- 19 Eby LT, Mitchell ME, Gray CJ, et al. Gambling-related problems across life domains: an exploratory study of non-treatment-seeking weekly gamblers. Community Work Fam 2016;19:604–20.
- 20 Browne M, Langham E, Rawat W, et al. Assessing gambling-related harm in Victoria A public health perspective. Victorian Responsible Gambling Foundation, Melbourne, 2016.
- 21 Volberg RA, Abbott MW, Rönnberg S, Munck IME. Prevalence and risks of pathological gambling in Sweden. Acta Psychiatr Scand 2008;104:250–6.
- 22 Sharman S, Butler K, Roberts A. Psychosocial risk factors in disordered gambling: a descriptive systematic overview of vulnerable populations. *Addict Behav* 2019;99: 106071.
- 23 Hahmann T, Hamilton-Wright S, Ziegler C, Matheson FI. Problem gambling within the context of poverty: a scoping review. Int Gambl Stud 2020;21:183–219.
- 24 Barnes GM, Welte JW, Tidwell MCO, Hoffman JH. Effects of neighborhood disadvantage on problem gambling and alcohol abuse. J Behav AddictAddict 2013;2:82–9.
- 25 Salonen A, Latvala T, Castrén S, et al. Gambling Harms Survey 2016. Gambling, gambling-related harm and opinions on gambling marketing in Uusimaa, Pirkanmaa and Kymenlaakso. National Institute for Health and Welfare (THL). Report 9/2017. Helsinki, Finland, 2017.
- 26 Statistics Finland. Remote Access Use (Fiona). Available at: https://www.stat.fi/tup/mikroaineistot/etakaytto\_en.html (14 April 2021, date last accessed).
- 27 Williams RJ, Volberg RA. The classification accuracy of four problem gambling assessment instruments in population research. Int Gambl Stud 2014;14:15–28.
- 28 Williams RJ, Volberg RA. Best practices in the population assessment of problem gambling. Guelph: Ontario Problem Gambling Research Centre, 2010.
- 29 Statistics Finland. Family | Concepts |. Available at: https://www.stat.fi/meta/kas/perhe\_en.html (4 February 2021, date last accessed).

- 30 UNESCO Institute for Statistics. International Standard Classification of Education-ISCED 2011. Montreal, Quebec Canada, 2012.
- 31 Statistics Finland. Consumption Unit | Concepts. Available at: http://www.stat.fi/meta/kas/kulutusyksikko\_en.html (14 April 2021, date last accessed).
- 32 Ministry of Social Affairs and Health. Social Welfare in Finland. Brochures of the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health 2006:11eng. Helsinki, Finland, 2006.
- 33 Kela. Social Security in Finland. Available at: https://www.kela.fi/web/en/social-security-in-finland (11 February 2021, date last accessed).
- 34 Kela. Right to Unemployment Benefits. Available at: https://www.kela.fi/web/en/right-to-unemployment-benefits (5 February 2021, date last accessed).
- 35 Employment Fund. Benefits for Adult Students. 2020. Available at: https://www.tyollisyysrahasto.fi/en/benefits-for-adult-students/ (2 June 2021, date last accessed).
- 36 Kela. Sickness Allowance. Available at: https://www.kela.fi/web/en/sickness-allowance (5 February 2021, date last accessed).
- 37 Neighbors C, Lostutter TW, Cronce JM, Larimer ME. Exploring college student gambling motivation. J Gambl Stud 2002;18:361–70.
- 38 Lee C-K, Lee Y-K, Bernhard BJ, Yoon Y-S. Segmenting casino gamblers by motivation: a cluster analysis of Korean gamblers. *Tour Manag* 2006;27: 856–66
- 39 Nower L, Blaszczynski A. Gambling motivations, money-limiting strategies, and precommitment preferences of problem versus non-problem gamblers. J Gambl Stud 2010;26:361–72.
- 40 Williams RJ, Volberg RA, Stevens R. The population prevalence of problem gambling: methodological influences, standardized rates, jurisdictional differences, and worldwide trends. Report prepared for the Ontario Problem Gambling Research Centre and the Ontario Ministry of Health and Long Term Care, 2012

The European Journal of Public Health, Vol. 31, No. 6, 1223-1230

© The Author(s) 2021. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the European Public Health Association.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. doi:10.1093/eurpub/ckab119 Advance Access published on 13 July 2021

# Precarious work increases depression-based disability among male employees

Pasi Pyöriä, Satu Ojala, and Jouko Nätti

Faculty of Social Sciences, Tampere University, Tampere, Finland

Correspondence: Pasi Pyöriä, Faculty of Social Sciences, FI-33014 Tampere University, Finland, Tel: +358 503186188, e-mail: pasi.pyoria@tuni.fi

Background: Precarious employment is a potent occupational health risk, but little is known about its association with work-related disability and its causes. This study analyzes whether employment precariousness is associated with receiving disability pension (DP) due to depression and whether this differs according to gender. Methods: Statistics Finland's Quality of Work Life Surveys (1997, 2003, 2008 and 2013) were merged with register-based DP data obtained from the Finnish Centre for Pensions. The survey material was used to measure employment precariousness using five variables: fear of job loss, poor employability prospects, previous unemployment, low earnings and temporary contracts. We followed 20-60-year-old employees until 2016 and studied Cox proportional hazard ratios (HRs) for receiving DP among women and men, adjusting for sociodemographic covariates, working conditions and health at baseline. Results: The overall risk of receiving DP tended to increase as precarious job features accumulated. Among men, a higher risk of receiving DP due to depression was associated with previous unemployment [HR 2.2, 95% confidence interval (CI) 1.1-4.2] and poor employability (HR 2.4, 95% CI 1.3-4.7), whereas no corresponding association was found among women. Conclusions: Employment precariousness may reflect a psychological stress mechanism that predisposes the individual to mental health problems, predicting future disability. Work disability risk shows gendered differences depending on the cause of DP. Promoting employability at workplace and policy levels could offset the health risks associated with precariousness.

#### Introduction

Precarious work has been the subject of growing concern in recent decades. In the labor market context, precariousness means objective uncertainty in employment conditions (e.g. unemployment) and perceived job insecurity (e.g. fear of job loss). Stringent global competition, rapid technological changes and neoliberal economic policies are often seen as the forces that have paved the way for precariousness. 2-4

In the labor market, precariousness represents a continuum of employment conditions that ranges from the secure full-time, well-compensated, and socially protected employment contract at one end, to a high degree of precariousness in different job features at the other. A precarious labor market position is characterized by, for example, periphery contracts, spells of unemployment, deteriorating working conditions, low income and lack of employment protection. A 10-10

In addition to objective uncertainty in employment, the scarring effects of perceived labor market risks play a key role in understanding precariousness and its consequences. Since Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt's seminal work, which defined job insecurity as 'the perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation' (p. 438), subjective labor market risks have received a great deal of attention.

The implications of the fear of job loss for psychological distress and health are comparable in their severity to those of unemployment itself. Burgard et al., for example, found that persistent perceived job insecurity is a significant predictor of poorer self-rated health. Otterbach and Sousa-Poza dobserved that not only being unemployed but also subjective job insecurity has a strong negative effect on both life satisfaction and health: the latter association being quite strong, up to half that of being unemployed.

The adverse effects of perceived job insecurity are, in many cases, exacerbated by poor employability prospects, i.e. the reduced capability of an individual to obtain new employment if required. Past adversities, such as experienced unemployment, may operate via lowered expectations of becoming unemployed in the future, and fear of the future is destructive to a person's subjective well-being. Loss of control over one's 'destiny' is at the heart of this vicious circle, with potentially detrimental consequences for health and work ability.

Green 16 emphasizes that employability strongly moderates the effects of unemployment and job insecurity. Employability matters not only for the unemployed but also for employees whose well-being and life satisfaction may depend on the perceived probability of being able to attain another job that is as good as their current one. According to Green, employability is particularly important for men: an increase in men's employability from zero to 100% reduced the detrimental effect (measured by self-rated life satisfaction and mental health) of job insecurity by more than half: Even where there was no job insecurity, more employable individuals had greater life satisfaction, although there was no significant effect on mental health in this circumstance.

In this study, we analyse the association between precarious labor market position and the risk of receiving disability pension (DP), and ask how the accumulation of precariousness predicts DP. Our study concerns Finnish pay earners aged 20–60, and focuses on gender differences. Although research on precarious work has grown rapidly in recent years, its relation to granted DPs remains less understood, especially from the gender perspective.

We base our analysis on accounts according to which the possible detrimental effects of job insecurity on mental health might be greater for men than for women. We focus on depression-based disability because it is the leading cause for granting DP in Finland. Earlier studies on cause-specific DP have paid little attention to gender, the focus being on physical work exposures, by job strain, relational justice and worktime. Among these studies, only Vahtera et al. addressed the gender aspect: Self-assessed worktime

control decreased the risk of receiving DP based on mental disorders among women.

Conceptually, we maintain that accumulating uncertainty, i.e. precarious labor market position, measured by five validated indicators, <sup>17</sup> is an independent determinant of DP. We hypothesize that precariousness, especially poor employability, <sup>16</sup> predicts future disability. We also hypothesize that precariousness differentiates the risk of receiving DP between women and men, in particular DP based on the depression. This is one of the first studies to assess the gendered contours of precariousness in relation to the cause-specific risk of receiving DP.

#### Methods

#### Study population

The study comprised 15 338 employees aged 20–60 (8142 women and 7196 men) who had been interviewed for Statistics Finland's Quality of Work Life Surveys in 1997 (N=2873), 2003 (N=3922), 2008 (N=4119) or 2013 (N=4424). These surveys were based on random samples, representing 15–64-year-old wage- and salary-earners residing in Finland. The samples are drawn from the official Labor Force Surveys that comply with the EU regulation.

The cross-sectional survey material was pooled and linked to a follow-up extending until the end of 2016, which contained register-based information on all DP recipients. The DP data, using the employees' encrypted personal identification codes, were obtained from the Finnish Centre for Pensions. The survey material's missing data problem was only marginal, because the material was collected through face-to-face interviews by trained interviewes. The response rates in all the surveys were high: 69–79%. The merged administrative registers contain annual measurements for all these respondents with no further missing data. Only migration to another country or death terminate the cumulation of the follow-up data.

#### Measures

#### Disability pension

The outcome variable comprised all cases receiving a work-related DP, including the number of people drawing a full-time or partial DP annually at the end of each follow-up year. DP recipients may participate in occupational training/rehabilitation. As a methodological limitation, we can consider only first DPs during the follow-up. Those who were granted DP during the baseline survey year were excluded from the analysis.

Granted DPs due to mental and physical diagnoses were classified according to the ICD-10 criteria. Depression (F32–F33) and mental disorders (other F-code diagnoses), followed by musculoskeletal diseases (M-code diagnoses), are the leading causes for granting DP in Finland. Diagnoses based on depression and other mental disorders cover over one-third of all new DPs in the country, with depression being the main single cause for DP retirement. Over the period of the present study, about 20 000–25 000 people retired on earnings-related DP annually.

In Finland, a DP may be granted (either for a fixed term or until further notice) to an insured person aged 16–64 whose work ability has been reduced for at least one year due to an illness, injury or handicap. In recent years, about one-tenth of full disability pensioners and about 80% of partial disability pensioners have been engaged in paid work. Retirees who have received DP due to mental diagnoses work less frequently than those who have received DP due to musculoskeletal diseases or other diseases.<sup>22</sup>

The risk of DP receipt increases with age, and the tendency to retire on a DP is highest around the age of 60. This varies by the cause: those retiring due to mental diagnoses are younger than those retiring due to musculoskeletal diseases. People of lower socioeconomic status run a higher risk of disability retirement than people of

upper socioeconomic status; however, socioeconomic differences due to depression are small.<sup>23</sup>

#### Indicators of precariousness

Based on earlier research hypothesizing that precariousness acts as a stressor to the individual, predisposing to work-related disability, <sup>10,17</sup> we used the following measures that reflect both subjective and objective precariousness: fear of job loss, poor employability prospects, previous unemployment, low earnings and temporary contracts.

Fear of job loss was the sum of three risk factors: the perceived threat of being laid off, dismissed and/or made redundant, formed as a dichotomous variable (no threats vs. at least one threat). Poor employability was measured by asking 'What do you think would be the likelihood of you finding a new job: good, reasonable or poor?' The response was deemed to indicate precariousness if the respondent felt they had poor chances of finding a new job in the open labor market. Previous unemployment referred to at least one spell of unemployment in the past five years. By low earnings, based on the question 'What is your monthly gross pay in your main job before tax?', we refer to the lowest income quintile. Finally, our multi-dimensional construct of precariousness included employment with a fixed-term contract.

#### Covariates

Sociodemographic covariates included age, gender and educational level. Prior evidence indicates that the dropout rate from the labor force and the proportion of time spent on DP increase as people get older. <sup>24</sup> In Finland, women spend more time on DP due to mental disorders and musculoskeletal diseases than men, and people with primary or secondary education spend more time on DP than people with tertiary education in all disease categories. <sup>24</sup>

We included measures for intimate relationship (married or cohabiting vs. no relationship) and having children under 18 living at home (Yes/No). Intimate relationship and family provide social support that is associated with positive health outcomes and psychological well-being. <sup>25</sup> As chronic illnesses (mental health problems in particular) co-exist with work disability, <sup>26</sup> we controlled for long-term morbidity by including a measure for reported chronic illnesses (Yes/No) or depressive symptoms (Weekly or daily/Less often). We also controlled for the survey year in all models.

The covariates characterizing working conditions included adverse physical factors, job demands/control and shiftwork, as these job characteristics have been linked to disability. 18,21,22 Physical work exposures were based on an 18-item inventory. Following prior studies, 18 we used a factor analysis that divided the items into three factors: hazardous, physical workload and 'office work' exposures.

The first factor comprised the following items: heat, cold, vibration, draught, noise, smoke, gases, fumes, humidity, dusts, dirtiness of the work environment, poor/glaring lighting and irritant substances. The second factor comprised items related to repetitive and monotonous movements, difficult working positions and heavy lifting. The third factor combined items somewhat different from 'computer work', used by Halonen et al., <sup>18</sup> interpretable however as office-related work, describing inadequate ventilation, restlessness of the work environment, lack of space and mildew in buildings. These covariates were not categorized, in order to accurately measure the variation in the individuals' responses in the different survey years.

We also adjusted for several items that are very similar to those in previous studies utilizing the Job Demand-Control (JDC) model. High job demands and/or low autonomy have been associated with an increased risk of receiving DP, whereas good work control implies the opposite. <sup>28</sup>

Job demands were measured using six items that reflect adverse work environment factors: Time pressure and tight time schedules: Very much = 1...Not at all = 5; Over the past few years, do you think your pace of work has: Increased considerably = 1...Decreased considerably = 5; In your work, can you generally take breaks or rest periods: Sufficiently often, Not quite often enough, Far too seldom; My work contains tight time schedules: Totally true = 1...Totally untrue = 4; I do not have time to do my work as well and conscientiously as I would like to: Totally true = 1...Totally untrue = 4; There are too few employees for the workload at my workplace: Totally agree = 1...Totally disagree = 5.

Job control (autonomy) was measured using five items: Are you able to influence: The contents of your tasks; The order in which you do your tasks; The pace of your work; Your working methods; The divisions of tasks between employees (1 = Not at all...4 = A great deal). The JDC measures were first summed and then divided into quintiles.

Finally, we included a variable for shiftwork. <sup>18</sup> The dichotomized variable included two- and three-shift work with or without night work. Those in day work, morning- or evening work only, as well as 'total working time' contracts, were categorized as day work.

#### Statistical analyses

We tested the covariates for multicollinearity. In the follow-up model, we computed Cox proportional hazard ratios (HRs) for receiving DP, adjusting for the covariates. We estimated the associations between gender and receiving DP, and interacted gender with precariousness (table 2), to validate further analysis that separates genders.

In the first analysis, indicators on precariousness were analysed separately in relation to the risk of receiving DP for any cause and depression (table 3). We applied a four-step procedure considering precarious labor market position only (model 1), demographic/ socio-economic characteristics (m2), working conditions (m3), and finally, to study the potential endogeneity of the precarious population (pre-existing mental/physical illnesses determining DP rather than precariousness), baseline depression and long-term illness (m4). In the second analysis, following prior studies 10,17,29 recommending the use of multidimensional exposures, we combined the indicators to assess how the accumulation of precariousness predicts future disability (table 4). The analyses were separated by gender, as we expected that the mechanisms behind work disability are different for women and men. 16,17,21 The results were broken down by all causes of DP and depression, as we found that certain precarious job features were more strongly and consistently related to the risk of receiving DP due to depression than other diagnoses.

All survey respondents were included in the analysis, with follow-up running from the baseline year (1997, 2003, 2008, 2013) up until 2016. Those who died/moved out of the country (n=410 men, n=538 women) were not excluded from the analysis, because Cox regression considers the censored structure of the data. We also experimented with fixed-length follow-ups (3 years; 5 and 8 years without the 2013 survey), and with the duration of unemployment during the follow-up, to check the robustness of our results. The associations remained robust, with minor differences in the magnitude of HRs.

#### **Results**

Table 1 shows the characteristics of the study population by all DP cases and depression-based DP, including the distribution of precarious job features and all covariates. The supplementary online table presents these characteristics by gender. Table 2 validates the gender difference in entering the DP scheme as regards exposure to precariousness.

Table 1 Baseline covariates and their associations with all-cause disability pension (DP) and DP based on depression

	Participants		DP: All causes		DP: Depression	
Covariate	N	%	N	%	N	%
All participants	15 338	100.0	939	6.1	135	0.9
Gender						
Man	7196	46.9	401	5.6	47	0.7
Woman	8142	53.1	538	6.6	88	1.1
Precarious features (Exposure)						
Fear of job loss						
Yes	4409	28.8	294	6.7	45	1.0
No	10 926	71.2	645	5.9	90	0.8
Poor employability	.0320	,	0.5	5.5	30	0.0
Yes	4192	27.4	461	11.0	49	1.2
No	11 135	72.6	476	4.3	86	0.8
	11 133	72.0	470	4.5	80	0.6
Temporary contract	2104	12.7	122	6.3	10	0.0
Yes	2104	13.7	132	6.3	18	0.9
No	13 230	86.3	807	6.1	117	0.9
Lowest pay quintile	2011	4				
Yes (NB categorized variables 15–20% per survey yr)	2644	17.2	207	7.8	28	1.1
No	12 694	82.8	732	5.8	107	8.0
Previous unemployment						
Yes	3730	24.3	251	6.7	35	0.9
No	11 605	75.7	687	5.9	99	0.9
Demographic and socioeconomic factors (model 2)						
Age at the baseline						
20–30	3098	20.2	57	1.8	25	0.8
31–40	3941	25.7	122	3.1	35	0.9
41–50	4503	29.4	420	9.3	57	1.3
51–60	3796	24.7	340	9.0	18	0.5
In a relationship (baseline)	3730	24.7	340	5.0	10	0.5
Yes	10 663	69.5	637	6.0	83	0.8
No	4675	30.5	302	6.5	52	1.1
	40/3	30.5	302	6.5	32	1.1
Child <18 yrs in the household (baseline)	CEAE	42.7	222	- 4		4.0
Yes	6545	42.7	332	5.1	66	1.0
No	8793	57.3	607	6.9	69	8.0
Education						
Primary	2181	14.2	249	11.4	22	1.0
Secondary	7213	47.0	506	7.0	62	0.9
Tertiary	5944	38.8	184	3.1	51	0.9
Working conditions (model 3)						
Shift work						
Yes	3190	20.8	225	7.1	29	0.9
No	12 141	79.2	712	5.9	106	0.9
	Mean (StD)	StD	Mean (StD)	StD	Mean	StD
Hazardous, scale 15 (No High exposure)	1.5	0.6	1.7	0.7	1.6	0.7
Physical work load, scale 15 (No High exposure)	1.7		2.0	1.1		1.1
		1.0			1.9	
Office work, scale 15 (Low High exposure)	1.5	0.7	1.6	0.8	1.7	0.8
Demands, scale 14 (Low High demands)	2.5	1.1	2.7	1.2	2.7	1.2
Control, scale 14 (Low High control)	2.5	1.1	2.3	1.1	2.3	1.1
Baseline physical and mental illnesses (model 4)						
Baseline depressive symptoms Weekly/Daily						
Yes	335	2.2	59	17.6	19	5.7
No	15003	97.8	880	5.9	116	0.8
Baseline longterm illness						
Yes	4726	30.8	536	11.3	72	1.5
No	10605	69.2	403	3.8	63	0.6

Tables 1 and 2 indicate that a slightly higher proportion of women had entered the DP scheme due to any cause and depression than men. The interaction term in table 2 shows, however, that in comparison to all employees who received DP, men exposed to poor employability prospects and previous experience of unemployment had entered both all-cause DP and depression-based DP more probably than women.

As shown in table 3, precariousness was found to increase the risk of receiving DP due to any cause with varying degrees. In the model 1, men who feared losing their jobs were at an elevated risk of receiving DP, but after adjusting for the covariates, this insecurity factor became statistically insignificant. In the model 1, poor employability and low pay appeared to be the most significant risk factors for receiving DP for both genders. However, when all

covariates were adjusted for, poor employability remained a significant predictor of receiving DP only among men. Also, previous unemployment predicted disability for men (all covariates adjusted for in model 4).

After adjusting for the covariates, poor employability (men's HR 2.4, 95% CI 1.3–4.7) and previous unemployment (men's HR 2.2, 95% CI 1.1–4.2) were the only precarious job features that elevated the risk of receiving DP due to depression. This finding applied to only men (table 3).

Table 4 presents the accumulation of precariousness in relation to the risk of entering the DP scheme. In our model for the accumulation, with all covariates adjusted for (model 4), the HRs for receiving DP due to any cause among men who were exposed to one or more job insecurity factors and were at the level of 1.5–1.8 (95% CI

**Table 2** Hazard ratios (HR) and their 95% confidence intervals for gender (\*1), and for interaction terms precarious job features X gender (\*2), derived from Cox proportional hazard models

	DP: A	ll causes	DP: Depression		
	HR	95% CI	HR	95% CI	
HR for gender (*1)					
Woman (ref. man)	1.10	0.97-1.25	1.65	1.15-2.35	
HR for precarious features X gender	r (*2)				
Woman (ref. man)	1.36	1.10-1.79	3.01	1.70-5.33	
Fear of job loss	1.12	0.90-1.40	1.42	0.76-2.63	
Fear of job loss X woman	0.96	0.71-1.30	0.96	0.44-2.01	
Poor employability	1.80	1.46-2.21	2.82	1.53-5.18	
Poor employability X woman	0.70	0.54-0.91	0.41	0.20-0.86	
Temporary contract	1.17	0.83-1.64	0.49	0.17-1.47	
Temporary contract X woman	0.85	0.54-1.32	1.63	0.45-5.84	
Lowest pay quintile	1.48	1.09-2.01	1.30	0.56-3.03	
Lowest pay quintile X woman	0.96	0.67-1.39	0.84	0.32-2.25	
Previous unemployment	1.46	1.15-1.86	1.90	1.01-3.59	
Previous unemployment X woman	0.70	0.50-0.99	0.33	0.14-0.80	

<sup>\*: 1</sup> Adjusted for survey yr (1997, 2003, 2008, 2013) and age.

Statistically significant HRs are bolded.

1.2–2.4). There was a tendency for the risk of receiving DP to increase as precarious job features accumulated.

In our model for the accumulation, with all covariates adjusted for, men who suffered from 2–5 simultaneous precarious job features were at an elevated risk of receiving DP due to depression (HRs 2.7, 95% CI 1.2–5.9). We found no such risk for women. Overall, we found that the men who were exposed to precariousness in our survey population were at risk of entering the DP scheme due to depression.

#### Discussion

In this study, poor employability prospects and previous unemployment elevated the risk of receiving DP due to depression among men, but we found no corresponding association among women, supporting our hypothesis that precarious labor market situation predicts future disability and affects women and men differently. The disadvantage that men had in this regard was statistically significant even after controlling for key sociodemographic background variables, baseline depression and long-term illness, and various factors related to working conditions. We also found that the accumulation of precariousness is more harmful than a single threat. The accumulation of uncertainty increased the risk of

Table 3 Hazard ratios (HRs) by all causes of DP and DP based on depression, by exposure to precarious job features

Precarious job feature			DP: All causes			DP: Depression		
			Cases/Exposed	HRs	CI	Cases/Exposed	HRs	CI
Fear of job loss	Models 1	Men	138/2079	1.38	1.12–1.69	18/2079	1.65	0.91–2.98
		Women	156/2330	1.15	0.96-1.39	27/2330	1.15	0.73-1.82
	Models 2	Men		1.36	1.10-1.67		1.66	0.92-3.01
		Women		1.12	0.93-1.36		1.16	0.73-1.83
	Models 3	Men		1.05	0.83-1.32		1.23	0.65-2.33
		Women		1.00	0.82-1.24		1.24	0.76-2.04
	Models 4	Men		1.02	0.81-1.28		1.08	0.56-2.06
		Women		0.97	0.79-1.10		1.15	0.70-1.88
Poor employability	Models 1	Men	190/1661	1.88	1.52-2.33	20/1661	3.05	1.62-5.76
. , ,		Women	271/2531	1.33	1.11-1.61	29/2531	1.28	0.78-2.11
	Models 2	Men		1.65	1.33-2.05		3.06	1.61-5.82
		Women		1.23	1.02-1.49		1.30	0.79-2.15
	Models 3	Men		1.56	1.25-1.95		2.74	1.43-5.25
		Women		1.21	1.00-1.46		1.25	0.75-2.07
	Models 4	Men		1.45	1.16-1.82		2.42	1.25-4.69
		Women		1.09	0.90-1.32		1.07	0.64-1.79
Temporary contract	Models 1	Men	50/701	1.73	1.28-2.35	4/701	0.84	0.30-2.39
. ,		Women	82/1403	1.17	0.92-1.49	14/1403	0.80	0.44-1.46
	Models 2	Men		1.71	1.26-2.31		0.83	0.29-2.38
		Women		1.15	0.90-1.46		0.77	0.42-1.42
	Models 3	Men		1.34	0.94-1.89		0.50	0.16-1.50
		Women		1.11	0.83-1.50		0.80	0.41-1.59
	Models 4	Men		1.25	0.88–1.77		0.45	0.15–1.35
		Women		1.13	0.84–1.53		0.81	0.41-1.62
Lowest pay quartile	Models 1	Men	54/749	1.97	1.47–2.65	7/749	1.80	0.77-4.19
		Women	153/1895	1.54	1.27–1.86	21/1895	1.10	0.66–1.81
	Models 2	Men	100/ 1000	1.57	1.17–2.12	2.7.1033	1.79	0.76–4.23
		Women		1.30	1.07–1.58		1.06	0.63-1.79
	Models 3	Men		1.30	0.95–1.77		1.53	0.63-3.72
	Models 3	Women		1.28	1.04–1.57		1.13	0.66-1.94
	Models 4	Men		1.27	0.93–1.74		1.49	0.61–3.63
	WIOGCI3 4	Women		1.23	1.00–1.51		1.43	0.60-1.77

(continued)

<sup>\*: 2</sup> Adjusted for survey yr. age and other precarious features of the job.

Table 3 Continued

Precarious job feature			DP: All causes			DP: Depression		
			Cases/Exposed	HRs	CI	Cases/Exposed	HRs	CI
Previous unemployment	Models 1	Men	128/1829	1.68	1.35–2.08	19/1829	2.07	1.13–3.78
		Women	123/1901	1.18	0.96-1.45	16/1901	0.68	0.39-1.18
	Models 2	Men		1.50	1.20-1.86		2.14	1.16-3.95
		Women		1.11	0.90-1.36		0.66	0.38-1.15
	Models 3	Men		1.22	0.95-1.57		2.03	1.05-3.92
		Women		1.04	0.81-1.33		0.64	0.35-1.18
	Models 4	Men		1.29	1.01-1.65		2.16	1.12-4.18
		Women		1.03	0.80-1.32		0.63	0.34–1.16

Model 1: Adjusted for survey yr (1997, 2003, 2008, 2013) and age.

Model 2: + Demographic and socioeconomic covariates.

Model 3: + Other precarious features and working conditions.

Model 4: + Baseline physical and mental illnesses (full model).

Table 4 Hazard ratios (HRs) for causes of DP, by exposure to the accumulated precariousness of the job (scale: summed 0...5 items, not weighted, categorized 0, 1, 2–5)

		DP: All causes			DP: Depression			
		Cases/Exposed	HRs	CI	Cases/Exposed	HRs	CI	
Model 1	Men, 0 precarious features	93/2864	Ref.		11/2864	Ref.		
	1	155/2477	1.79	1.38-2.33	15/2477	1.74	0.79-3.79	
	2–5	153/1843	2.53	1.95-3.30	21/1843	3.44	1.63-7.27	
	Women. 0 precarious features	127/2575			29/2575			
	1	190/2792	1.19	0.95-1.50	32/2792	1.10	0.66-1.84	
	2–5	218/2766	1.58	1.26-1.98	26/2766	0.88	0.51-1.51	
Model 2	Men. 0 precarious features							
	1		1.61	1.24-2.08		1.73	0.79-3.80	
	2–5		2.17	1.66-2.83		3.60	1.69-7.69	
	Women. 0 precarious features							
	1		1.09	0.87-1.38		1.09	0.65-1.82	
	2–5		1.37	1.09-1.71		0.86	0.49-1.49	
Model 3	Men. 0 precarious features							
	1		1.53	1.18-1.99		1.61	0.73-3.54	
	2–5		1.90	1.45-2.49		3.18	1.46-6.90	
	Women. 0 precarious features							
	1		1.10	0.87-1.38		1.07	0.64-1.80	
	2–5		1.35	1.07-1.69		0.81	0.46-1.41	
Model 4	Men. 0 precarious features							
	1		1.52	1.17-1.97		1.59	0.73-3.51	
	2–5		1.79	1.36-2.35		2.70	1.23-5.91	
	Women. 0 precarious features							
	1		1.03	0.82-1.30		0.97	0.58-1.62	
	2–5		1.24	0.98-1.56		0.66	0.38-1.16	

Model 1: Adjusted for survey yr (1997, 2003, 2008, 2013) and age.

Model 2: + Demographic and socioeconomic covariates.

Model 3: + Working conditions.

 $\label{eq:model} \mbox{Model 4:} + \mbox{Baseline physical and mental illnesses (full model)}.$ 

receiving DP due to depression among men but, again, not among women.

Prior research on the gendered contours of precarious work and its association with work disability has produced mixed results. Discrepancies between study outcomes reflect variations in research settings and differences in national labor markets. In particular, the lack of cause-specific data on DP recipients may hamper understanding the gendered mechanisms between different work environment exposures and DP diagnoses.

In Spain, Vives et al.<sup>30</sup> observed an association between precarious work and poor mental health, which was stronger among women, suggesting an interaction with gender-related power asymmetries. Ojala and Pyöriä, <sup>17</sup> on the other hand, found that Finnish men whose labor market position reflected precariousness and who had

experienced unemployment in the past were at a higher risk of entering the DP scheme than women in a similar position. Ferrante et al.,<sup>31</sup> in the Italian context, found that precarious work was not directly associated with poor mental health, but was related to economic problems, possibly caused by job instability. Their finding only applied to men. Park et al.<sup>32</sup> estimated how depression among older people in Korea varied by employment status and gender: The risk of depression in male precarious workers was significantly increased compared with full-time male permanent workers, whereas it was not significantly different among women.

The changing economic landscape may play a role in feelings of uncertainty among the study population at risk of receiving DP. In Finland, men's level of education is lower than that of women, and men are typically employed in cyclical industries such as

manufacturing.<sup>33</sup> Men employed in manufacturing may have more industry-specific skills than (female) service workers, whose jobs involve interactive and social skills. As Green<sup>16</sup> has proposed, job loss (hence also job insecurity) has a greater effect on individuals who possess fewer transferable skills and are hence less employable.

Prior research has shown that the labor market history, especially prolonged unemployment, predicts work disability.<sup>34</sup> The detrimental effects of unemployment and the fear of job loss might be greater for men than for women.<sup>16</sup> Job insecurity may pose a threat to men's masculine self-identity, which revolves around paid work and the breadwinner status.<sup>35</sup> Unemployment is possibly more stigmatizing and harmful to men than it is to women, who benefit from more inclusive social networks and social support outside the workplace. Sociability plays a protective role against depression and may postpone retirement, whereas weak social ties may be a risk factor for mental health problems, especially as job insecurity increases.<sup>36,37</sup>

The main strength of the present study is that the survey material reliably represented all pay earners of the country and had very high response rates. A further strength is the high-quality register-based data on granted cause-specific DPs as the outcome. We were also able to control for several important sociodemographic and jobrelated background factors. However, the survey material enabled us to measure the exposure to precariousness at baseline only. The survey also lacked information on the respondents' health behavior risks, but we were able to study the probable endogeneity of precarious workers by controlling long-term illnesses and depressive symptoms. Unfortunately, our data had no information on vocational rehabilitation. Another limitation is that a marginal share of the shortest spells of DP may be uncovered since the follow-up indicator (main status) is only based on one's status at the end of a year.

Finally, our statistical model predicting HRs might overestimate the risk for receiving DP since we did not consider the competing risks of labor market exit. However, as we focused on 20–60-year-old employees, the DP system is the main route of labor market exit. In the study population, possible competing exit routes such as part-time pension only concern older population.

### **Conclusions**

Depression is widespread across Europe. In addition to developing mental health policies and clinical practices, the promotion of job quality should be given a high priority in order to make work more sustainable. Attention should also be paid to amending perceived labor market risks. A positive attitude toward job opportunities is an important coping mechanism for an individual, whereas cynicism about the future often has the opposite effect. The risk of receiving DP could potentially be offset by improving individuals' employability through developing skills, autonomy and opportunities for on-the-job learning.

# Supplementary data

Supplementary data are available at EURPUB online.

# **Acknowledgements**

The main contribution of this paper—the finding that precarious work increases depression-based disability among male employees—was first observed by our dear colleague and mentor, Professor Jouko Nätti, who passed away while we were conducting the present study. This article is dedicated to his memory.

## **Funding**

This work was supported by The Finnish Work Environment Fund [117355].

Conflicts of interest: None declared.

# Data availability

The data underlying this article cannot be shared publicly since it is maintained by Statistics Finland.

# **Key points**

- Precarious work predicts an increased risk of receiving DP.
- A higher risk of DP retirement due to depression was associated with previous unemployment and poor employability among men, but we found no corresponding association among women.
- Promoting job quality and employability could offset the health risks associated with precarious work.

#### References

- Kalleberg AR. Precarious lives: job insecurity and well-being in rich democracies. Cambridge: Polity Press, 2018.
- 2 Hyman R. What future for industrial relations in Europe? ER 2018;40:569-79.
- 3 Rubery J, Keizer A, Grimshaw D. Flexibility bites back: the multiple and hidden costs of flexible employment policies. Hum Resour Manag J 2016;26:235–51.
- 4 Jonsson J, Vives A, Benach J, et al. Measuring precarious employment in Sweden: translation, adaptation and psychometric properties of the Employment Precariousness Scale (EPRES). BMJ Open 2019;9:e029577.
- 5 Benach J, Muntaner C. Precarious employment and health: developing a research agenda. J Epidemiol Community Health 2007;61:276–7.
- 6 Benach J, Vives A, Amable M, et al. Precarious employment: understanding an emerging social determinant of health. Annu Rev Public Health 2014;35:229–53.
- 7 Pyöriä P, Ojala S. Precarious work and intrinsic job quality: evidence from Finland, 1984–2013. Econ Labour Relat Rev 2016;27:349–67.
- 8 Rasmussen S, Nätti J, Larsen TP, et al. Nonstandard employment in the Nordics toward precarious work? Nordic J Working Life Studies 2019;9:7–32.
- 9 Koranyi I, Jonsson J, Rönnblad T, et al. Precarious employment and occupational accidents and injuries – a systematic review. Scand J Work Environ Health 2018;44: 341–50.
- 10 Rönnblad T, Grönholm E, Jonsson J, et al. Precarious employment and mental health: a systematic review and meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. Scand J Work Environ Health 2019:45:429–43.
- 11 Greenhalgh L, Rosenblatt Z. Job insecurity: toward conceptual clarity. AMR 1984;9: 438–48.
- 12 Gallie D, Felstead A, Green F, Inanc H. The hidden face of job insecurity. Work Employ Soc 2017;31:36–53.
- 13 Burgard SA, Brand JE, House JS. Perceived job insecurity and worker health in the United States. Soc Sci Med 2009;69:777–85.
- 14 Otterbach S, Sousa-Poza A. Job insecurity, employability and health: an analysis for Germany across generations. App Econ 2016;48:1303–16.
- 15 Knabe A, Rätzel S. Scarring or scaring? The psychological impact of past unemployment and future unemployment risk. *Economica* 2011;78:283–93.
- 16 Green F. Unpacking the misery multiplier: how employability modifies the impacts of unemployment and job insecurity on life satisfaction and mental health. J Health Econ 2011;30:265–76.
- 17 Ojala S, Pyöriä P. Precarious work and the risk of receiving a disability pension. Scand I Public Health 2019;47:293–300.
- 18 Halonen JI, Mänty M, Pietiläinen O, et al. Physical working conditions and sub-sequent disability retirement due to any cause, mental disorders and musculo-skeletal diseases: does the risk vary by common mental disorders? Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol 2020;55:1021–9.
- 19 Juvani A, Oksanen T, Salo P, et al. Effort-reward imbalance as a risk factor for disability pension: the Finnish Public Sector Study. Scand J Work Environ Health 2014;40:266–77.
- 20 Juvani A, Oksanen T, Virtanen M, et al. Organizational justice and disability pension from all-causes, depression and musculoskeletal diseases: a Finnish

- cohort study of public sector employees. Scand J Work Environ Health 2016;42:
- 21 Vahtera J, Laine S, Virtanen M, et al. Employee control over working times and risk of cause-specific disability pension: the Finnish Public Sector Study. Occup Environ Med 2010:67:479–85.
- 22 Polvinen A, Laaksonen M, Rantala J, et al. Working while on a disability pension in Finland: association of diagnosis and financial factors to employment. Scand J Public Health 2018;46:74–81.
- 23 Polvinen A. Socioeconomic status and disability retirement in Finland: causes, changes over time and mortality. Helsinki: Finnish Centre for Pensions, 2016. http://urn.fi/ URN:NBN:fi-fe2016080322595 (2 July 2021, date last accessed).
- 24 Laaksonen M, Rantala J, Järnefelt N, Kannisto J. Työkyvyttömyyden vuoksi menetetty työura [Working lives reduced by disability pensions]. Helsinki: Finnish Centre for Pensions, 2016. http://urn.fi/URN:978-951-691-247-2 (2 July 2021, date last accessed).
- 25 Mirowsky J, Ross CE. Education, interpersonal relationships, and health. In: J Mirowsky, C.E. Ross editors. *Education, Social Status, and Health*. New York: Routledge, 2017; 126–39.
- 26 Falkstedt D, Backhans M, Lundin A, et al. Do working conditions explain the increased risks of disability pension among men and women with low education? A follow-up of Swedish cohorts. Scand J Work Environ Health 2014;40:483–92.
- 27 Karasek R, Theorell T. Healthy work: stress, productivity, and the reconstruction of working life. New York: Basic Books, 1990.
- 28 Knardahl S, Johannessen HA, Sterud T, et al. The contribution from psychological, social, and organizational work factors to risk of disability retirement: a systematic review with meta-analyses. BMC Public Health 2017;17:176.

- 29 Bodin T, Çağlayan C, Garde AH, et al. Precarious employment in occupational health – an OMEGA-NET working group position paper. Scand J Work Environ Health 2020:46:321–9.
- 30 Vives A, Amable M, Ferrer M, et al. Employment precariousness and poor mental health: evidence from Spain on a new social determinant of health. *J Environ Public Health* 2013;2013:978656–10.
- 31 Ferrante G, Fasanelli F, Gigantesco A, et al. Is the association between precarious employment and mental health mediated by economic difficulties in males? Results from two Italian studies. BMC Public Health 2019;19:869.
- 32 Park S, Kang M-Y, Lee J-H. Precarious employment as compared with unemployment reduces the risk of depression in the elderly in Korea. J Occup Environ Med. 2020;62:559–566.
- 33 Gender equality in Finland. Helsinki: Statistics Finland, 2018.
- 34 Pirkola S, Nevalainen J, Laaksonen M, et al. The importance of clinical and labour market histories in psychiatric disability retirement: analysis of the comprehensive Finnish national-level RETIRE data. Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol 2020;55: 1011–1021.
- 35 Zuo J, Tang S. Breadwinner status and gender ideologies of men and women regarding family roles. Sociol Perspec 2000;43:29–43.
- 36 Santini ZI, Koyanagi A, Tyrovolas S, et al. The association between social relationships and depression: a systematic review. J Affect Disord 2015;175: 53–65
- 37 Kauppi M, Kivimäki M, Aalto V, Oksanen T. Sosiaaliset verkostot ja työurien pidentäminen. [Social Relationships and Extended Employment beyond the Pensionable Age]. Helsinki: Finnish Institute of Occupational Health, 2019.

The European Journal of Public Health, Vol. 31, No. 6, 1230–1236
© The Author(s) 2021. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the European Public Health Association. All rights reserved. doi:10.1093/eurpub/ckab181 Advance Access published on 13 October 2021

# Adverse employment histories, work stress and self-reported depression in the French CONSTANCES study

Hanno Hoven (1) 1, Morten Wahrendorf 1, Marcel Goldberg (1) 2,3, Marie Zins (1) 2,3, Johannes Siegrist 4

- 1 Centre for Health and Society, Medical Faculty, Institute of Medical Sociology, University of Düsseldorf, Düsseldorf, Germany
- 2 INSERM, Population-based Epidemiological Cohorts Unit, UMS 011, Villejuif, France
- 3 Université de Paris, France
- 4 Senior Professorship on Work Stress Research, Medical Faculty, University of Düsseldorf, Düsseldorf, Germany

Correspondence: Hanno Hoven, Centre for Health and Society, Institute of Medical Sociology, Medical Faculty, University of Düsseldorf, Moorenstraße 5, 40225 Düsseldorf, Tel: +49 (0) 211 81 06539, e-mail: hanno.hoven@med.uni-duesseldorf.de

Background: Job instability and disadvantaged work were shown to be associated with poor mental health, but few studies analyzed these conditions in a life course perspective. In this study, adverse employment histories are retrospectively assessed and linked to self-reported depression. Furthermore, indirect effects of later stressful psychosocial work in terms of effort-reward imbalance are investigated. Methods: With data from the French CONSTANCES cohort study of 13 716 male and 12 767 female employees aged 45 and older, we identify adverse employment histories between age 25 and 45, focussing on job discontinuity, job instability and cumulative disadvantage. Direct effects of these conditions on self-reported depression over a period of up to 5 years are analyzed, using discrete-time logistic regression. Indirect effects of stressful work at baseline are examined. Results: Moderately elevated odds ratios of self-reported depression are observed among participants with discontinued employment histories (number of unemployment periods; years out of work for men). Effort-reward imbalance at work is consistently related to elevated risk of self-reported depression and explains parts of the association between discontinuous employment and depression. Conclusions: Applying a life course perspective to occupational health research extends current knowledge. Specifically, adverse employment histories in terms of recurrent job discontinuity are related to the risk of self-reported depression. This association is partly explained by exposure to a stressful psychosocial work environment. These results can instruct labour market policies and the development of targeted worksite interventions that address disadvantage throughout entire employment trajectories.