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Integrating Political Trust, Job Precariousness, and Employee Outcomes: Contrasting China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States

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The conjunction of the post-modern condition, globalization, a fluid society, information technologies, and competitive pressures may influence political trust, job precariousness, and employee and organizational outcomes. An important question is whether events and changes at the macro level (e.g., events that shape political trust) spill over to the micro level (e.g., events that affect supervisor trustworthiness, job satisfaction). This study examines a set of relationships among political trust, job precariousness, supervisor trustworthiness, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors in China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States. Findings show effects of political trust and job precariousness on supervisor trustworthiness, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Results are discussed, and suggestions for future research are presented.

KEYWORDS *Political trust, job precariousness, supervisor trustworthiness, organizational citizenship behaviors, national context.*

I. Introduction

In the past few years, there has been a rapid decline in what used to be considered truth; that is, society has observed growing disagreement about facts, an increasing influence of opinion over fact, a decreased trust in sources of information that were hitherto considered reliable, and a blurring of lines between opinion and fact (Citrin and Stoker 2018; Davis 2017). In conducting human affairs, rationality is decreasing, and emotions are increasing. Trust is extended only to those who believe in the same narratives and has been taken away from legitimate social institutions (Davis 2017). At the same time, internationalization and the expanded use of information technologies and networks have increased the number of established relationships while decreasing the duration of each relationship, thereby increasing the value of trustworthiness (Alarcon et al. 2018 Ashleigh, Higgs, and Dulewicz 2012; Klotz et al. 2013). Similarly, high-quality relationships are essential for increasingly required knowledge-focused and team-based work (Wiek 2007). In other words, trustworthiness is decreasing, while, at the same time, it is increasingly needed. Decreased trustworthiness partly originates from institutional and structural changes, which have led to individuals increasingly facing uncertainty and risk in employment, income, health, and housing (Hooghe and Okolikj 2020; Pyoria and Ojala 2016; Wroe 2014).

One crucial question is whether events and changes at the macro level (e.g., events that shape political trust) spill over to the micro level (e.g., events that affect supervisor trustworthiness, organizational citizenship behaviors, and job satisfaction) and otherwise. Each individual internalizes both societal and workplace experiences and may reflect such internalization in her/his attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors (Bourdieu 2020). Consequently, it may be expected that experiences in one life realm will affect experiences in another life realm (Acs, Audretsch, and Lehmann 2013; Frezza et al. 2019; Tangirala, Green, and Ramanujan 2007). Such spillover may be expected since cultural, organizational, and individual factors affect people's responses to institutional and structural changes (Kallenberg 2018).

Research on job precariousness (Benach et al. 2014; Cheng and Chan 2008; Cruz-Del Rosario and Rigg 2019; Kallenberg 2018; Vives et al. 2015), political trust (Balliet and Van Lange 2013; Citrin and Stoker 2018; Fukuyama 1995; Hamm, Smidt, and Mayer 2019; Hung-Baesecke and Chen 2020; Kwang and Burgers 1997; Levi and Stoker 2000; Seyd 2016), and employee outcomes is well-established. However, most research has looked only at a few factors at a time. In addition,

research examining the relationships between macro- and micro-level events and changes has been limited. For example, trust research has focused on the organizational or political level. The purpose of this study is to investigate these shortcomings by systemically examining a set of relationships among political trust, job precariousness, supervisor trustworthiness, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) in China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that such relationships are investigated. Furthermore, these relationships are of paramount interest nowadays.

In integrating macro- and micro-level constructs, this study highlights the centrality of high-quality relationships within the organization (e.g., high supervisor trustworthiness and organizational citizenship behaviors), as well as outside the organization (e.g., high political trust). Good management is not just about the organization; it may also be about government trustworthiness (e.g., job precariousness originating from employer policies that negatively impact employees' political trust). Similarly, political trust is not just about government (Levi & Stoker 2000); it may also be about employee outcomes (e.g., low political trust that negatively affects job satisfaction and OCB). In addition to a "universal factor set" internal to the organization (e.g., strong propensity to trust-supervisor trustworthiness, supervisor-trustworthiness-job satisfaction, and supervisor trustworthiness-OCB relationships), the findings in this study suggest that both job precariousness and political trust have "universal" importance in influencing employee outcomes. Furthermore, the results on job precariousness's negative effects on employee outcomes suggest that employers' gains in terms of flexibility and decreased labor costs may be countered by decreased employee performance and quality of life. Moreover, the effects of external factors such as political trust and externally determined job precariousness on employee outcomes highlight the need for firms to focus on the quality of the macro environment. This provides a new rationale for corporate social responsibility, as well as new venues for stakeholder, corporate social responsibility, and inter-organizational research. The similarities and differences in the results according to each nation reaffirm the need to undertake specific studies considering both the emic and the etic.

II. Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Spillover theory (Acs, Audretsch and Lehmann 2013; Frezza et al. 2019) is the main theory underlying this study. However, our research is also based on social exchange theory (Emerson 1976), conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll 1989), and institutional theory (Meyer and Rowan 1977). Spillover theory justifies the duality of political trust/job precariousness-employee outcomes. Social exchange theory posits that spillover effects result from a benefit-cost assessment of the employee in her/his exchanges with both the micro and macro levels. Conservation of resource theory proposes that maintaining existing resources and pursuing new ones may create stress in the employee. Spillover effects may originate from such stress. Institutional theory alludes to the effects of social, economic, and political country dimensions on employee outcomes.

Propensity to Trust and Supervisor Trustworthiness

Propensity to trust positively correlates with cooperative and prosocial actions (Colquitt, Scott, and LePine 2007), honesty and help offerings (Webb and Worchel 1986), and the ability to establish social relationships and build social networks (Burt 2000). Propensity to trust has become

increasingly important because of a general trend to distrust others (Davis 2017) and the increasing need to establish quick, short-term collaborative relationships (Alarcon et al. 2018; Ashleigh, Higgs, and Dulewicz 2012; Klotz et al. 2013; McKnight, Cummings, and Chervany 1998). The latter is particularly salient in multicultural and international business activities (Huff and Kelly 2003). Unfortunately, while propensity to trust is increasingly needed, societal dynamics seem to decrease it.

Drawing from Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995), we define propensity to trust as an individual's general tendency to trust other individuals. It seems to be a function of genetics (Mooradian, Renzl, and Matzler 2006), personality, culture, and experiences (Colquitt, Scott, and LePine 2007; Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman 1995). Thus, it is a general belief, expectancy, and disposition to trust others (Patent and Searle 2019). Although generally considered to be stable, it has a changing component (Van der Werff et al. 2019). It is by and large socially constructed, and thus, it may be changed by experiences (Bourdieu 2020). Put differently, the disposition to trust others seems shaped by the individual's life experiences, such as family, societal, and organizational dynamics.

Employees spend an important part of their lives at the workplace, where the employee-supervisor relationship is perhaps the most important one for most employees (Dirks and Ferrin 2002; Judge and Piccolo 2004). This relationship is key for organizations because it is a crucial component of employees' trust in the organization (Schriesheim, Castro, and Cogliser 1999) and it predicts employees' attitudes and outcomes (Colquitt, Scott, and LePine 2007). While it is acknowledged that the employee-supervisor relationship is a dual relationship, we focus on the employee's perception of her/his supervisor's reliability, integrity, honesty, ability, and care. Following Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995), we consider supervisor trustworthiness as a second-order construct constituted by the supervisor's ability, integrity, and benevolence, as perceived by employees. *Ability* refers to "the supervisor's skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable the supervisor to have influence within some specific domain" (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman 1995, 717). *Integrity* is defined, according to Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995, 719), as "the employee's perception that the supervisor adheres to a set of principles that the employee finds acceptable." *Benevolence* involves "the extent to which the supervisor is believed to do good to the employee" (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman 1995, 718). Supervisors' capability to be trusted is earned over time (Jones & Shah 2016; Van der Werff et al. 2019). Perceptions of supervisors as positive communicators, caring, emphatic, open, inclusive, and active listeners will build trustworthiness (Heyns and Rothmann 2015). Supervisor trustworthiness shows the quality of the employee-supervisor relationship from the employee's perspective. Perceptions of ability, integrity, and benevolence relate positively to desirable employee and organizational outcomes (Colquitt, Scott, and LePine 2007). Given the nature of the propensity to trust, it may be expected that it will carry over and be reflected into trust-related dimensions. For instance, different degrees of dispositional trust are likely to show on the degree to which employees perceive their supervisors as trustworthy. In other words, high trustors are more prone to perceive their supervisor as trustworthy. This logic leads to Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 1. Propensity to trust will positively influence supervisor trustworthiness.

Propensity to Trust and Political Trust

Political trust may be defined as “citizens’ confidence in political institutions” (Turper and Aarts 2017, 417). The construct includes the following dimensions: competence, concern (benevolence), integrity, reliability, consistency, and fairness (Seyd 2016). Consequently, we conceive the propensity to trust-political trust relationship as isomorphic to the propensity to trust-supervisor trustworthiness relationship, although at the macro level. In other words, political trust may be viewed as governments’ and politicians’ ability, integrity, and benevolence. Governments and politicians are expected to demonstrate competence, to make credible commitments, and to help their constituents. Alternatively stated, political trust alludes to the degree of governments’ and politicians’ trustworthiness.

A trustworthy government is key in enhancing values that generate and sustain interpersonal trust and cooperation, creating more cooperative and peaceful collectives (Balliet and Van Lange 2013; Cook, Hardin, and Levi 2005; Gambetta 1988), social harmony, social cohesion, integration, stability, agreement and compromise, health, happiness, prosperity, a long life, and sense of social belonging (Balliet and Van Lange 2013; Hung-Baesecke and Chen 2020; Kwang and Burgers 1997; Levi and Stoker 2000). In contrast, lack of political trust is associated with incompetence, unfairness, inefficiency, alienation, discontent, anxiety, stress, and nonsatisfaction (Fukuyama 1995; Ross 2011; Seyd 2016). Similarly, lack of political trust may be reflected in more divided and more disengaged collectives, less meaningful communication (Hung-Baesecke and Chen 2020), and less cooperative relationships (Kwang and Burgers 1997; Levi and Stoker 2000; Wells and Kipnis 2001), making it more difficult for leaders to succeed (Hetherington 1998).

Similar to Hypothesis 1, it can reasonably be expected that individuals with a higher propensity to trust will be more inclined to perceive their governments and politicians as trustworthy. This rationale and the above discussion lead to Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 2. Propensity to trust will positively influence political trust.

Job Precariousness and Political Trust

Job precariousness refers to “a construct encompassing dimensions such as employment insecurity, individualized bargaining relations between workers and employers, low wages and economic deprivation, limited workplace rights and social protection, and powerlessness to exercise workplace rights” (Benach et al. 2014, 230). Job precariousness stems from laws, regulations, working arrangements, and economic strategies that are jointly produced by powerful agents to drive “late capitalism” (Kallenberg 2018). Although job precariousness has always characterized less developed countries, during the past few decades it has also been exacerbated in developed countries by a globalized and technologically driven economy (Cruz-Del Rosario and Rigg 2019), resulting in an increased number of workers with insecure, casual, and irregular work (Kallenberg 2018; Vives et al. 2015). Of late, it has also included “high status” workers. Job precariousness manifests in low economic and social benefits, lack of legal protections (Benach et al. 2014; Kallenberg 2018), and risks stemming from uncertainties in the labor market and decreased welfare support. Furthermore, the corresponding responsibilities are borne mostly by the individual (Gill and Pratt 2008). Although job precariousness is a global phenomenon, there are important country differences originating from different social welfare protections and labor market institutions (Kallenberg 2018; Lazar and Sanchez 2019). Job precariousness consequences

may include loss of pride and self-worth (Allison 2013) and increased vulnerability, anxiety, anger, negativity, depression, suspicion, and resignation (Benach et al. 2014; Cruz-Del Rosario and Rigg 2019; Dixon 2020; Vives et al. 2015). As a result, job precariousness may be rationalized by employees as resulting from incompetence, lack of concern, and lack of credible commitment by governments and politicians. Consequently, it can be reasonably expected that job precariousness will negatively impinge upon political trust, as stated in Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 3. Job precariousness will negatively affect political trust.

Supervisor Trustworthiness and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction may be defined as “an attitude that individuals have about their jobs. Job satisfaction results from their perception of their jobs and the degree to which there is a good fit between the individual and the organization” (Ivancevich, Olelelms, and Matterson 1997, 86). Job satisfaction may relate to multiple factors of the employee, the supervisor, the workplace, and their relationships (Jackson and Corr 2002; Locke 1969). Job satisfaction antecedents may include a supportive working environment (Rockstuhl et al. 2020), opportunities to exercise personal control and achieve personal development (Emery and Purser 1996), diversity of activities, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, high-quality relations with supervisors and colleagues, social meaningfulness of work, autonomy, knowledge of results, opportunity to keep learning, productivity, and a sense of achievement (Emery and Purser 1996; Faragher, Cass, and Cooper 2005; Hackman 1990; Jackson and Corr 2002; Judge et al. 2001; Locke 1969; Loher et al. 1985; Petty, Mcgee, and Cavender 1984; Rangel-Mora, Junior, and de Souza 2018; Yukl 1989). A crucial component of such a set is the relationship of the employee with the supervisor (Hackman 1990; Locke 1969; Yukl 1989), since the supervisor has the power to directly, or indirectly, influence many of the factors that lead to employee job satisfaction. Thus, employee job satisfaction significantly depends on the perception of the employee about the relationship with the supervisor vis a vis expectations, interpersonal skills, and values (Locke 1969). Consequently, supervisors’ consideration, support, care, credibility, and competence—that is, trustworthy supervisors—may contribute to employees’ job satisfaction, leading to Hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 4. Supervisor trustworthiness will positively influence job satisfaction.

Supervisor Trustworthiness and OCB

OCB refers to an “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ 1988, 4). It has been positively associated with individual and collective performance (Lapierre 2007; Nielsen, Hrivnak, and Shaw 2009). OCB is a product of the relationship between the employee (e.g., empathetic, team oriented, optimistic, conscientious) and the working environment (e.g., an interesting job, employee job involvement and commitment, supportive leadership (Ocampo et al. 2018)). A trustworthy supervisor is a very important component of a working environment that encourages OCB. Research has shown that OCB are enhanced by positive affect and supervisors’ active listening to subordinates (Lloyd et al. 2014), trust in the supervisor (Deluga 2009), supervisor support (Chen et al. 2008), supervisor competence (Artz, Goodall, and Oswald 2014), supervisor’s liking of the employee (Bolino et al.

2006), a high-quality supervisor-subordinate relationship (Lin and Ho 2010), and subordinate-supervisor *guanxi* (Law et al. 2000; Wong, Ngo, and Wong 2003). Thus, different forms of supervisors' integrity, benevolence, and ability as perceived by employees may prompt employees to enact OCB. This logic leads to Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 5. Supervisor trustworthiness will positively influence organizational citizenship behavior.

Job Precariousness and Supervisor Trustworthiness

As suggested above, the potential complexity of job precariousness may relate differently to level of analysis (Kallenberg 2018), time (Erlinghagen 2008), countries (Erlinghagen 2008; De Witte and Näswall 2003; Kallenberg 2018), regions (Vujicic, Jovicic, and Lalic 2015), industries (Vancea and Utzet 2016), and employers and individual employees (Benach et al. 2014; Sverke et al. 2019). These factors may be reflected differently in the economic cycle, the labor market (Kallenberg 2018), particularly the unemployment rate, and in unemployment benefits (Kallenberg 2018; Vancea and Utzet 2016). Job precariousness impinges negatively on both the individual and the working environment. Limited power to exercise workplace rights, employment uncertainty, low wages, and limited social protection are bound to affect the individual self. As a result, job precariousness may be reflected in undesirable workplace behaviors (Benach et al. 2014; Erlinghagen 2008; Shuey, Gordon, and McMullin 2017) and decreased well-being (Bernhard-Oettel et al. 2011; Ferrie 2001). Similarly, a negatively impacted self is less likely to trust others. Consequently, supervisor actions that manifest integrity, benevolence, and competence may, to a lesser degree, be appreciated and perceived by employees as job precariousness increases. This is the rationale for Hypothesis 6.

Hypothesis 6. Job precariousness will negatively affect supervisor trustworthiness.

Job Precariousness and Job Satisfaction

As indicated above, job precariousness may negatively impact employees' psyche, increasing anxiety, sense of vulnerability, anger, negativity (Cruz-Del Rosario and Rigg 2019; Dixon 2020), and self-worth and pride (Allison 2013). In addition, job precariousness has been related to undesirable workplace attitudes and behaviors (Benach et al. 2014; Erlinghagen 2008; Sverke, Hellgren, and Näswall 2002; Thoresen et al. 2003). Similarly, job precariousness has been negatively associated with well-being (Ferrie 2001), health (Van Aerden et al. 2016; Vancea and Utzet 2016), life satisfaction (Helbling and Kanji 2018), organizational commitment (Debus et al. 2012; Guarnaccia et al. 2018), productivity and innovation (De Witte and Näswall 2003), and job satisfaction (De Cuyper, Notelaers, and De Witte 2009; Emanuel et al. 2018; Guarnaccia et al. 2018; Van Aerden et al. 2016; Vujicic, Jovicic, and Lalic 2015). The individual internalizes the consequences of job precariousness. Consequently, job precariousness negatively affects the employee's psyche, attitude towards the job, and perceived fit with the job. This logic leads to Hypothesis 7.

Hypothesis 7. Job precariousness will negatively affect job satisfaction.

Job Precariousness and OCB

Since job satisfaction is an important antecedent of OCB (Organ 2018), the above discussion about job precariousness and job satisfaction will apply to the job precariousness-OCB relationship. Job precariousness positively relates to uncertainty, ambiguity, lack of trust, and employee anxiety and stress (Fukuyama 1995; Ross 2011). Moreover, job precariousness increases interference with work due to heightened withdrawal behavior (Crawford, LePine, and Rich 2010). In addition, the uncertainty created by job precariousness increases the employee's feelings of being controlled by the environment, thereby decreasing their sense of autonomy and control (Wong and Au-Yeung 2019). Furthermore, job precariousness negatively affects relationships with supervisors and co-workers (Organ 2018). Likewise, subordinates may rationalize job precariousness as originating from the organization and may believe that the organization is not reciprocating their efforts, creating a feeling of both decreased individual competence (Boya et al. 2008) and organizational support. As a result, employees may react negatively toward the organization, decreasing their tendency to display OCB. This logic leads to Hypothesis 8.

Hypothesis 8. Job precariousness will negatively affect OCB.

The Moderating Effects of Political Trust and National Context

We consider two moderators: political trust and national context. However, we do formulate hypotheses for political trust but not for national context.

Political Trust as Moderator of the Supervisor Trustworthiness-Job Satisfaction and Supervisor Trustworthiness-OCB Relationships

Despite varied discussions, mostly at the macro level, research about antecedents and consequences of political trust at the micro level is scarce. This is even more the case for studies of the relationships between political trust and organizational dynamics. Despite the scarcity of research on this topic, it is reasonable to expect political trust to impact employees' selves and to anticipate that such effects may spill over to the organization. For example, the decline in political trust in Western countries has generated increased fragmentation, disengagement, and alienation and decreased belief in life events and experiences (Davis 2017, Li 2016; Svendsen, Svendsen, and Graeff 2012). Similarly, diminished social certainty may relate to decreased optimism, personal efficacy, and life satisfaction (Bauer 2018), as well as to increased anxiety and stress about the future (Carleton 2016; Gu et al. 2020). The self that is impacted by macro-level events is the same self that performs in the workplace. Since these phenomena have been going on for decades and have recently been exacerbated (Citrin and Stoker 2018; Levi and Stoker 2000), we assume that such phenomena have been internalized in employees' psyche and that they may spill over to organizational relationships and performance. Consequently, we view political trust as a resource that may moderate the relationships between supervisor trustworthiness and both OCB and job satisfaction. Thus, high political trust will enhance healthy, peaceful, high-quality, and satisfying relationships in the workplace.

The theoretical basis of such expectations draws from Frezza et al. (2019), who proposed a combination of identity process theory and theories of practice. In situations in which social structures and individual actions are involved, combining identity process theory and theories of practice may improve the understanding of how macro-level political trust spills over to the

individual level, enhancing or constraining employee outcomes such as OCB and job satisfaction. The rationale is that, given individuals' desire for self-continuity and self-esteem, they will behave in consistent ways between the macro level (e.g., their perceptions about political trust) and the micro level (e.g., thinking others are [un]trustworthy as reflected in their OCB and their level of satisfaction with their jobs). Thus, it is reasonable to expect a positive moderating effect of political trust on the relationships of supervisor trustworthiness-OCB and supervisor trustworthiness-job satisfaction. This leads to Hypotheses 9 and 10.

Hypothesis 9. Political trust positively moderates the supervisor trustworthiness-job satisfaction relationship.

Hypothesis 10. Political trust positively moderates the supervisor trustworthiness-OCB relationship.

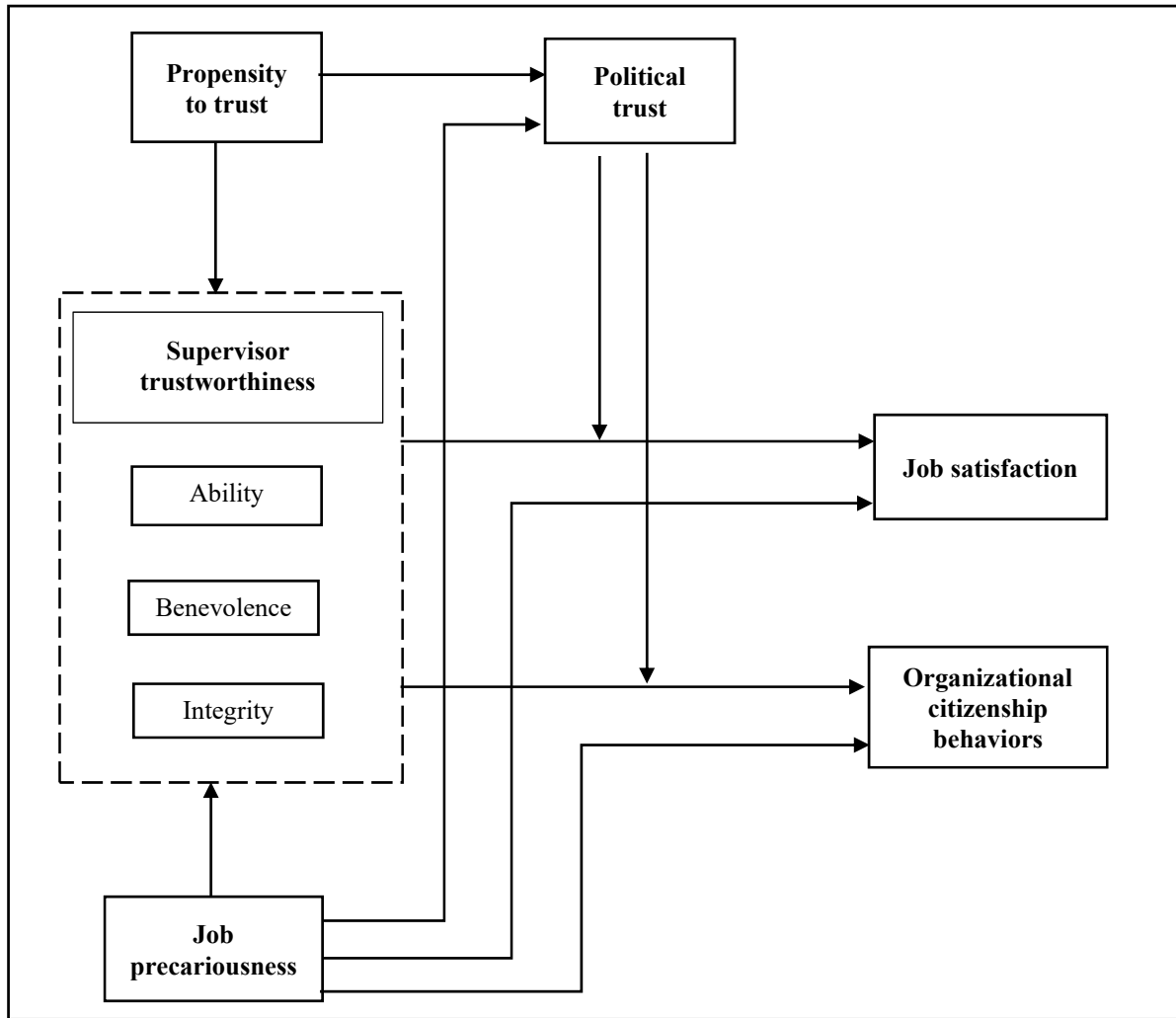
The Moderating Effect of National Context

Based on the model relationships (Figure 1), it is expected that they will be influenced by national context. Country differences may be framed in terms of differences in socioeconomic conditions and culture. Regarding socioeconomic conditions, for instance, job precariousness may relate to strength of the social security system. Similarly, job satisfaction facets such as pay, job security, and opportunities for advancement may be positively associated with the strength of the national economy. Concerning the impact of national culture, the relevance of the model components under study may vary across national cultures because of different expectations and behaviors stemming from differences in meanings and values. Culture involves a shared set of values, assumptions, norms, and accepted behaviors (Hofstede 1991; House et al. 2004). For instance, it may be assumed that the collectivistic nature of Eastern societies will be positively reflected, for example, in constructs such as the propensity to trust and OCB.

This study focuses on an analysis of data from China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States. This set of countries exemplifies some of the variations of global capitalism (Wright et al. 2021). These countries have significant socioeconomic and cultural differences. For example, purchasing power parity (2017 US dollars) for China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States was \$16,842, \$52,596, \$18,656, and \$59,928, respectively (Worldometer 2020). Germany and the United States, as well as China and Mexico, are comparable in terms of wealth. However, the United States and Germany differ substantially in their social security systems (Pudelko 2006). Germany has a strong social security system, whereas that of the United States, due to minimal government intervention, depends more on the state of the economy. In terms of culture, the United States has been characterized as high in individualism and low in both power distance and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede 1991; House et al. 2004; Huff and Kelly 2003). Germany has high levels of individualism, performance orientation, and uncertainty avoidance and low power distance and humane orientation (Brodbeck, Frese, and Javidan 2002; Taras et al. 2012). Both the United States and Germany are high in assertiveness, while China is low in that measure (House et al. 2004). China and Mexico are high in in-group collectivism and power distance and low in gender egalitarianism (House et al. 2004).

It is reasonable to expect that, due to such economic and cultural differences, the model relationships in this study would be moderated by national context. However, given the focus of the model, no hypotheses on national differences are stated. Figure 1 shows the conceptual model.

Figure 1. Conceptual Model.



III. Method

Based on the literature review, two of the authors formulated the first draft of the questionnaire. The specifics of the questionnaire were discussed in groups of at least three authors, always including at least one author who had originally come from one of the study countries. Seeking to be sensitive to emic differences between countries, we discussed the appropriateness of items, as well as the wording and meaning of the items. After some changes stemming from those discussions, we formulated the final version of the questionnaire for each country. Native speakers translated the questionnaire to Chinese, Spanish, and German. A different set of native speakers back-translated the questionnaire to English. For the Chinese and Mexican versions of the questionnaire, at least two authors discussed each of the translations and back translations. The German translation was carried out by an MBA student, and the back translation was undertaken by one of the authors who is a native of Germany. The items were randomly distributed. The criteria for eligible participants of the survey were as follows: (a) work experience, and (b) under the supervision of a supervisor or a manager. Participants' anonymity and confidentiality were

assured. We used two randomly distributed check questions (e.g., “Respond with ‘strongly agree’ to this item”). In cleaning the data, we eliminated all cases in which one of those two check questions was incorrectly answered, as well as incomplete cases.

Data Collection

Data Collection: China

The survey was administered in China by a professional market research agency. The Chinese version of the survey was uploaded onto the online survey website “Wen Juan Xing” (wjx.cn), which generated a QR code. The agency posted an invitation for voluntary participation and the QR code of the survey in its client group on WeChat, a Chinese version of Twitter or Facebook. Each member of the client group (a business) then distributed the invitation and QR code of the survey to its employees or to friends on WeChat. A total of 205 useful response sets was obtained.

Data Collection: Germany

The survey for the German sample was administered using Mechanical Turk (MTurk), a reliable online crowdsourcing survey tool. MTurk respondents may be considered a generalization of a country’s population (Buhrmester, Kwang, and Gosling 2011). The worker reputation mechanism implemented by the site (Peer, Vosgerau, and Acquisti 2014) may be reflected in data quality. A Human Intelligence Task (HIT) was posted on the German MTurk platform, asking working adults to complete the online survey. Respondents received financial compensation for their participation. A total of 183 useful response sets was obtained.

Data Collection: Mexico

Respondents worked for member organizations of the business chamber in a medium-size city in northeast Mexico. MBA and undergraduate business students, who received some credit as course work, collected data. Applications were developed for the questionnaire, and links were distributed electronically. Other students obtained data via e-mail. Data were obtained from a large Mexican metropolitan city and a medium-size city, both located in northeast Mexico. A total of 499 useful response sets was obtained.

Data Collection: United States

Data were gathered using the services of a commercial research firm. The firm maintains a pool of panelists with the primary goal of reaching as broad and representative an audience as possible. The firm offers individuals the option to either receive compensation for their time or donate their compensation to a local school or nonprofit of their choice. To ensure integrity of the collected data and to maintain good quality of responses, the firm uses a technology called fingerprinting, which combines IP address, device type, screen size, and cookies to ensure that only unique panelists respond to the survey. Further, business students in the classes of the principal investigator completed the survey and received partial course credit. A total of 559 response sets was obtained.

Measures

Seeking structural equivalence (Van de Vijver and Poortinga 2002), the researchers discussed the translations and back translations, agreeing to item meanings across countries. The same set of high loading items was selected for the four countries.

Propensity to trust. Based on work by Lucassen & Schraagen (2012), five of eight items to measure propensity to trust were used, based on the NEO-PI-R personality test. The Likert-type response options ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. An example item is, “I tend to assume the best of others.” Cronbach’s alpha was 0.85, 0.77, 0.82, and 0.87 for China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States, respectively.

Supervisor trustworthiness is a second-order construct constituted by the first-order constructs ability, integrity, and benevolence (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman 1995).

Ability. The employee’s perceived ability of the supervisor is reflected in the supervisor’s ability to exert influence on both the employee and organizational outcomes. A six-item measure of ability drawn from Mayer and Davis (1999) was used. Likert-type response options ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. An example item is, “I feel very confident about my supervisor’s skills.” Cronbach’s alpha was 0.92, 0.87, 0.93, and 0.92 for China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States, respectively.

Integrity. Integrity comprises a sense of justice, as well as congruence between the supervisor’s words and actions. Five items from the Mayer and Davis (1999) six-item instrument were used to measure integrity. Likert-type response options ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. An example item to measure integrity is, “Sound principles seems to guide my supervisor’s behavior.” Cronbach’s alpha was 0.92, 0.84, 0.89, and 0.90 for China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States, respectively.

Benevolence. A benevolent supervisor is expected to align her/his interests with those of other organizational members, with the intention to do good for the employee and the organization. Mayer and Davis’s (1999) five-item scale was used to measure benevolence. Likert-type response options ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. An example item measuring benevolence is, “My supervisor will go out of her/his way to help me.” Cronbach’s alpha was 0.87, 0.86, 0.87, and 0.91 for China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States, respectively.

OCB. The OCB construct included the following dimensions: altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness. Ten items from the 15-item scale by Podsakoff et al. (1990) were used to measure OCB. Likert-type response options ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. An example item is, “I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.” Cronbach’s alpha was 0.87, 0.83, 0.87, and 0.85 for China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States, respectively.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was assessed with the following item: “Taking everything into consideration, I feel satisfied about my job” (Nagy 2002; Wanous, Reichers, and Hurdy 1997). This item may implicitly include facets such as decision making about work activities and work schedule; employee relations with supervisor, employer, and colleagues; degree of work pressure; and pay (Lepold et al. 2018; Tsui, Egan, and O’Reilly 1992; Zhang et al. 2019). A single-item measure for job satisfaction is satisfactory because it is easily understood by managers and it has high validity in terms of psychometric properties (Nagy 2002; Wanous, Reichers, and Hurdy 1997). Likert-type response options ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

Job precariousness. An eight-item scale by Vives et al. (2015) was adapted (seven items) to measure job precariousness. The scale comprises the following dimensions: job temporariness,

disempowerment, vulnerability, and wages. An example item is “My job contract is a temporary job contract.” Likert-type response options ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Cronbach’s alpha was 0.73, 0.67, 0.63, and 0.82 for China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States, respectively. Under a relaxed version of the reliability criteria, a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.6 is acceptable (Kock and Lynn 2012).

Political trust. The construct included the following dimensions: competence, concern (benevolence), integrity, reliability, consistency, and fairness (Seyd 2016). Political trust may be viewed as governments’ and politicians’ ability, integrity (You 2012), and benevolence. Nine of the 12 items in Seyd’s (2016) scale for measuring political trust were used. The selected set of items maintained the content validity of the construct. Example items measuring political trust are, “In the main, when things go wrong politicians admit their mistakes” (integrity); “Generally speaking, politicians are competent” (ability); and “Politicians usually try to help their constituents” (benevolence). Likert-type response options ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Cronbach’s alpha was 0.84, 0.86, 0.80, and 0.81 for China, Germany, Mexico, and the United States, respectively.

Given the focus of the study, we did not formulate explicit hypotheses regarding national context. Nonetheless, we use it in our analysis as well as in our discussion.

Control Variables

The studied relationships may be influenced by age, gender, race, marital status, educational level, and industry (Bovens and Wille 2008; Drabe, Hauff, and Richter 2015; Law et al. 2000; Locke 1969; Singe and Croucher 2003; Van Aerden et al. 2016; Wroe 2014). These factors were included as control variables in all relationships. However, for China, it was deemed appropriate not to include race. Similarly, for Germany, country of birth was substituted for race. For Germany, educational level options corresponded to the German educational system.

Common Method Variance

Since the surveys consisted of self-reported measures, the following steps were taken to minimize common method variance: (a) use of items from scales with proven psychometric properties in prior studies, (b) randomization of the order of the items from the scales, (c) use of two randomly distributed check questions (e.g., “Respond with ‘strongly disagree’ to this item”), (d) inclusion of reversed-scored items, (e) limited length of the survey to avoid fatigue and boredom, and (f) use of Harman’s one-factor test (Podsakoff and Organ 1986). In the datasets for the four countries, one factor explained less than 30% of the variance, suggesting that common method variance was not an important problem in this study.

All but two of the 188 items used in the analysis (47 items in four countries) had loadings higher than 0.50 (Hair et al. 2009); the exceptions had loadings of 0.48 and 0.49. Cronbach’s alpha for the constructs for the four samples were above the .70 threshold (Nunnally 1978), with the exception of job precariousness for Germany (0.67) and Mexico (0.63). All variance inflation factor indicators were below 2.0 (Kock and Lynn 2012), indicating no multicollinearity problems.

Model Fit

Four measures were considered to assess the model fit: (a) Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR), average R^2 (ARS), average path coefficient (APC), and Tenenhaus's goodness of fit (TGoF). For a good model fit, SPR should be 1; both ARS and APC are acceptable if p values are $< .05$, and TGoF is small if ≥ 0.1 , medium if ≥ 0.25 , and large if ≥ 0.36 (Kock 2018). For China's sample, APC, ARS, SPR, and TGoF were 0.332 ($p = .001$), 0.308 ($p < .001$), 1.000, and 0.555, respectively. For Germany's sample, APC, ARS, SPR, and TGoF were 0.306 ($p = .001$), 0.271 ($p < .001$), 1.000, and 0.521, respectively. For Mexico's sample, APC, ARS, SPR, and TGoF were 0.253 ($p = .001$), 0.218 ($p < .001$), 1.000, and 0.466, respectively. For the USA sample, APC, ARS, SPR, and TGoF were 0.319 ($p = .001$), 0.317 ($p < .001$), 1.000, and 0.563, respectively. The model had acceptable fit indicators for the four countries.

Model fit results and the reliability measures discussed above, together with Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff et al. 1990), provided strong evidence that common method variance was not a major concern in this study.

IV. Results

Demographics of the Sample

China Sample

Age was distributed as follows: 21% from 21 to 29 years, 40% from 30 to 39 years, 33% from 40 to 49 years, and 6% from 50 to 59 years. Regarding gender, 35% of the respondents were female. Marital status was as follows: 71% were married, and 26% had never married. Concerning educational level, 17% had high school or less, 51% had an associate degree, and 32% had a college degree or higher. About 19% worked in accounting and consulting; 10% worked in education, professional, and scientific services; 9% worked in government and public administration services; and 9% worked in banking and financial services.

Germany Sample

Age was distributed as follows: 8% from 18 to 20 years, 35% from 21 to 29 years, 42% from 30 to 39 years, 12% from 40 to 49 years, 2% from 50 to 59 years, and 1% 60 years or older. Regarding gender, 22% were female. Marital status was as follows: 32% were married, 53% had never married, 11% reported informal marriage/cohabitation, and 3% were divorced. Concerning educational level, 23% had high school or less, 14% had completed apprenticeships, and 63% had college degrees or higher. About 28% worked in education, professional, and scientific services; 22% worked in entertainment and recreation; 18% worked in banking and financial services; and 14% worked in construction and real estate.

Mexico Sample

Age was distributed as follows: 10% from 18 to 20 years, 35% from 21 to 29 years, 28% from 30 to 39 years, 18% from 40 to 49 years, 7% from 50 to 59 years, and 2% 60 years or older. Regarding gender, 43% were female. With respect to race, 45% were White, 17% from multiple races, and 35% from another race. Marital status was as follows: 41% were married, and 53% had never married. Concerning educational level, 13% had high school or less, 20% had some college but no

degree or an associate degree, and 67% had a college degree or higher. About 19% worked in manufacturing, mining, and quarrying; 10% worked in education, professional, and scientific services; 11% worked in accounting and consulting; and 14% worked in retail trade or wholesale trade.

United States Sample

Age was distributed as follows: 7% from 18 to 20 years, 22% from 21 to 29 years, 27% from 30 to 39 years, 19% from 40 to 49 years, 16% from 50 to 59 years, and 9% 60 years or older. Regarding gender, 52% were female. With respect to race, 74% were White, 10% were African American, 6% were Asian, and the remainder were from other races. Marital status was as follows: 49% were married, 41% had never married, 7% were divorced, and 2% were widowed. Concerning educational level, 16% had high school or less, 32% had some college but no degree or an associate degree, and 52% had a college degree or higher. About 17% worked in education, professional, and scientific services; 10% worked in banking and financial services; 13% worked in health care and pharmaceutical services; and the remainder worked in a variety of other industries.

Table 1. Construct means and correlations.

		Mean	S.D.	ProTrust	SupTrustw	JobSat	OCB	JobPreca
ProTrust	China	5.63 ^a	0.86					
	Germany	4.50 ^b	1.02					
	Mexico	4.90 ^c	1.07					
	USA	5.05 ^d	1.14					
SupTrustw	China	4.76 ^a	1.19	0.500**				
	Germany	4.69 ^a	1.02	0.390**				
	Mexico	5.10 ^{1b}	1.20	0.483**				
	USA	5.26 ^b	1.20	0.545**				
JobSat	China	5.25 ^a	1.24	0.438**	0.597**			
	Germany	5.08 ^a	1.37	0.314**	0.645**			
	Mexico	5.73 ^b	1.30	0.471**	0.559**			
	USA	5.58 ^b	1.45	0.474**	0.663**			
OCB	China	5.73 ^b	0.70	0.769**	0.458**	0.454**		
	Germany	5.47 ^a	0.75	0.362**	0.373**	0.366**		
	Mexico	5.80 ^b	0.88	0.527**	0.478**	0.544**		
	USA	5.81 ^b	0.80	0.516**	0.523**	0.459**		
JobPreca	China	3.88 ^a	1.03	0.046	-0.071	-0.045	0.058	
	Germany	3.24 ^b	1.06	-0.203**	-0.328**	-0.487**	-0.254**	
	Mexico	3.36 ^{b c}	1.03	-0.065	-0.229**	-0.186**	-0.111*	
	USA	3.50 ^c	1.34	-0.025	-0.190**	-0.270**	-0.123**	
PolTrust	China	4.18 ^a	0.99	0.310**	0.834**	0.473**	0.222**	-0.338**
	Germany	3.40 ^b	0.94	0.373**	0.223**	0.126	-0.034	-0.163*
	Mexico	2.83 ^c	1.10	0.032	0.017	-0.102*	0.323**	0.046
	USA	3.14 ^d	0.98	0.267**	0.0186**	0.171**	-0.131**	0.135**

Notes: ProTrust= Propensity to trust; SupTrustw= Supervisor trustworthiness; JobSat= Job satisfaction; OCB= organizational citizenship behaviors; JobPreca= Job precariousness; PolTrust= Political trust. Means with different superscript are statistically different (p<0.05).

China N= 205; Germany, N=183; Mexico, N=499; United States, N= 559. ** p<=0.01, *p<=0.05

Model Results

Before undertaking the path analyses, scatterplot analyses of the constructs indicated no normality, linearity, or homoscedasticity problems. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients for the studied variables. Although control variables are rarely significant, beta coefficients were adjusted by all control variables to maintain consistency in the analyses.

Results of Path Analysis

Table 2 reports the hypotheses' results.

China

As Table 2 shows, propensity to trust was positively associated with supervisor trustworthiness ($\beta = 0.517, p < .001$) and political trust ($\beta = 0.319, p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported. Job precariousness was negatively associated with political trust ($\beta = -0.378, p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported. Supervisor trustworthiness was positively associated with job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.594, p < .001$) and OCB ($\beta = 0.465, p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 4 and 5 were supported. Job precariousness was not associated with supervisor trustworthiness, job satisfaction, or OCB. Thus, Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8 were not supported.

There were no moderating effects of political trust on the relationship between supervisor trustworthiness and job satisfaction, or in the relationship between supervisor trustworthiness and OCB. Thus, Hypotheses 9 and 10 were not supported.

Germany

As Table 2 shows, propensity to trust was positively associated with supervisor trustworthiness ($\beta = 0.390, p < .001$) and political trust ($\beta = 0.373, p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported. Job precariousness was negatively associated with political trust ($\beta = -0.163, p < 0.05$), supporting Hypothesis 3. Supervisor trustworthiness was positively associated with job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.645, p < .001$) and OCB ($\beta = 0.373, p < .001$). These results supported Hypotheses 4 and 5. Job precariousness was negatively associated with supervisor trustworthiness ($\beta = -0.328, p < .001$), job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.487, p < .001$), and OCB ($\beta = -0.254, p < 0.01$). Thus, Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8 were supported.

There were no moderating effects of political trust on the relationships between supervisor trustworthiness and job satisfaction, or in the relationship between supervisor trustworthiness and OCB. Thus, Hypotheses 9 and 10 were not supported.

Mexico

As Table 2 shows, propensity to trust was positively associated with supervisor trustworthiness ($\beta = 0.483, p < .001$) but not with political trust ($\beta = 0.032, n.s.$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported, but Hypothesis 2 was not supported. The relationship between job precariousness and political trust was not significant ($\beta = 0.046, n.s.$); thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Supervisor trustworthiness was positively associated with job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.559, p < .001$) and OCB ($\beta = 0.478, p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 4 and 5 were supported. Job precariousness was negatively associated with supervisor trustworthiness ($\beta = -0.229, p <$

Table 2. Hypotheses and results.

Hypotheses	China	Germany	Mexico	United States
H1: Propensity to trust is positively associated to supervisor trustworthiness	$\beta = .517^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.277$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.256$	$\beta = .390^b$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.152$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.147$	$\beta = .483^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.234$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.232$	$\beta = .545^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.296$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.295$
H2: Propensity to trust is positively associated to political trust	$\beta = .319^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.124$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.097$	$\beta = .373^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.139$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.134$	$\beta = .032^b$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.001$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.001$	$\beta = .267^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.071$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.070$
H3: Job precariousness is negatively associated to political trust	$\beta = -.378^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.161$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.135$	$\beta = -.163^a$, $p < 0.05$ $R^2 = 0.026$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.021$	$\beta = .046^b$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.002$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.000$	$\beta = .135^c$, $p < 0.05$ $R^2 = 0.018$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.017$
H4: Supervisor trustworthiness is positively associated to job satisfaction	$\beta = .594^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.386$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.367$	$\beta = .645^b$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.416$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.413$	$\beta = .559^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.312$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.311$	$\beta = .663^b$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.440$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.439$
H5: Supervisor trustworthiness is positively associated to OCB	$\beta = .465^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.245$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.222$	$\beta = .373^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.139$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.134$	$\beta = .478^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.229$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.227$	$\beta = .523^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.274$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.273$
H6: Job precariousness is negatively associated to supervisor trustworthiness	$\beta = -.098^a$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.031$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.002$	$\beta = -.328^b$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.108$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.103$	$\beta = -.229^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.060$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.047$	$\beta = -.190^a$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.036$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.035$
H7: Job precariousness is negatively associated to job satisfaction	$\beta = -.057^a$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.044$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.015$	$\beta = -.487^b$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.237$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.233$	$\beta = -.186^c$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.034$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.032$	$\beta = -.270^c$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.073$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.071$
H8: Job precariousness is negatively associated to OCB	$\beta = .072^a$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.038$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.009$	$\beta = -.254^b$, $p < 0.01$ $R^2 = 0.064$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.059$	$\beta = -.111^b$, $p < 0.05$ $R^2 = 0.012$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.010$	$\beta = -.123^b$, $p < 0.01$ $R^2 = 0.015$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.013$
H9: Political trust moderates the relationship supervisor trustworthiness-job satisfaction	$\beta = .015$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.318$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.308$	$\beta = -.016$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.416$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.407$	$\beta = .145$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.345$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.341$	$\beta = -.034$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.443$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.440$
H10: Political trust moderates the relationship supervisor trustworthiness-OCB	$\beta = .062$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.592$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.587$	$\beta = .099$, n.s. $R^2 = 0.163$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.149$	$\beta = .241$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.393$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.389$	$\beta = .250$, $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.384$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.380$

Notes: China N=205; Germany N=183; Mexico N =499; United States N=559. Within rows, different superscripts indicate statistical differences ($p < 0.05$).

.001), job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.186, p < .001$), and OCB ($\beta = -0.111, p < .05$). Thus, Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8 were supported.

Political trust moderated the relationships between supervisor trustworthiness and job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.145, p < .001$), and the relationship between supervisor trustworthiness and organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = 0.241, p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 9 and 10 were supported.

United States

As Table 2 shows, propensity to trust was positively associated with supervisor trustworthiness ($\beta = 0.545, p < .001$) and political trust ($\beta = 0.267, p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported. Contrary to expectations, job precariousness was positively associated with political trust ($\beta = 0.135, p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Supervisor trustworthiness was positively associated with job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.663, p < .001$) and OCB ($\beta = 0.523, p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 4 and 5 were supported. Job precariousness was negatively associated with supervisor trustworthiness ($\beta = -0.190, p < .001$), job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.270, p < .001$), and OCB ($\beta = -0.123, p < .01$). Thus, Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8 were supported.

Political trust did not moderate the relationship between supervisor trustworthiness and job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.034, n.s.$). Thus, Hypothesis 9 was not supported. Nonetheless, there was a moderating effect of political trust on the relationship between supervisor trustworthiness and OCB ($\beta = 0.250, p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 10 was supported.

Country Differences in Path Coefficients

Regarding the relationship between propensity to trust and supervisor trustworthiness, Germany's path coefficient ($\beta = 0.390$) was smaller ($p < 0.05$) than those of China ($\beta = 0.517$) and the United States ($\beta = 0.545$), but similar to that of Mexico ($\beta = 0.483$).

Regarding the relationship between propensity to trust and political trust, Mexico's path coefficient ($\beta = 0.032, n.s.$) was smaller ($p < .001$) than those of China ($\beta = 0.319$), Germany ($\beta = 0.373$), and the United States ($\beta = 0.267$). The path coefficients for China, Germany, and the United States were similar.

Regarding the relationship between job precariousness and political trust, China's ($\beta = -0.378$) and Germany's ($\beta = -0.163$) path coefficients were larger ($p < 0.05$) than those of Mexico ($\beta = 0.046, n.s.$) and the United States ($\beta = 0.135$). The China and Germany path coefficients had the expected sign, whereas that of the United States did not.

Regarding the relationship between supervisor trustworthiness and job satisfaction, there were no path coefficient differences between Germany ($\beta = 0.645$) and the United States ($\beta = 0.663$). China's ($\beta = 0.594$) and Mexico's ($\beta = 0.559$) path coefficients were smaller than those of Germany and the United States ($p < .05$).

Regarding the relationship between supervisor trustworthiness and OCB, there were no differences ($p < 0.05$) in path coefficients between China ($\beta = 0.465$), Germany ($\beta = 0.373$), Mexico ($\beta = 0.478$), and the United States ($\beta = 0.523$).

Regarding the relationship between job precariousness and supervisor trustworthiness, China's path coefficient ($\beta = -0.098$) was smaller ($p < .05$) than that of Germany ($\beta = -0.328$) and Mexico ($\beta = -0.229$). All other contrasts were not significant.

Regarding the relationship between job precariousness and job satisfaction, China's path coefficient ($\beta = -0.057$) was smaller ($p < 0.05$) than those of Germany ($\beta = -0.487$) and the

United States ($\beta = -0.270$). Germany's path coefficient was larger ($p < 0.05$) than those of Mexico ($\beta = -0.186$) and the United States. China's path coefficient was similar to that of Mexico. Mexico's path coefficient was similar to that of the United States.

Regarding the relationship between job precariousness and OCB, China's path coefficient ($\beta = 0.072$, n.s.) was smaller than that of Germany ($\beta = -0.254$, $p < .01$) and Mexico ($\beta = -0.111$, $p < .05$), and marginally smaller than that of the United States ($\beta = -0.123$, $p < .058$). There were no path coefficient differences between Germany, Mexico, and the United States.

In most cases, national context moderates the model's relationships.

V. Discussion

Theoretical Contributions

The main purpose of this research was to explore whether there were spill-over effects from changes in the external environment, in particular job precariousness and political trust, on supervisor trustworthiness, OCB, and job satisfaction. This research makes several theoretical contributions.

First, this study bridges the individual, the organization, and the national context. The findings suggest the importance of high-quality relationships inside the organization (e.g., supervisor trustworthiness, OCB) and outside the organization (e.g., reflected in political trust). The results suggest the need for managers to be cognizant of the implications of attunement, or lack thereof, between internal and external organizational components. The individual and organizational nexus in this study involved the relationships among employees' propensity to trust, supervisor trustworthiness, job satisfaction, and OCB. In turn, this relationship set relates to job precariousness, which entails components pertaining to the organization (e.g., employer's workforce policy), as well as external to it (e.g., changes in industry structure, nation/state policies, labor markets). Furthermore, these relationships relate to political trust, which is usually conceived as external to the organization. Paraphrasing Levi and Stoker (2000), political trust is not just about government; it may also be about organizational dynamics (e.g., low political trust negatively influencing job satisfaction and OCB). Similarly, good management is not just about the organization; it may also be about perceptions of government trustworthiness (e.g., job precariousness stemming from employer policies that negatively impact employees' political trust).

Second, the strong positive relationships between propensity to trust and supervisor trustworthiness, as well as those between supervisor trustworthiness and both job satisfaction and OCB, in the four countries seem to constitute a key "universal factor set" that is necessary for organizational success. These relationships seem to hold, regardless of cultural and institutional differences among countries. This relationship set has been widely studied (Rockstuhl et al. 2020). However, the effects of job precariousness and political trust on such relationships is novel. In addition to this "universal factor set" internal to the organization, the findings in this study suggest that both job precariousness and political trust are of "universal" importance for employee outcomes.

Third, the negative relationships of job precariousness with supervisor trustworthiness, job satisfaction, OCB, and political trust suggest that employers' gains in terms of flexibility and decreased labor costs may be partially countered by employees' diminished performance

and quality of life. These findings call attention to spillover effects from the external environment to the organization. Thus, employers may be unfairly paying costs, or receiving benefits, stemming from the external environment.

Fourth, political trust may positively moderate crucial organizational relationships, such as those between supervisor trustworthiness and both job satisfaction and OCB. These findings, together with those pertaining to job precariousness, suggest that employers should be further concerned, and contribute to, a positive society-wide environment. The effects of factors external to the organization, such as political trust and externally determined job precariousness on employee outcomes, suggest a new rationale and a new venue for corporate social responsibility, stakeholder interests, and interorganizational research.

Fifth, differences in findings across countries reaffirm the differential contributions of particular cultural and economic factors. For example, Germany's results for job precariousness relationships studied were the strongest and most in line with theoretical expectations. Somewhat paradoxically, this is the country with the strongest social support system. On the other hand, most of China's results pertaining to these relationships were not significant. Similarly, Mexico's political trust findings seem a special case—no effects on political trust but moderating effects of political trust, which may relate to the specific socioeconomic dynamics of the country. Specific results may reflect a national context continuum of asymmetric effects between factors internal to the organization and those external to it. More research is warranted to understand specific relationships between the emic and the etic.

Sixth, the relationships that were studied in this research involve fields such as management science, political science, sociology, and economics. Although further specific research is needed to understand the linkages among the individual, organizational, and national levels, the findings in this study contribute to calls for expanding multilevel research and transdisciplinary studies (Cundill, Roux, and Parker 2015; Laasch et al. 2020; Wiek 2007). Furthermore, the linkages between the macro and micro levels, particularly the effects of political trust upon the organization, are bound to increase in importance as state capitalism is increasingly mediating international business relations.

Managerial Implications

These results reaffirm for managers the importance of achieving positive relationships among propensity to trust, supervisor trustworthiness, OCB, and job satisfaction. These results are important by themselves; however, they also relate positively to other desirable employee and organizational outcomes (e.g., job performance, commitment, motivation, loyalty, low absenteeism, and turnover).

Since job precariousness involves both organizational components and the external environment, managers should be aware of and control for organizational conditions that increase job precariousness. Although the effects of the external environment on job precariousness and political trust are generally out of the control of organizational managers, managers and business owners may seek to improve the meso- and macro-level milieux via their business associations to both diminish the negative effects of job precariousness and increase political trust.

Moderating effects point out the potential synergies of political trust with organizational factors in enhancing desirable employee and organizational outcomes. Furthermore, the

multiplicity of interactions in the narrow set of organizational components that were studied highlights the centrality of entertaining a systemic perspective of the organization (e.g., lack of job satisfaction negatively impinging on propensity to trust, supervisor trustworthiness, OCB).

Managers who operate at the international level must be cognizant of, understand, and use countries' mean levels of the studied constructs, as well as path coefficient differences. Knowing relative relationship effects may help increase the effectiveness of targeted workplace interventions.

VI. Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations. China's and Germany's sample size may have limited the ability to detect relationships (Aguinis and Gutfredson 2010). Since the surveys used self-reported measures, common method variance may have affected the results. However, ex-ante and ex-post measures, as discussed in the methodology section, suggest that common method variance was not an important concern in this study. Cronbach's alphas for job precariousness in Germany and Mexico were below the usually accepted 0.7 threshold value. However, psychometric properties other than Cronbach's alpha seem reasonable. Future studies could include nested samples to reflect job precariousness differences among various types of respondents.

This study used a single item to measure job satisfaction: "Taking everything into consideration, I feel satisfied about my job." Several researchers have found that a single-item job satisfaction measure such as this concrete measure is reliable (Nagy 2002; Wanous, Reichers, and Hurdy 1997). However, a more comprehensive set of items tapping specific job satisfaction facets could help to establish specific relationships with the facets of other constructs. Job precariousness involves institutional/systemic elements (e.g., legal framework, state of the economy), as well as firm-level elements (e.g., firm policies complying at just a minimum level with the law and firms going beyond legal/regulatory requirements in providing employees benefits and safeguards). It is necessary to disentangle these effects and determine the specifics of their interactions.

Most research has examined linear relationships. Research has shown that the interplays between job precariousness' hindrance and challenge effects may lead to no or weak effects and to a nonlinear response (Lam et al. 2015). Future studies could examine linear and nonlinear functional relationships. Similarly, scarcity of research concerning the potential moderating effects of political trust spilling over on employee outcomes prompted the somewhat speculative hypotheses in this regard in this study. Studies that specify the mechanisms linking the macro and micro levels are required. As suggested by the results, the model relationships may include feedback effects that were not included in this study. A more complex dynamic model would be more realistic. For instance, future studies could look at how job precariousness and political trust may influence propensity to trust.

This study focused on four countries from very different parts of the world, with clear economic and cultural similarities and differences. Such similarities and differences could be studied in further detail and in more national contexts. Although demanding in terms of resources required to obtain samples with country representativeness, such samples would give more confidence and validity to cross-national studies. This seems to be particularly the case for studying spillover effects across levels for job precariousness and political trust.

Notwithstanding the above limitations, this research makes important contributions by bridging key internal and external factors to the organization. This study should expand the debate and steer specific research on the linkages between job precariousness and political trust *vis a vis* employee and organizational outcomes.

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