms between

marginalisation and social support by the community or friends (b = .06, p = .28), special persons or the family (b = .13, p = .09) did not predict decent work.

In summary, work volition did not mediate the relationship between marginalisation and decent work experiences in Model 3, and neither of the social support variables buffered the effects that marginalisation experiences had on work volition or decent work. Hence, the hypotheses posited for Model 3 were not supported.

The results have been visually presented in Figure 8.



For ease of reading, the conditional direct (c') and indirect effects are reported in Table 15 below.

Figure 8. Model 3 conditional process analysis results between marginalisation and decent work, mediated by work volition, and moderated by community-friends and special person-family.
* Significant effects are in boldface; *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Table 15
Conditional Direct and Indirect Effects for Model 3

Conditional Direct Effect (c')					Conditional Indirect Effect					
W_2	Z_1	*Effect*	*SE*	*p*	W_2	Z_1	*Effect*	*BootSE*	*95% CI*	
									UL	*LL*
Low	Low	-.19	.11	.09	Low	Low	.03	.06	-.08	.16
Low	Mean	-.07	.09	.48	Low	Mean	.08	.05	-.02	.18
Low	High	.05	.12	.69	Low	High	.12	.06	-.01	.24
Mean	Low	-.12	.10	.23	Mean	Low	-.02	.06	-.13	.10
Mean	Mean	-.01	.06	.99	Mean	Mean	.03	.03	-.04	.09
Mean	High	.11	.09	.18	Mean	High	.07	.04	-.01	.15
High	Low	-.06	.12	.66	High	Low	-.07	.07	-.21	.06
High	Mean	.07	.08	.42	High	Mean	-.03	.04	-.11	.06
High	High	**.18**	**.08**	**.03***	High	High	.02	.04	-.07	.11

Notes. Combinations of the two moderators at low, mean and high levels; W_2 = community-friends; Z_1 = special person-family; *SE* = standard error; *BootSE* = bootstrapped standard error; 95% CI = bootstrapped.
* Significant effects are in boldface; *p < .05

4.4.2.4. Model 4. As in Model 3, social support from the community or friends (index = .01, 95% CI [-.06, .09]) and a special person or family (index = .03, 95% CI [-.05, .13]) did not moderate the indirect effects of economic constraints on decent work. The results also revealed that only social support from the community or friends was a significant predictor of work volition, $b = .24$, $p < .01$.

As indicated in Figure 9 (the *b*-path), work volition predicted decent work, $b = .35$, $p < .001$, as did social support from a special person or family ($b = .20$, $p < .01$), with greater social support being related to greater decent work. Table 16 provides the results for the remaining predictor variables and their moderating interacting terms, none of which were significant.

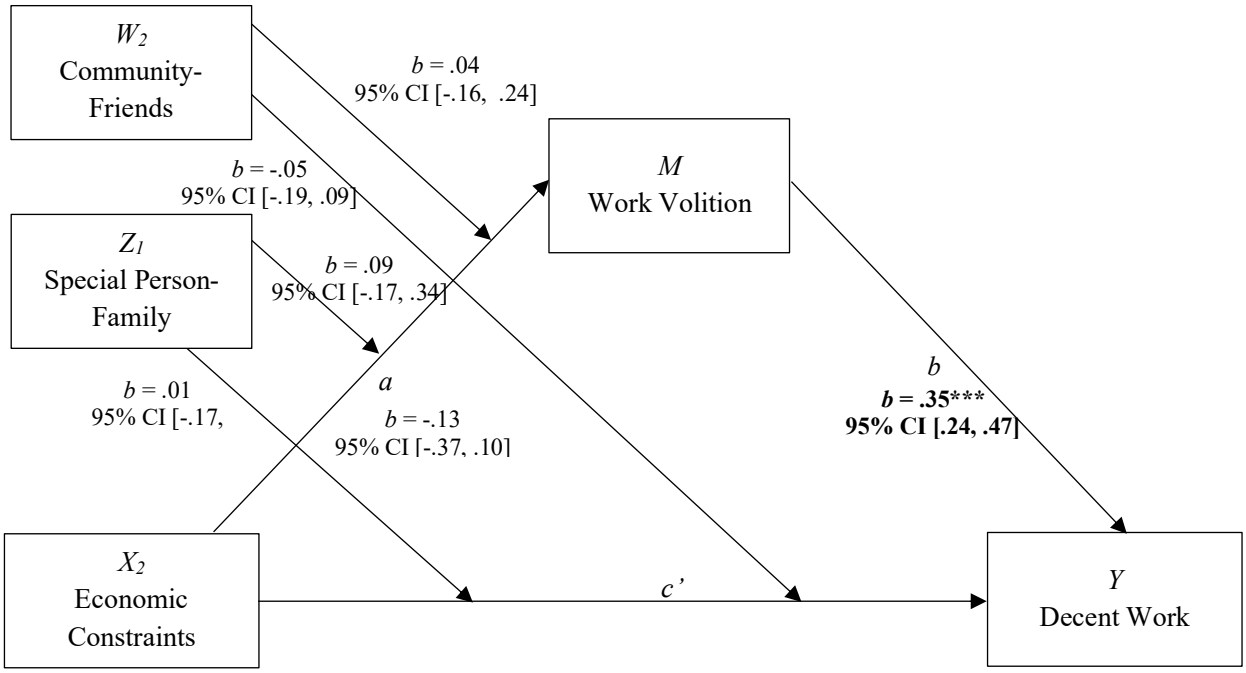
Table 16
Model 4 Coefficients for the Conditional Process Model

Variables		Consequent				
		Work Volition (*M*)			Decent Work (*Y*)	
		b	*SE b*		*b*	*SE b*
Economic Constraints (X_2)	a^a	-.13	.12	*c'*	-.14	.08
Work Volition (*M*)		-	-	*b*	**.35*** **	.06
Community-Friends (W_2)		**.24** **	.09		.08	.06
Marginalisation x Community-Friends (X_2 x W_2)		.04	.10		-.05	.07
Special Person-Family (Z_1)		-.01	.10		**.20** **	.07
Marginalisation x Special Person-Family (X_1 x Z_1)		.09	.13		.10	.09
Constant		**2.92*** **	.09		**2.01*** **	.19
		$R^2 = .07$			$R^2 = .33$	
		$F(5, 133) = 2.05$, $p = .08$			$F(6, 132) = 11.00$, $p < 001$.	

Notes. Bootstrap sample size = 5000; Mean centered = community-friends, special person-family and marginalisation; X_1 = independent variable; *M* = mediator variable; W_1 = moderator variable; X_1 x W_1 = interaction between independent and moderator variable; Y = dependent variable; *b* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE* = = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient
Significant factor loadings are in boldface; **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$
[a] indicates path in Figure 4, where *a* = effect of economic constraints on work volition; *b* = effect of work volition on decent work; *c'* = direct effect of economic constraints on decent work

To conclude the final conditional process analysis results, work volition did not mediate the relationship between economic constraints and decent work, and community-friends and special person-family did not buffer the effects that economic constraints had on work volition and decent work. Thus, none of the hypotheses were supported for Model 4.

The results for Model 4 have been visually displayed in Figure 9 below.



For ease of reading, the conditional direct (*c'*) and indirect effects are reported in Table 17 below.

Figure 9. Model 4 conditional process analysis results between economic constraints and decent work, mediated by work volition, and moderated by community-friends and special person-family.
* Significant effects are presented in boldface; **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 17
Conditional Direct and Indirect Effects for Model 4

Conditional Direct Effect (*c'*)					Conditional Indirect Effect					
W2	*Z1*	*Effect*	*SE*	*p*	*W2*	*Z1*	*Effect*	*BootSE*	*95% CI*	
									UL	*LL*
Low	Low	-.09	.14	.51	Low	Low	-.09	.08	-.26	.05
Low	Mean	-.08	.13	.52	Low	Mean	-.06	.07	-.20	.09
Low	High	-.07	.17	.65	Low	High	-.03	.09	-.20	.16
Mean	Low	-.15	.12	.21	Mean	Low	-.08	.06	-.21	.04
Mean	Mean	-.14	.08	.08	Mean	Mean	-.05	.05	-.14	.04
Mean	High	-.13	.11	.24	Mean	High	-.02	.06	-.13	.12
High	Low	-.21	.15	.16	High	Low	-.06	.08	-.22	.08
High	Mean	**-.20**	**.10**	**.04***	High	Mean	-.03	.05	-.14	.07
High	High	-.19	.11	.07	High	High	.01	.06	-.12	.13

Notes. Combinations of the two moderators at low, mean and high levels; *W2* = community-friends; *Z1* = special person-family; *SE* = standard error; *BootSE* = bootstrapped standard error; 95% CI = bootstrapped.
* Significant effects are in boldface; *$p < .05$

4.5 Summary of the Results

The findings supported the proposition that greater economic constraints related to lowered decent work experiences but, unexpectedly, marginalisation experiences were not related to decent work experiences. The results did not support the findings for the remaining hypotheses either.

While work volition mediated the relationship between marginalisation and decent work, this was only at low levels of proactiveness. Similarly, proactive personality moderated the effects of marginalisation on work volition, though also only at low proactiveness. This was not found for the other contextual factor, economic constraints.

Neither community-friends or special person-family served as moderators, though social support from the community or friends predicted work volition, and social support from a special person or family predicted the degree to which domestic workers experienced their work as decent.

A summary of the results, in relation to the hypotheses, are outlined in Table 18.

Table 18
Summary of Hypotheses and Results

Model	Hypotheses	Result
0	**H_1**: Higher levels of marginalisation experiences are linked to domestic workers having less decent work experiences.	Not Supported
	H_2: Higher levels of economic constraints are linked to domestic workers having less decent work experiences.	Supported
1	**H_3:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' marginalisation experiences and decent work experiences.	Not Supported
	H_5: A proactive personality buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on work volition.	Not Supported
	H_7: A proactive personality buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on decent work experiences.	Not Supported
2	**H_4:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' economic constraints and decent work experiences.	Not Supported
	H_6: A proactive personality buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition.	Not Supported
	H_8: A proactive personality buffers the effect that economic constraints have on decent work experiences.	Not Supported
3	**H_3:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' marginalisation experiences and decent work experiences.	Not Supported
	H_{9a}: Community-friends buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on work volition.	Not Supported
	H_{9b}: Special Person-family buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have on work volition.	Not Supported
	H_{11a}: Community-friends buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences have decent work experiences.	Not Supported
	H_{11b}: Special Person-family buffers the effect that marginalisation experiences decent work experiences.	Not Supported
4	**H_4:** Work volition mediates the relationship between domestic workers' economic constraints and decent work experiences.	Not Supported
	H_{10a}: Community-friends buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition.	Not Supported
	H_{10b}: Special Person-family buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition.	Not Supported
	H_{12a}: Community-friends buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition and decent work experiences.	Not Supported
	H_{12b}: Special Person-family buffers the effect that economic constraints have on work volition and decent work experiences.	Not Supported

Chapter 5: Discussion

In this study, the researcher tested whether the PWT's theoretically derived predictors of decent work could be empirically supported among a group of low-income workers in South Africa, namely domestic workers. The study sought to determine how contextual barriers, namely marginalisation experiences and economic constraints, related to domestic workers' decent work experiences. The results revealed that economic constraints were related to lowered decent work, though not marginalisation experiences. Work volition was assumed to mediate the relationship between contextual factors and decent work experiences. While this study found that work volition mediated the relationship between marginalisation and decent work, it was only at low levels of proactiveness. The study also investigated whether proactive personality and social support buffered the negative effects that economic constraints and marginalisation were expected to have on experiences of decent work. Unexpectedly, the results revealed that low proactiveness moderated the marginalisation, work volition and decent work relationship, although, this was not posited in the study. Neither community-friends or special person-family served as moderators.

This chapter provides a discussion of the main results in relation to theory and prior research (Section 5.1). In addition, as the scales used in this study were adapted to suit domestic workers and because the scales were developed and validated in western contexts, the psychometric scale properties are also discussed (Section 5.2). Thereafter, the theoretical and practical implications are presented (Section 5.3), followed by an overview of the study's limitations and recommendations for future research (Section 5.4). This chapter concludes with an overall summary of the study's findings in Section 5.5.

5.1 Interpretation of Findings

The main findings are interpreted in relation to existing research below. First, the results relating to PWT's proposed predictors (economic constraints and marginalisation) are considered. This is followed by a discussion on the mediator (work volition) and one of the moderator variable (proactive personality), as work volition only mediated the relationship at low levels of proactiveness. Finally, the results relating to the second moderator variable (support from the community and friends, and support from a special person and family) is interpreted.

5.1.1 Economic constraints and marginalisation as predictors of decent work. The results revealed that domestic workers who experienced higher levels of economic constraints tended to experience lower levels of decent work and vice versa. This was anticipated, as greater economic constraints (i.e. limited household income) would be a barrier to accessing opportunities, thus giving individuals less choice in terms of where to work – or to leave work that is not decent. This makes it less likely for these individuals to experience decent work (Duffy et al., 2016; Duffy et al., 2018a). This finding was in line with research conducted by Douglass et al. (2017) and Tokar and Kaut (2018), and the propositions of the PWT. It did, however, contradict the findings of Duffy et al. (2018a), Duffy et al. (2019) and Kim et al. (2019). These authors had found that economic constraints were not directly linked to decent work and attributed this to the fact that, in some contexts, economic constraints may fully link to outcomes through psychological mediators (e.g. work volition). In other words, individuals who have higher resources tend to experience decent work because they have the perception that they can choose the jobs that they desire.

The PWT posits that individuals' economic constraints and marginalisation experiences are interwoven, in that those who experience greater economic hardships are also likely to be more marginalised (Duffy et al., 2016; Duffy et al., 2018a; Tokar & Kaut, 2018). The expectation was, therefore, that domestic workers who have higher marginalisation experiences would also tend to have less decent work experiences. In this study, marginalisation experiences were not related to economic constraints, nor to experiences of decent work, although, other studies have found that economic constraints and marginalisation experiences are interwoven (e.g. Douglass et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2018a). The false consensus effect could explain this finding.

Ross, Greene, and House (1977, p. 280) described this effect as the tendency for individuals to see their "own behavioural choices and judgements as relatively common and appropriate to existing circumstances while viewing alternative responses as uncommon, deviant, or inappropriate". From the outsider's perspective, of a middle-class researcher, domestic workers' living and working conditions may seem disenfranchised, as a result of comparing those conditions to our position and experiences in society. We then assume that others have the same view, i.e. that there is shared consensus.

As middle-class researchers, we tend to interact with other middle-class individuals and develop a similar system of belief(s), thereby limiting the range of what could be

possible alternative perceptions. This process has been described as selective exposure/availability (Coleman, 2018; Gilovich, 1990; Krueger & Zeiger, 1993). Likewise, domestic workers tend to reside in areas surrounded by friends, family and community members that may have similar living and working conditions as them. In comparison to their immediate environment, they may not feel marginalised. In addition to selective exposure and availability, we (unintentionally) also tend to place greater focus on our own beliefs and opinions and thus neglect to consider beliefs that may be different to ours, even if they are available (i.e. selective attention/memory). Likewise, domestic workers may never have felt socially excluded (i.e. marginalised).

Although, by working in neighbourhoods and houses with greater wealth, it could introduce a feeling of deprivation. The relative deprivation concept could be used to understand this, where individuals perceive themselves to be at an unfair disadvantage in comparison to other individuals, groups, or social categories (Smith, Pettigrew, Pippin, & Bialosiewicz, 2012). In other words, by performing domestic work in employers' households, domestic workers could notice that their employers have certain resources/assets that domestic workers may actually have limited access to. This could lead to feelings of deprivation, which, in turn, influence domestic workers' perception of career choice (e.g. a lack of freedom of choice) and ultimately experiences of work.

An assumed relationship between economic constraints and marginalisation also implies a relationship between a tangible source (i.e. income) and an experience (i.e. marginalisation). As experiences are subjective and, as outlined above, influenced by the environment, it is thus feasible that the two variables would not be related. It could be that domestic workers are able to recognise their financial barriers, which are tangible, without experiencing marginalisation, particularly in collectivist cultures in which there is a culture of mutual assistance. This could explain why economic constraints were related to lowered decent work experiences as opposed to marginalisation.

5.1.2 Work volition as a mediator in the marginalisation, economic constraints and decent work relationship. Work volition only mediated the relationship between marginalisation and decent work experiences for domestic workers who indicated low levels of proactiveness. For this reason, proactiveness as a moderator was included in this subsection. Proactiveness also moderated the effects of marginalisation experiences on work volition, however, also only at low proactiveness. Furthermore, individuals that had proactive

personalities tended to have greater work volition as well as decent work, although the latter was only when economic constraints was the independent variable.

These findings were unanticipated, as work volition had served as a mediator in a number of prior studies (Douglass et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2018a; Kozan et al., 2019; Masdonati et al., 2019). Intuitively, this is plausible as individuals' contextual barriers should reduce the degree of perceived career choice, which in turn limits the likelihood of experiencing decent work.

Similarly to the findings of this study, Kim et al. (2019) had also found a non-significant indirect relationship between one's economic resources and perceptions of decent work, via work volition. They attributed this to the fact that the indirect effects were not strong enough to reach significance, or that multicollinearity could have suppressed the direct effects of the mediator. Neither of these explanations seems applicable in this study – there was virtually no association between work volition and either economic constraints or marginalisation.

It is important to note that work volition is an individual's perception of their occupational choices, despite the constraints that they experience. While domestic workers are often limited in the range of occupations they can access due to low education levels or their immigrant status (Budlender, 2016; Theodore et al., 2019), domestic workers have some control of which households they choose to work at, especially if they work in multiple households and retain some income if choosing to leave a particular workplace. Equally so, there are several ways in which they could access work: their network, an agency, or a smartphone application (see Section 3.2). To make use of these opportunities would require a certain level of proactiveness. This may be why work volition only mediated the relationship between marginalisation and decent work when proactiveness was low: domestic workers show less initiative, and thus less creativity in accessing work, marginalisation experiences determine the degree of choice the individual perceives over their career options, which in turn relates to work being perceived as decent.

In the studies that found work volition to fully mediate the relationships between marginalisation and economic constraints with decent work, most participants were employed full-time (Douglass et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2018a; Kozan et al., 2019; Masdonati et al., 2019). While there are segments (e.g. domestic work agencies) within the domestic work

sector that may have formalised employment practices, a large majority of domestic workers are informally employed (Theodore et al., 2019). This is mainly because domestic workers do not have formal, written contracts that guarantee employment and benefits (e.g. medical aid and paid leave). The majority of domestic workers in the South African context thus operate more like entrepreneurs rather than employees, requiring a greater level of 'out-of-the-box', proactive thinking to access and create employment opportunities for themselves. It is thus their mindset, reflected in their proactiveness, rather than contextual and structural barriers which determine if they can access work they perceive as decent. Therein, proactiveness could be considered important, as domestic workers could take personal initiative to change their circumstances and environment rather than being a passive recipient of the environment (Bakker et al., 2012). We could then assume that individuals who do not take this personal initiative, may experience contextual and structural factors as obstacles, which may influence their perception of occupational choices and ultimately their decent work experiences. This study's results supports this assumption: while proactive personality was not related to economic constraints and marginalisation experiences, domestic workers with greater proactive personality had greater work volition and greater decent work experiences.

Therefore, the results of this study suggest that contextual barriers tend to be less important than the individual's mindset (i.e. proactive personality). A reason for this may be because domestic workers experience relatively similar barriers, hence why these contextual barriers did not serve as predictors. Nonetheless, the results indicate the importance of individuals' mindset.

5.1.3. Moderators in the marginalisation, economic constraints and decent work relationship. As discussed in the previous subsection, proactive personality moderated the marginalisation and decent work relationship, in that work volition only served as a mediator for domestic workers with low levels of proactiveness. In this section, the moderating role of social support is considered.

5.1.3.1. ***Support from community or friends and special person or family.*** Social support from either of the two separate sources did not moderate the effect of the contextual variables on work volition, nor the effect of the contextual variables on decent work via work volition as a mediator. Individuals with greater support from the community and friends had greater work volition, however, not more positive decent work experiences. On the other hand, greater support from a special person and family was related to greater decent work

experiences, but not to work volition. These results revealed that different sources of support served different purposes in this group of individuals. It had been expected that support from one's community, friends, special person and family would change the relationship between contextual barriers and work experiences rather than to have a direct effect on work volition and/or decent work (Duffy et al., 2016). Wang et al.'s (2019) study also found social support not to buffer the effects of the contextual factors on work volition and decent work.

Duffy et al.'s (2016) proposed social support and proactive personality as buffers to the negative impact of contextual variables (economic constraints and marginalisation) is based largely on theory, particularly from western perspectives. Theoretically, these moderators seem plausible, however, this study's findings suggest that the proposed contextual barriers have minimal relevance. The moderating variables, community-friends, special person-family and proactive personality, each had a significant relationship with either work volition and/or decent work. This suggests that the individuals, in this sample, may have more agency, as opposed to being passive recipients who are affected by contextual barriers. Importantly, this does not assume that contextual barriers do not influence domestic workers' living and working conditions. Domestic workers face similar economic constraints and marginalisation experiences, and their income varies – it does so within a low range at the low end of the income spectrum. The importance of these contextual factors may become more visible in professions and income groups with a wider range of marginalisation and economic constraints in comparison to a homogeneous group.

Alternatively, it could be that other moderators may be more applicable in the South African context. For instance, religious institutions are often a resource for those who live in low-income communities (Hill, Burdette, & Angel, 2008). It could be that individuals in these communities turn to these institutions to cope with challenges and hardships that they experience, while they may, at the same time, provide a networking opportunity and in this way provide access to work opportunities. Hence, religious beliefs, religious coping strategies or even religious practices could influence how domestic workers (or low-income workers in general) handle their contextual barriers and could thus be a greater predictor for work volition and ultimately decent work experiences (Shannon, Oakes, Scheers, Richardson, & Stills, 2013). It may, therefore, be important to identify additional, context-specific moderator variables, such as religion in South African society.

Essentially, the results of this study thus speak to the importance of empirically establishing which of the postulated variables should be considered as antecedents, mediators and moderators of decent work.

5.2 The Psychometric Scale Properties

Given that the study's scales were developed and validated in western contexts, it was not clear if they would also be appropriate measures in a low income setting such as South Africa, in which the concept of Likert-type scales are often not fully understood (Bernal, Wooley, & Schensul, 1997), literacy levels are low (Budlender, 2016) and English is often not individuals' first language (Statistics South Africa, 2011).

As conceptualised by Duffy et al. (2019), the scales used to measure marginalisation (LEMS) and economic constraints (ECS) were unidimensional. The scales for work volition (WVS) and proactive personality scale (PPS) also measured one underlying construct in line with prior studies (volition subscale in WVS: Duffy et al., 2012; proactive personality scale, PPS: Claes et al., 2005; Maingard, 2019).

As shown in research in other countries and as intended, the decent work scale (DWS) included five aspects of decent work (complementary values, access to health care, adequate compensation, free time and rest and safe work conditions) (Buyulgoze-Kavas & Autin, 2019; Di Fabio & Kenny, 2019; Duffy et al., 2017), though in her South African sample Malan (2018) had found the scale to assess only four dimensions. In this study, the social support scale measured two aspects of social support instead of the expected four. Reasons for the results are discussed below.

5.2.1 Decent work scale (DWS). Malan (2018) was the first to employ Duffy et al.'s (2017) DWS in the South African context and found that access to healthcare did not emerge as an aspect of decent work in her sample. This corresponded to Wang et al.'s (2019) finding that access to healthcare did not form a dimension of decent work in China when assessing decent work with the same scale. However, each of the five underlying dimensions of decent work emerged in this study.

To understand the differences in results, it is important to understand Duffy et al.'s (2017, p. 6) conceptualisation of 'access to healthcare', which is "the degree to which healthcare is accessible through one's job". Malan (2018) thus attributed her finding to the

fact that the provision of healthcare by an employer is not mandatory in South Africa. In 2012, only 16% of the South African population accessed privately funded healthcare facilities. The remainder tends to depend on under-resourced, tax-funded healthcare systems, for which charges are income dependent and services are often provided free of charge (McIntyre & Ataguba, 2012). However, in the United States of America (USA), organisations that have more than 50 employees are obliged to provide healthcare schemes (e.g. healthcare insurance), which means that workplaces are the main source of healthcare access for most employees in the USA (Duffy et al., 2017; Hiltzik, 2016; Merhar, 2016).

An important aspect to consider with regards to the decent work construct is thus the broader social context. For example, the decent work construct in the PWT takes the implicit underlying assumption that healthcare is not, partly or fully, state-funded. Moreover, individuals' views regarding what constitutes as 'access to healthcare' may differ. For instance, when one participant in this study handed in their questionnaire, they indicated that although they did not have private healthcare, they believed that they had access to healthcare because they could call in sick, not go to work, and go to a state-funded healthcare facility. Another relevant contextual factor may be if an individual is formally or informally employed. In formal employment, it is more likely for employees to have access to a nurse or doctor at the work premises, which is unlikely in the case of informal employment.

This could be viewed as a shortfall of the PWT, as it specifies that it aims to "explain the work experiences of all individuals" (Duffy et al., 2016, p. 127), however, the measures used to assess the variables of interests – in this case, Duffy et al.'s (2017) DWS – may not be adequate in all contexts.

Essentially, access to healthcare could have emerged as a component of decent work, as this study's sample may have had different views as to what constituted as access to healthcare compared to Malan's (2018) sample. Therefore, given the various contextual factors discussed, it begs the question as to whether access to healthcare should be seen as a facet of decent work, particularly in a South African context.

5.2.2 Amended multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS). A fourth dimension, support from the community, was added to the original MSPSS. Previous studies had found that the original three sources of support, from friends, family and special person, emerged as different dimensions of social support (Bruwer et al., 2008; Denis,

Callahan, & Bouvard, 2015; Ekbäck, Benzein, Lindberg, & Årestedt, 2013; Wongpakaran, Wongpakaran, & Rultrakul, 2011). In this study, community and friends could be summarised into a higher-order factor, and special person and family into another higher-order factor. This suggested that domestic workers who reported high levels of social support from their friends experienced similar levels of support from their community. Similarly, support levels from a special person were similar to support received from their family.

Although this finding was unexpected, this was also found in Chou (2000), Lee, Moy, and Hairi (2017), Stanley, Beck, and Zebb (1998) and Tonsing, Zimet, and Tse's (2012) results. In Chou's (2000) study, support from friends and a special person did not differentiate, while family support was perceived differently. In Lee et al.'s (2017), Stanley et al.'s (1998) and Tonsing's (2012) studies, support received from family and special person were similar, while support from friends was separate, which was similar to the findings in this study.

Differences in cultural norms may be the main explanation for these results (Chou, 2000; Denis et al., 2015; Stanley et al., 1998), particularly whether a culture is more individualist or collectivist. In more individualist cultures the interests of the individual trump the interest of the group, commonly seen in wealthier western countries (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). In these cultures, children tend to be born into families who have one or two parents (i.e. nuclear families), while relatives other than those in the immediate household are rarely seen. In collectivist cultures, the interest of the group trumps the interest of the individual (Hofstede et al., 2010). In these cultures, family structures differ, as children grow up with numerous individuals living together, for instance, grandparents, uncles, aunts, and other housemates (i.e. extended family).

Thus, in relation to domestic workers in South Africa, what constitutes "family" may differ to a western view of "family". For instance, in this study, a special person (or a significant other) could be viewed as forming part of a domestic workers' family, as they may reside together. Moreover, individuals who are not regarded as family may be regarded as friends and would likely reside in the community.

An alternative explanation for this finding is that the items read similar, making it challenging for participants to differentiate between the items (Denis et al., 2015). For instance, "I can count on my friends when things go wrong" is similar to "I can count on my

community when things go wrong", the difference between the two items is that the one relates to friends and the other relates to one's community. However, this explanation would only hold for the community and friends' items, as the items for special person and family were different (see Appendix C, pp. 89-90).

Even though the researcher adjusted the items to ensure that it was understandable in a South African context, it is important to consider whether the MSPSS scale requires further revisions to reduce cultural bias.

5.3 Theoretical Contributions and Practical Implications

The findings from this study contribute to the growing literature surrounding the PWT, which could be of value to organisations and policymakers, as well as domestic worker employers and agencies.

The results of this study suggest that the PWT's antecedents and moderators may work differently in the domestic work sector. For instance, social support and proactive personality may be more suitably placed as antecedents, as opposed to the proposed contextual barriers (i.e. marginalisation and economic constraints). The practical implication of this is that future research should test this further, especially considering that this sample had specific characteristics (e.g. informally, self-employed workers), where, for example, they may be more entrepreneurial and thus personality factors may be more relevant than what it would in other low-income samples.

This current study contributes to the literature on the PWT and decent work, as it is the second South African study to examine this topic. Malan's (2018) study examined a relatively high-income, high-educated sample whereas this study is the first known study to examine these relationships in a low-income sample in South Africa. However, as discussed in Section 5.2, the theory could be slightly ambitious in claiming to be an inclusive theory. This is because there are additional contextual and structural factors that are country and context-specific, which the theory does not consider. The PWT should make provision for individuals who are formally/informally employed, as well as whether they receive private/state-funded benefits (e.g. medical aid), as this could influence individuals' decent work experiences. Moreover, it is important to differentiate between cultures that are collectivist and individualist, as it could influence how participants understand concepts and respond to questions regarding the variables of interest in the PWT.

The findings from this study also highlight the need for researchers, practitioners, organisations and government to advocate and introduce policies as well as practices that encourage social change. For example, economic constraints negatively predicted decent work experiences, which suggests that there should be greater effort to eradicate financial barriers. While the government has introduced laws stipulating minimum wages, domestic workers often receive wages that are lower than the cost-of-living, as indicated by the average salary of R2 465.81 (Section 3.2). While a monthly living wage is approximately R12 000, it is unrealistic to expect domestic work agencies, organisations and private employers to pay this, however, they could create further opportunities that enhance economic conditions, which may, in turn, influence workers decent work experiences. For instance, increase wages, job/training opportunities and full-time employment.

5.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of the current study should be viewed in light of several limitations, all of which serve as recommendations for future research.

Firstly, purposive, non-random sampling techniques (i.e. convenience and snowball sampling) were employed, which could be a limitation of the study. This is because this study's sample may not be representative of the population of interest, as not all domestic workers had an equal opportunity to participate in the study, which could have biased the results (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis, & Bezuidenhout, 2014). Careful consideration should also be taken when generalising these results to broader domestic work populations, or other low-income populations in South Africa. While it would be appropriate to recommend future studies to employ random sampling techniques (see Section 3.2), non-random sampling techniques are more feasible and applicable – more so in low-income samples, where it is challenging to recruit participants. Therefore, a recommendation for future studies that consider the domestic work sector, is to devote greater efforts in securing support from agencies and companies that are affiliated with domestic workers, to increase the geographic location and diversity of the sample.

Secondly, providing an incentive to participants encouraged individuals to complete the survey, as it served to encourage and prompt a sufficient number of individuals to volunteer (Bentley & Thacker, 2003; Grant & Sugarman, 2004). However, incentives have a reputation of inducing individuals to conceal and withhold information, which they may not

usually do (Grady, 2001). In the present study, participants could have lied about their occupations – stating that they were domestic workers when in fact they were not. The use of an incentive could thus be regarded as a limitation of the study. Other researchers suggest that incentives should only be offered in cases where the researcher can verify the reported information (Bentley & Thacker, 2003). In this study, it was possible to verify domestic workers' occupation when they worked for an agency, or if the survey was distributed at their workplace. However, as various sampling techniques were employed, it would have been costly, time-consuming and may have compromised confidentiality to verify all respondents' information. For instance, participants could have been asked to provide their employers' contact details to verify that they were domestic workers, however, this may have compromised anonymity and confidentiality, and could have discouraged individuals to participate. While the researcher recognises the benefit of providing an incentive, it is suggested that future studies attempt to recruit domestic workers through agencies or at their workplaces, as it would be easier to verify the reported information.

Thirdly, the data was collected by means of a paper-and-pencil survey, as it was easier to distribute hardcopy questionnaires to domestic workers, for example, on their way to work. As the researcher had to distribute the surveys in person, some questionnaires were not returned. Moreover, when the study was posted on the Facebook domestic workers' group, numerous individuals indicated an interest in participating in the study, however, they were based in other cities in South Africa. A limitation was, therefore, that response rates may have been reduced as, firstly, questionnaires were not returned, and secondly, the researcher was unable to access all individuals who were interested in participating in the survey. While the researcher did consider providing an online survey, certain challenges may have arisen when distributing the incentive. For instance, incentives would have had to be mailed or provided via a digital wallet (e.g. Shoprite money wallet), however, it would have compromised confidentiality, as home addresses and mobile numbers would have had to be provided. It is recommended that future research employs hardcopy and electronic surveys if time and resources permit it. Although, careful consideration would need to be devoted to the logistic behind it, for example, whether an incentive should be provided.

Finally, the researcher attempted to ensure that the questionnaire was understandable, particularly for a low-income population. However, despite providing a definition, the researcher often received queries regarding the marginalisation items, as participants did not

fully understand the concept. Participants often asked for clarity on the four marginalisation items, and in some instances, asked their friends or community members to explain it. While the researcher attempted to explain the items, it was not always possible to control who the participants spoke to, more so when the questionnaire was not completed in the researcher's presence (see Section 3.4). Hence, a limitation of the study is that not all participants may have had the same understanding of the marginalisation concept. The marginalisation items used in the present study's questionnaire were broad (e.g. "Throughout my life I had many interactions with people that have left me feeling marginalised"), as it enabled participants to consider an intersectional perspective that embraced multiple social identities. However, Duffy et al.'s (2019) marginalisation scale is a newly developed measure, hence, a literature search did not reveal empirical studies that tested this scale in other populations. When conducting research in low-income populations, it is recommended that other studies employ an alternative scale that encapsulates the concept of marginalisation. For instance, the Heterosexist Harassment Rejection and Discrimination Scale/the General Ethnic Discrimination Scale do not make use of the term 'marginalisation' but instead include items such as "how often have you been treated unfairly by neighbours because of your race/ethnic group" or "I was ignored at work because of my race/ethnic group" (Duffy et al., 2018a, pp. 283-284).

5.5 Conclusion

A unique characteristic of the PWT is its emphasis on contextual barriers to decent work. While there are mixed results, overall, the findings of this study seem to suggest that the PWT's antecedents and moderators may work differently in the domestic work sector. Despite several limitations, the findings provide useful insight, which could assist in understanding how structural and contextual factors influence domestic workers' decent work experiences. It was found that greater economic constraints were related to less decent work experiences. The non-significant relationship between marginalisation, work volition and decent work changed when considering proactiveness as a moderator, however, this was only at low levels of proactiveness. While several other hypotheses were not supported, the results do indicate the need for further research regarding the applicability of the PWT in the South African context. This could enable one to establish which of the postulated variables should be considered as antecedents, mediators and moderators of decent work. Nonetheless, it is important to consider these structural, contextual and psychological factors, as it may

ultimately influence domestic workers' work experiences, which affects individuals' overall work fulfilment and well-being. This will enable organisations and employers to introduce mechanisms and processes that assist domestic workers in handling various contextual barriers, which could improve their overall work experiences in the long-term.

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Appendix A

A summary of changes made to the scale items

Table A1
Summary of Scale Item Adaptions

Scale	Factor	Item	Original Scale Item	Adapted Scale Item
LEMS	Marginalisation	1	During my lifetime, I have had many interpersonal interactions that have often left me feeling marginalised.	Throughout my life, I have had many interactions with people that have left me feeling marginalised.
		3	I have felt marginalised within various community settings for as long as I can remember.	I have felt marginalised in different places in my community for as long as I can remember.
		4	I have been unable to escape feeling marginalised.	I cannot escape feeling marginalised.
ECS	Economic Constraints	5	For as long as I can remember I have had very limited economic or financial resources.	For as long as I can remember, I have had very little money.
		6	For as long as I can remember I have had difficulties making ends meet.	For as long as I can remember, I have had problems buying what I need to live and survive.
		8	Throughout most of my life I have struggled financially.	For most of my life I have struggled financially.
		9	For most of my life, I have not felt financially stable.	For most of my life, I have felt that I don't have enough money.
		10	Throughout most of my life, I have had fewer economic resources than most people.	For most of my life, I have had less money than most people.
WVS	Work Volition	12	I can do the work I want, despite external barriers.	I can do the work I want, despite the obstacles in my life.
		13	I feel total control over my job choices.	I feel that I have control over my job choices.
		14	I feel able to change if I want.	I feel that I can change jobs if I want.
DWS	Safe Working Conditions	16	At work, I feel safe from emotional or verbal abuse of any kind.	At work, I feel safe from abuse of any kind.
	Access to Health Care	18	I get good healthcare benefits from my job.	I get good healthcare benefits from my work.
		19	I have a good healthcare plan at work.	I have a good healthcare plan at work
		20	My employer provides acceptable options for healthcare.	My work provides acceptable options for healthcare.
	Adequate Compensation	21	I am not properly paid for my work.	I am paid enough for my work.
		22	I do not feel I am paid enough based on my qualifications and experience.	I am paid enough based on my qualifications and work experience.
	Free Time/Adequate Rest	24	I do not have enough time for non-work activities.	I have enough time for non-work activities.
		25	I have no time to rest during the work week.	I have time to rest during the work week.
	Complementary Values	29	The values of my work match the values within my community.	The values of my work match the values of my community.
MSPSS	Special Person	30	There is a special person who is around when I am in need.	I have a special person who is around when I am in need.
		31	There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows with.	There is a special person in my life that I can share my joys and troubles with.
		32	I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me.	I have a special person in my life who is a source of comfort to me.
		33	There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.	I have a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.
	Friends	40	I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.	I have friends that I can share my joys and troubles with.
PPS	Proactive Personality	47	No matter what the odds, if I believe in something, I will make it happen.	No matter the odds, if I believe in something, I will make it happen.
		48	I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.	Even if other people disagree, I keep pushing for my ideas.
		49	I excel at identifying opportunities.	I am good at identifying opportunities.
		51	If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.	If I believe in an idea, nothing will stop me from making it happen.

Appendix B

Cover page

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

IYUNIVESITHI YASEKAPA • UNIVERSITEIT VAN KAAPSTAD

Dear Participant,

For my Master's degree at the University of Cape Town, I am learning about the working and living conditions of domestic workers.

If you work as a domestic worker, you would help me greatly if you could answer the attached questions. This takes approximately 15-20 minutes. There are no right or wrong answers; I am only interested in your opinion.

Please note that **this study will not influence your own current or future work conditions.**

The Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee at the University of Cape Town has approved this study. There are no risks involved. All the answers you give are anonymous, I will not be able to identify you. All answers will also be stored on a password protected computer that only I can access.

To thank you for your time for answering the questions, you will receive a **R60 Shoprite voucher** once you have completed and submitted the questionnaire. Other than the voucher, there are no direct benefits to you for participating.

This study is voluntary, and you may withdraw from it at any time.

Please only complete and submit the questionnaire if you agree to participate in the study.

Should you have any questions please feel free to contact me, Tarquin Vollenhoven at VLLTAR001@myuct.ac.za (email) or XXX XXX XXXX (SMS/WhatsApp).

Your time and participation is greatly appreciated!

Sincerely,

Tarquin Vollenhoven

Appendix C

Questionnaire

There are 6 sections to be completed.

To answer the questionnaire, you need to show how much you agree with each statement.

For each statement your answer can be one of the following:

No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always

Please always tick (✓) the box that you agree with the most.
There are no right or wrong answers.

Here is an example of how to answer the questionnaire:

1. I feel happy when I walk.	No, never	No, not often ✓	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
2. I believe it is important to eat breakfast in the morning.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always ✓
3. In my household, I pay for most of the food.	No, never ✓	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always

---

Please start here:

1. How do you find work as a domestic worker? (You may choose more than one answer)

I find my own work.	
I work for an agency that sends me to houses for work.	
I use a smartphone application to find work.	

Section 1: Marginalisation

Marginalisation means being powerless in society. It means being excluded or having little access to resources because of your gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, disability, religious beliefs, physical appearance or any other characteristic.

Considering the experiences that you have had throughout your entire life, please tick (✓) the box that you agree with the most. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. Throughout my life, I had many interactions with people that have left me feeling marginalised.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
2. Throughout my life, I had many experiences that have made me feel marginalised.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
3. I have felt marginalised in different places in my community for as long as I can remember.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
4. I cannot escape feeling marginalised.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always

Section 2: Money and Work Choices

Please tick (✓) the box that you agree with the most. There are no right or wrong answers.

5. For as long as I can remember, I have had very little money.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
6. For as long as I can remember, I have had problems buying what I need to live and survive.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
7. I have considered myself poor or very close to poor for most of my life.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
8. For most of my life I have struggled financially.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
9. For most of my life, I have felt that I don't have enough money.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
10. For most of my life, I have had less money than most people.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
11. I have been able to choose the jobs I wanted.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
12. I can do the work I want, despite the obstacles in my life.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
13. I feel that I have control over my job choices.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
14. I feel that I can change jobs if I want.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always

Section 3: Work Experiences

Please tick (✓) the box that you agree with the most. There are no right or wrong answers.

When answering these questions, please consider ONE person (or company) that you work for:

15. I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
16. At work, I feel safe from abuse of any kind.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
17. I feel physically safe interacting with people at work.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
18. I get good healthcare benefits from my work.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
19. I have a good healthcare plan at work.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
20. My work provides acceptable options for healthcare.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
21. I am paid enough for my work.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
22. I am paid enough based on my qualifications and work	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
23. I am rewarded adequately for my work.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
24. I have enough time for non-work activities.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
25. I have time to rest during the work week.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
26. I have free time during the work week.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
27. The values of my work match my family values.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
28. My work's values align with my family values.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
29. The values of my work match the values of my community.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always

Section 4: Social Support

Please tick (✓) the box that you agree with the most. There are no right or wrong answers.

30. I have a special person who is around when I am in need.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
31. There is a special person in my life that I can share my joys and troubles with.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
32. I have a special person in my life who is a source of comfort to me.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
33. I have a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always

34. My family really tries to help me.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
35. I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
36. I can talk about my problems with my family.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
37. My family is willing to help me make decisions.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
38. My friends really try to help me.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
39. I can count on my friends when things go wrong.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
40. I have friends that I can share my joys and troubles with.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
41. I can talk about my problems with my friends.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
42. My community really tries to help me.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
43. I get the emotional help and support I need from my	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
44. I can talk about my problems with my community.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
45. I can count on my community when things go wrong.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always

Section 5: Proactive Personality

Please tick (✓) the box that you agree with the most. There are no right or wrong answers.

46. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
47. No matter the odds, if I believe in something, I will make it happen.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
48. Even if other people disagree, I keep pushing for my ideas.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
49. I am good at identifying opportunities.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
50. I am always looking for better ways to do things.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always
51. If I believe in an idea, nothing will stop me from making it happen.	No, never	No, not often	I am not sure	Yes, often	Yes, always

Section 6: About You

Please tick (✓) the appropriate box.

1. What is your gender?

Male	
Female	
Other	
I prefer not to answer	

2. How old are you?

_____

3. What is your highest education level?

_____

4. What is your racial group?

Asian	
Black	
Coloured	
Indian	
White	
Other	
I prefer not to answer	

5. How many households do you work for in a normal week?

_____

6. Which days of the week do you perform domestic work? (You may choose more than one answer)

Monday	
Tuesday	
Wednesday	
Thursday	
Friday	
Saturday	
Sunday	

7. How much money do you usually earn in a month? (You may choose not to answer this question.)

   R _____

8. How much money would you need to earn per month to have enough to live? (You may choose not to answer this question.)

   R _____

9. Do you get any other money per month (e.g. grants, pension, through renting out property, maintenance….)? If so, how much? (You may choose not to answer this question.)

   R _____

Thank you for completing this questionnaire!

Appendix D

Ethics approval letter

Faculty of Commerce

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06-Aug-2019

Tarquin Vollenhoven

School of Management Studies

University of Cape Town

REF: 2019/08/007

Domestic Work as Decent Work

We are pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved. Unless otherwise specified this ethical clearance is valid until 31-Aug-2020

Your clearance may be renewed upon application.

Please be aware that you need to notify the Ethics Committee immediately should any aspect of your study regarding the engagement with participants as approved in this application, change. This may include aspects such as changes to the research design, questionnaires, or choice of participants.

The ongoing ethical conduct throughout the duration of the study remains the responsibility of the principal investigator.

We wish you well for your research.

Jacques Rousseau
2019.08.06
12:00:26 +02'00'

Signature Removed

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Appendix E

Unrotated and rotated factor loading solutions for the study's scales

Table E1

Unrotated Initial Eigenvalues Validity Solutions for the Unidimensional Scales

Scale	Initial Eigenvalues			
	Factor	Total	% Variance	% Cumulative
Marginalisation	1	2.32	58.06	58.06
	2	.73	18.20	76.26
	3	.52	13.04	89.30
	4	.43	10.70	100.00
Economic Constraints	1	3.22	53.58	53.58
	2	.85	14.15	67.73
	3	.72	12.04	79.77
	4	.51	8.52	88.29
	5	.38	6.31	94.59
	6	.33	5.41	100.00
Work Volition	1	2.13	53.15	53.15
	2	.75	18.83	71.98
	3	.60	15.00	86.98
	4	.52	13.02	100.00
Proactive Personality	1	2.89	48.23	48.23
	2	.91	15.14	63.37
	3	.73	12.16	75.53
	4	.68	11.35	86.89
	5	.43	7.23	94.12
	6	.35	5.89	100.00

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table E2

Unrotated Initial Eigenvalues Validity Solutions for the Multidimensional Scales

Scale	Initial Eigenvalues			
	Factor	Total	% Variance	% Cumulative
Decent Work	1	5.51	36.76	36.76
	2	1.79	11.91	48.68
	3	1.32	8.83	57.51
	4	1.18	7.85	65.35
	5	1.11	7.38	72.73
	6	.87	5.82	78.54
	7	.62	4.12	82.66
	8	.52	3.44	86.10
	9	.48	3.17	89.28
	10	.43	2.87	92.15
	11	.37	2.49	94.63
	12	.28	1.86	96.49
	13	.23	1.51	98.00
	14	.17	1.10	99.10
	15	.13	.90	100.00
Social Support	1	5.91	39.35	39.35
	2	3.05	20.32	59.66
	3	1.60	10.65	70.32
	4	1.23	8.23	78.54
	5	.65	4.32	82.86
	6	.45	2.98	85.83
	7	.41	2.70	88.54
	8	.32	2.13	90.67
	9	.32	2.11	92.78
	10	.28	1.83	94.61
	11	.21	1.39	96.00
	12	.19	1.30	97.30
	13	.18	1.18	98.47
	14	.13	.85	99.32
	15	.10	.68	100.00

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table E3

Rotated Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Lifetime Experiences of Marginalisation Scale

Item	Factor
	Marginalisation
Throughout my life, I have had many interactions with people that have left me feeling marginalised.	.79
Throughout my life, I had many experiences that have made me feel marginalised.	.66
I have felt marginalised in different places in my community for as long as I can remember.	.68
I cannot escape feeling marginalised.	.52
Eigenvalue	2.32
% Variance explained	58.06
% Cumulative variance	58.06

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 9 iterations required.

Table E4

Rotated Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Economic Constraints Scale

Item	Factor
	Economic Constraints
For as long as I can remember, I have had very little money.	.64
For as long as I can remember, I have had problems buying what I need to live and survive.	.59
I have considered myself poor or very close to poor for most of my life.	.67
For most of my life I have struggled financially.	.68
For most of my life, I have felt that I don't have enough money.	.75
For most of my life, I have had less money than most people.	.66
Eigenvalue	3.22
% Variance explained	53.58
% Cumulative variance	53.58

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 5 iterations required.

Table E5

Rotated Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Work Volition Scale

Item	Factor
	Volition
I have been able to choose the jobs I wanted.	.65
I can do the work I want, despite the obstacles in my life.	.68
I feel that I have control over my job choices.	.59
I feel that I can change jobs if I want.	.54
Eigenvalue	2.23
% Variance explained	53.15
% Cumulative variance	53.15

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 7 iterations required.

Table E6

Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Proactive Personality Scale

Item	Factor
	Proactive Personality
If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	.41
No matter the odds, if I believe in something, I will make it happen.	.70
Even if other people disagree, I keep pushing for my ideas.	.50
I am good at identifying opportunities.	.75
I am always looking for better ways to do things.	.60
If I believe in an idea, nothing will stop me from making it happen.	.72
Eigenvalue	2.90
% Variance explained	48.23
% Cumulative variance	48.23

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 5 iterations required.

Table E7

Factor Analysis Results for the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

Items	Factors			
	Family	Special Person	Friends	Community
My family really tries to help me.	.80			
I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.	.91			
I can talk about my problems with my family.	.75			
My family is willing to help me make decisions.	.86			
I have a special person who is around when I am in need.		.56		
There is a special person in my life that I can share my joys and troubles with.		.92		
I have a special person in my life who is a source of comfort to me.		.92		
I have a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.		.78		
My friends really try to help me.			.51	.30
I can count on my friends when things go wrong.			.76	
I have friends that I can share my joys and troubles with.			.87	
I can talk about my problems with my friends.			.85	
My community really tries to help me.				.79
I get the emotional help and support I need from my community.				.78
I can talk about my problems with my community.				.81
I can count on my community when things go wrong.				.88
Eigenvalue	6.32	3.15	1.65	1.23
% Variance explained	39.52	19.68	10.32	7.71
% Cumulative variance	39.52%	59.20%	69.52%	77.22

Notes. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring; 8 iterations required.

Appendix F

Reliability results for the study's scales

Table F1

Item-total Statistics for the 4-item Lifetime Experiences of Marginalisation Scale

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
1	Throughout my life, I have had many interactions with people that have left me feeling marginalised.	.65	.64
2	Throughout my life, I had many experiences that have made me feel marginalised.	.54	.70
3	I have felt marginalised in different places in my community for as long as I can remember.	.57	.69
4	I cannot escape feeling marginalised.	.46	.75

Table F2

Item-total Statistics for the six-item Economic Constraints scale

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
5	For as long as I can remember, I have had very little money.	.57	.78
6	For as long as I can remember, I have had problems buying what I need to live and survive.	.54	.81
7	I have considered myself poor or very close to poor for most of my life.	.60	.79
8	For most of my life I have struggled financially.	.60	.79
9	For most of my life, I have felt that I don't have enough money.	.66	.78
10	For most of my life, I have had less money than most people.	.58	.94

Table F3

Item-total Statistics for the 15-item Decent Work Scale

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
15	I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work.	.29	.87
16	At work, I feel safe from abuse of any kind.	.36	.86
17	I feel physically safe interacting with people at work.	.36	.86
18	I get good healthcare benefits from my work.	.57	.86
19	I have a good healthcare plan at work.	.52	.86
20	My work provides acceptable options for healthcare.	.63	.86
21	I am paid enough for my work.	.55	.86
22	I am paid enough based on my qualifications and work experience.	.63	.86
23	I am rewarded adequately for me work.	.61	.86
24	I have enough time for non-work activities.	.45	.87
25	I have time to rest during the work week.	.52	.86
26	I have free time during the work week.	.44	.87
27	The values of my work match my family values.	.63	.86
28	My work's values align with my family values.	.60	.86
29	The values of my work match the values of my community.	.63	.86

Table F4

Item-total Statistics for the Safe Work Conditions Subscale of the 15-item Decent Work Scale

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
15	I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work.	.32	.63
16	At work, I feel safe from abuse of any kind.	.44	.45
17	I feel physically safe interacting with people at work.	.47	.41

Table F5

Item-total Statistics for the Access to Healthcare Subscale of the 15-item Decent Work Scale

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
18	I get good healthcare benefits from my work.	.78	.83
19	I have a good healthcare plan at work.	.81	.80
20	My work provides acceptable options for healthcare.	.74	.87

Table F6

Item-total Statistics for the Adequate Compensation Subscale of the 15-item Decent Work Scale

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
21	I am paid enough for my work.	.70	.75
22	I am paid enough based on my qualifications and work experience.	.76	.69
23	I am rewarded adequately for me work.	.60	.85

Table F7

Item-total Statistics for the Free Time and Rest Subscale of the 15-item Decent Work Scale

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
24	I have enough time for non-work activities.	.49	.74
25	I have time to rest during the work week.	.61	.59
26	I have free time during the work week.	.60	.62

Table F8

Item-total Statistics for the Complementary Values Subscale of the 15-item DWS

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
27	The values of my work match my family values.	.76	.83
28	My work's values align with my family values.	.83	.76
29	The values of my work match the values of my community.	.70	.88

Table F9

Item-total Statistics for the Volition Subscale of the 4-item Work Volition Scale

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
11	I have been able to choose the jobs I wanted.	.52	.62
12	I can do the work I want, despite the obstacles in my life.	.53	.62
13	I feel that I have control over my job choices.	.48	.65
14	I feel that I can change jobs if I want.	.44	.67

Table F10

Item-total Statistics for the 15-item Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
30	I have a special person who is around when I am in need.	.34	.89
31	There is a special person in my life that I can share my joys and troubles with.	.44	.88
32	I have a special person in my life who is a source of comfort to me.	.50	.88
33	I have a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.	.54	.88
34	My family really tries to help me.	.60	.88
35	I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.	.63	.88
36	I can talk about my problems with my family.	.65	.88
37	My family is willing to help me make decisions.	.64	.88
39	I can count on my friends when things go wrong.	.50	.88
40	I have friends that I can share my joys and troubles with.	.53	.88
41	I can talk about my problems with my friends.	.53	.88
42	My community really tries to help me.	.63	.88
43	I get the emotional help and support I need from my community.	.62	.88
44	I can talk about my problems with my community.	.57	.88
45	I can count on my community when things go wrong.	.55	.88

Table F11

Item-total Statistics for the Community-friends Subscale of the 15-item Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
42	My community really tries to help me.	.80	.85
43	I get the emotional help and support I need from my community.	.77	.86
44	I can talk about my problems with my community.	.68	.87
45	I can count on my community when things go wrong.	.65	.87
39	I can count on my friends when things go wrong.	.60	.88
40	I have friends that I can share my joys and troubles with.	.59	.88
41	I can talk about my problems with my friends.	.63	.87

Table F12

Item-total Statistics for the Special Person-family Subscale of the 15-item Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
30	I have a special person who is around when I am in need.	.54	.89
31	There is a special person in my life that I can share my joys and troubles with.	.66	.88
32	I have a special person in my life who is a source of comfort to me.	.68	.88
33	I have a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.	.69	.88
34	My family really tries to help me.	.73	.88
35	I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.	.70	.88
36	I can talk about my problems with my family.	.68	.88
37	My family is willing to help me make decisions.	.72	.88

Table F13

Item-total Statistics for the six-item Proactive Personality Scale

Item number	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
46	If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	.37	.79
47	No matter the odds, if I believe in something, I will make it happen.	.61	.71
48	Even if other people disagree, I keep pushing for my ideas.	.44	.76
49	I am good at identifying opportunities.	.60	.72
50	I am always looking for better ways to do things.	.52	.75
51	If I believe in an idea, nothing will stop me from making it happen.	.62	.71

Appendix G

Multiple regression assumptions

As depicted in Table G1, each model included at least one independent variable (marginalisation or economic constraints), a mediator (work volition), a moderator (community-friends, special person-family and/or proactive personality), and one criterion variable (decent work).

Table G1
Predictor Variables for Multiple Regression

Model	Predictor Variables[a]
0	Marginalisation and economic constraints
1	Marginalisation, work volition, proactive personality
2	Economic constraints, work volition, proactive personality
3	Marginalisation, work volition, community-friends, special person-family
4	Economic constraints, work volition, community-friends, special person-family

[a] Criterion variable: Decent work

Level of measurement. To satisfy this assumption, each predictor variable should either be categorical or interval scales (Field, 2013). Similarly, the criterion variables should be interval or ratio scales (Field, 2013). Marginalisation, economic constraints, work volition, community-friends, special person-family, proactive personality and decent work were measured on interval scales. The level of measurement assumption was met, as all the variables were measured on interval scales.

Adequate sample size. According to Green (1991), an adequate sample size to conduct multiple regression is illustrated with the following formula: $N > 50 + 8m$, where "m" is the total number of independent variables. Hence, 98 participants would have been required. This study comprised of 139 participants, which illustrated an adequate sample size. As such, this criterion was met.

Independent errors. Residuals are the difference between the values predicted and the values observed in the data (Field, 2013). To satisfy this assumption, the residuals should be uncorrelated. The Durbin-Watson statistic was used to check for this assumption, as it tests the serial correlations between residuals (Field, 2013). The Durbin-Watson statistic can vary between 0 and 4, although, values that are less than 1 or greater than 3 indicate that the residuals may not random and independent from each other. As indicated in Table G2, this

assumption was met, as each of the model values were greater than 1 but less than 3. This indicated that the errors were random and independent from one another. Therefore, the assumption of independence was met.

Table G2
Predictor Variables for Multiple Regression

Model	Predictor Variables[a]	Durban-Watson Statistic
0	Marginalisation and economic constraints	1.92
1	Marginalisation, work volition, proactive personality	1.94
2	Economic constraints, work volition, proactive personality	1.97
3	Marginalisation, work volition, community-friends, special person-family	1.83
4	Economic constraints, work volition, community-friends, special person-family	1.90

[a] Criterion variable: Decent work

Additivity, linearity and homoscedasticity. As there were several predictors, their combined effects were described with a linear model. As suggested by Field (2013, p. 192), linearity and homoscedasticity can be checked with a scatterplot, where the standardised predicted residuals are plotted against the standardised observed residuals. There should be no systematic relationship between the errors and the predictors. If the graph funnels out (i.e. heteroscedasticity) or if there is a curved shape, then this assumption is assumed to be violated (Field, 2013).The standardised predicted residuals were plotted against the standardised observed residuals in a scatterplot for Model 0 – 4, where the graphs neither curved nor funnelled out. As illustrated in Figure G1– G5, this assumption held true. Moreover, in accordance with Field (2013), additivity was assumed for each model.

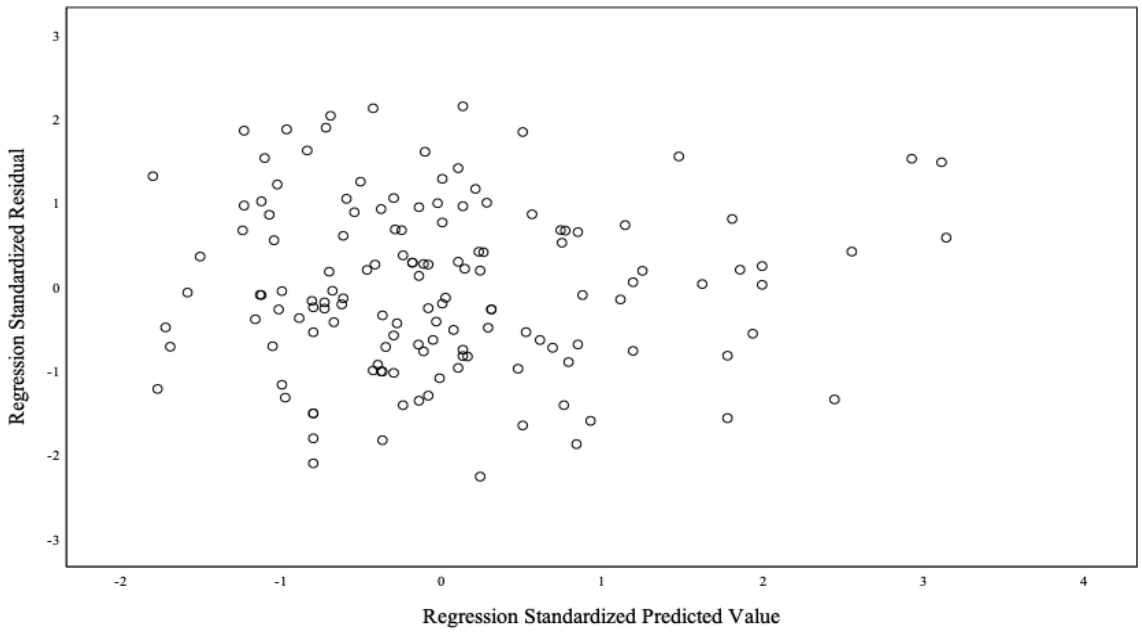

Figure G1. Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals for Model 0.

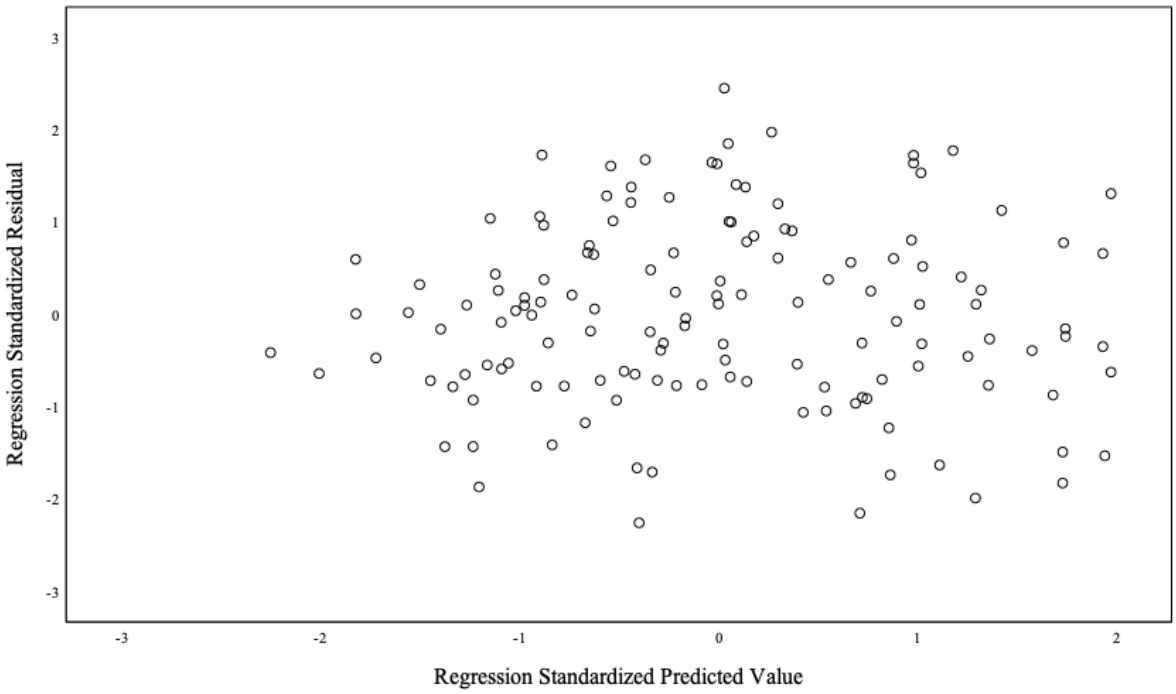

Figure G2. Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals for Model 1.

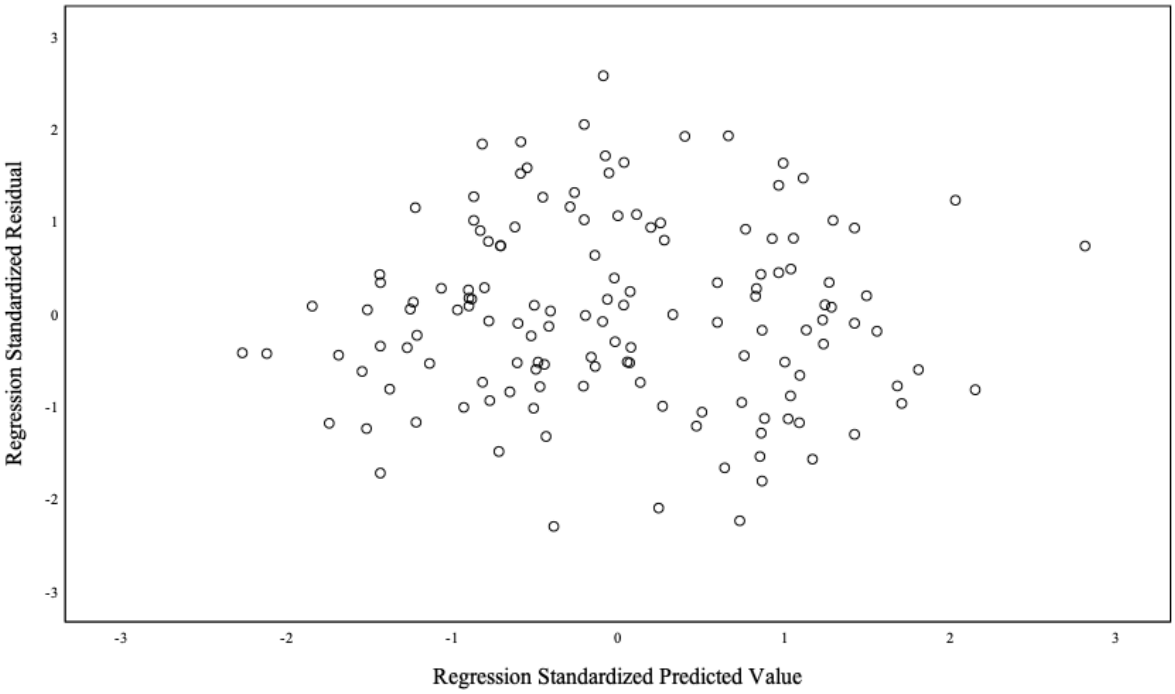

Figure G3. Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals for Model 2.

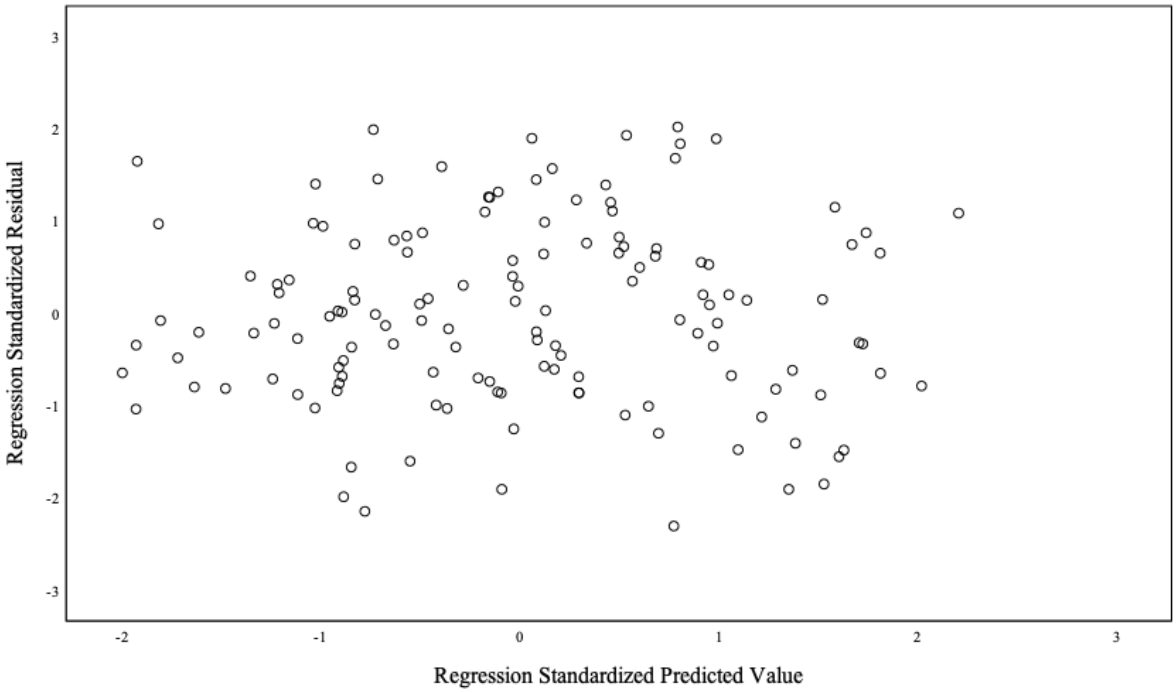

Figure G4. Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals for Model 3.

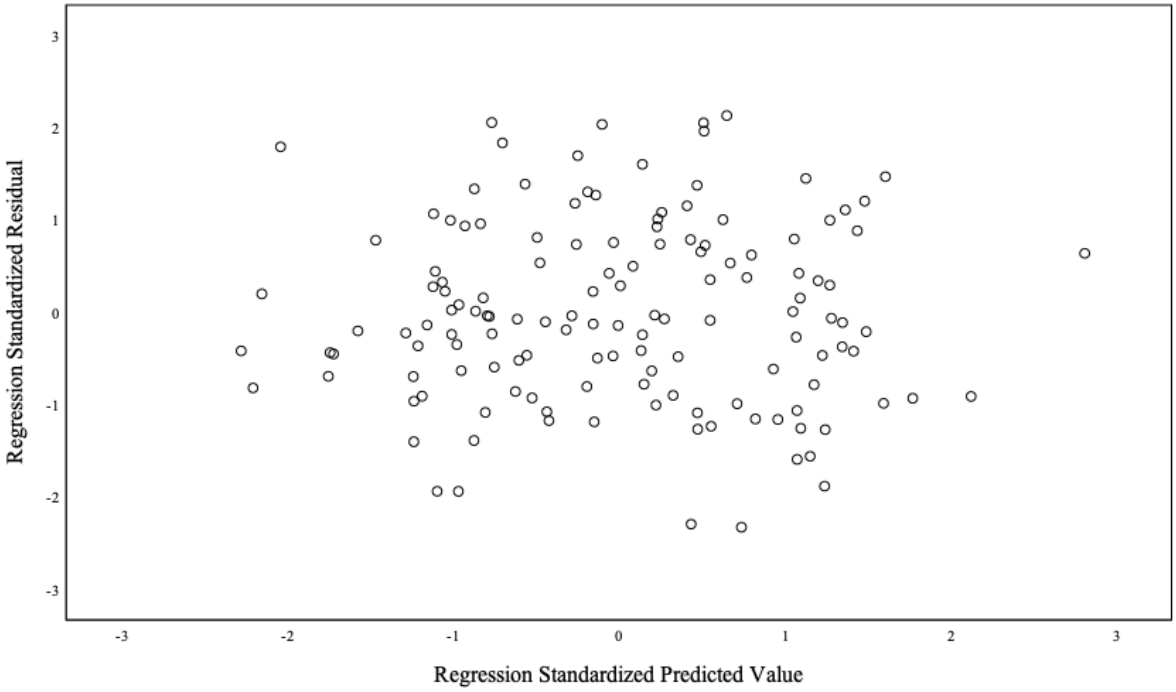

Figure G5. Scatterplot of Standardised Observed Residuals and Standardised Predicted Residuals for Model 4.

Normality. The data should be normally distributed. For each model, a Probability-Probability (P-P) Plot was used to determine whether the residuals were normally distributed. P-P Plot charts the cumulative probability of the variables against the cumulative probability of a normal distribution (Field, 2013). Deviations from the diagonal represents deviations from the normal distribution. As illustrated in G6 – G10, the values fall considerably close to the diagonal of the plot, which implied that the variables shared a normal distribution. This criterion was held.

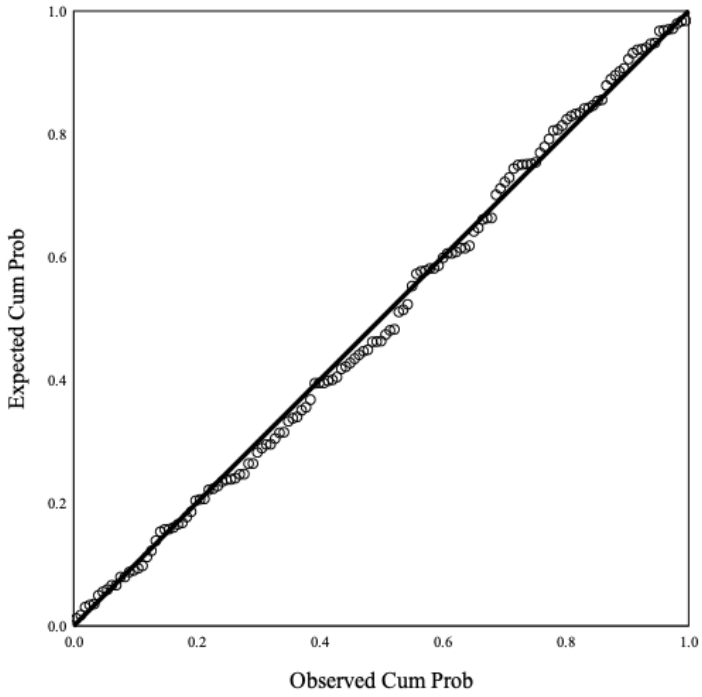

Figure G6. P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residuals for Model 0.

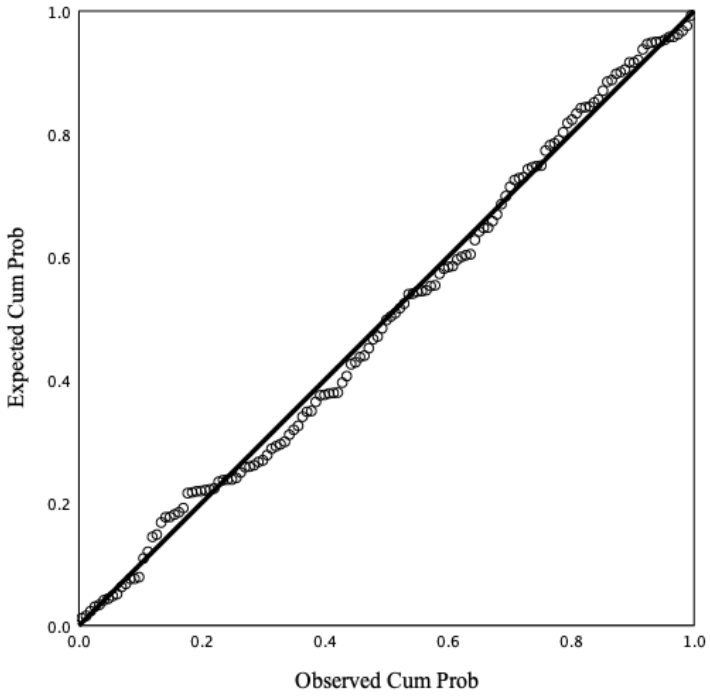

Figure G7. P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residuals for Model 1.

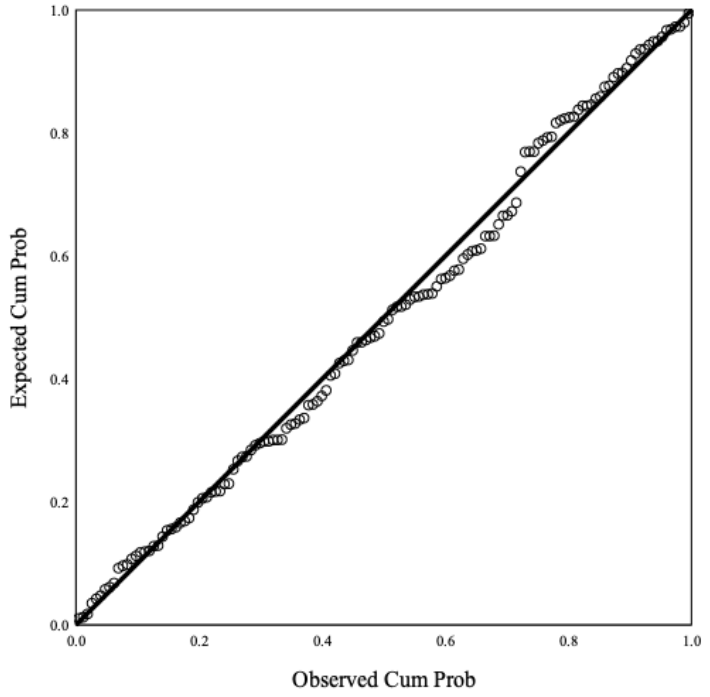

Figure G8. P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residuals for Model 2.

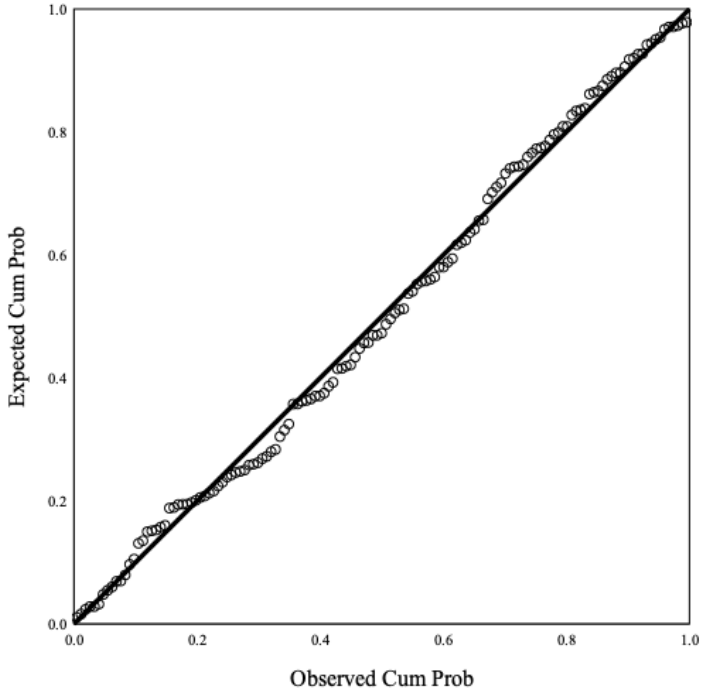

Figure G9. P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residuals for Model 3.

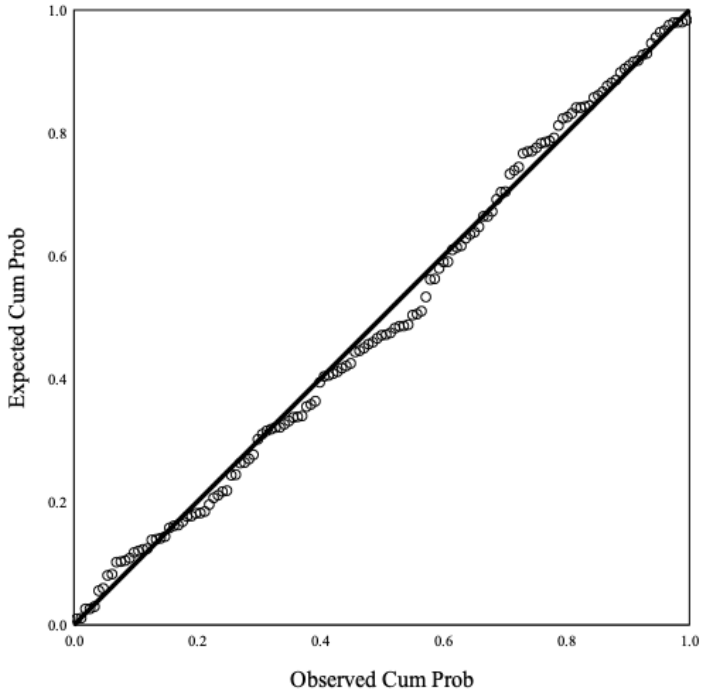

Figure G10. P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residuals for Model 4.

Multicollinearity. Independent variables that are strongly related (r > .80) indicate that multicollinearity is present (Field, 2013). To evaluate this, the average variance inflation factor (VIF) for the independent variables were examined. The tolerance statistic was also examined, as it is the reciprocal of the VIF (1 / VIF). If the average VIF is considerably greater than 1 and the tolerance statistic is below .10 then the regression may be biased and could indicate a problem (Field, 2013). As illustrated in Table G3, the VIF's were not considerably greater than 1 and the tolerance statistics were greater than .10. Therefore, multicollinearity was not present.

Table G3
Multicollinearity Diagnostic for Each Multiple Regression Model

		Average Collinearity Statistics	
Model	Predictor Variables[a]	Tolerance	VIF
0	Marginalisation and economic constraints	.99	1.01
1	Marginalisation, work volition, proactive personality	.96	1.05
2	Economic constraints, work volition, proactive personality	.94	1.06
3	Marginalisation, work volition, community-friends, special person-family	.91	1.11
4	Economic constraints, work volition, community-friends, special person-family	.91	1.10

[a] Criterion variable: Decent work

Non-zero variance. The variances of the independent and dependent variables should not have a variance of 0, as there should be some variance within the data. Marginalisation (*SD* = 1.08), economic constraints (*SD* = .84), work volition (*SD* = 1.13), community-friends (*SD* = 1.16), special person-family (*SD* = .97), proactive personality (*SD* = .65) and decent work (*SD* = .91) had standard deviations above 0. Hence, this assumption was upheld.

Model bias. To evaluate model bias, one determines whether there are outliers and/or influential cases in the dataset. In accordance with Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), standardised residuals that had values greater than 3.30 or values less than -3.30 were considered problematic. None of the models had standardised residuals less than -3.30 or greater than 3.30 (see Table G4). Furthermore, Cook's distance was used to assess whether there were influential cases in the data, where values > 1 indicate cases that unduly skew the model (Cook & Weisberg, 1982; Field, 2013). In each model, the Cook's distance was not greater than 1. Hence, there was no model bias.

Table G4
Results for Model Bias

Model	Predictor Variables[a]	Std. Residuals		Max Cook's Distance
		Min	*Max*	
0	Marginalisation and economic constraints	-2.26	2.16	.07
1	Marginalisation, work volition, proactive personality	-2.26	2.45	.05
2	Economic constraints, work volition, proactive personality	-2.30	2.58	.05
3	Marginalisation, work volition, community-friends, special person-family	-2.31	2.02	.06
4	Economic constraints, work volition, community-friends, special person-family	-2.33	2.14	.05

[a] Criterion variable: Decent work; Std. Residuals = standardised residuals; Min = minimum; Max = maximum